CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Research is a general term which covers all kinds of studies designed to find responses to worthwhile questions by means of a systematic and scientific approach. We must first understand what research is. It is another word for gathering of information. The more information we have the closer we get of making our own decision. Research is the result of advancing knowledge created in the past. There are people from all walks of life that contribute to gathered information. These are ordinary people and extraordinary people. They include teachers, students, scientists, professors, scholars, business owners, librarians, book keepers, writers, politicians and many more unknown out there. These are everyday citizens we interact with. They all help with the flow information that people use for self help.

Research is designed to solve a particular existing problem so there is a much larger audience eager to support research that is likely to be profitable or solve problems of immediate concern. Research requires time, effort, and sometimes money to have the evidence we need to make a sound decision that's why many avoid it. The research we do and evidence we gather will have impact on our future. Be advised, considered the risks or consequences of making an important decision with inadequate evidence.

There are many different ways to carry out research but roughly speaking there are two main approaches, namely qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative studies concentrate mainly on words and meanings and aim to capture the richness and complexity of human experience, whereas quantitative studies involve recording information obtained from participants in numerical form so as to enable statistical analysis of the findings and the generalization of those findings to the wider population. The purpose of research is to inform action. Thus, a research study should seek to contextualize its findings within the larger body of research. Furthermore, the results of study should have implications for policy and project implementation. In conclusion, research is very vital to our everyday decision making. It arms one from wrong information and save time and money. It is important for success as it is taken on life's challenges and career decisions making.
Every piece of ongoing research needs to be connected with the work already done, to attain an overall relevance and purpose. The review of literature thus becomes a link between the research proposed and the studies already done. It tells the reader about aspects that have been already established or concluded by other authors, and also gives a chance to the reader to appreciate the evidence that has already been collected by previous research, and thus projects the current research work in the proper perspective.

A large part of review of literature actually needs to be done even before the research project is formalized. This is essential to make sure that we are not repeating the work that someone has already done earlier. Sometimes, if the research proposed by us has already been undertaken earlier, then it provides us an option of modifying our work by adding a new perspective or altering some of the methods of research to obtain a perspective that will be different from earlier works and thus more valuable. Occasionally, our work may be exact repetition of the work done earlier, but with a different set of data or sources of facts, and purpose of the research may just be seen if our results are similar to earlier works or otherwise.

A good researcher usually goes through a lot more literature than is actually incorporated in the paper. This is because different literature may have differing relevance for the current project and all of it may not worth reporting in the end, but in the initial phase, when we are looking for all aspects of an issue that could be relevant one would like to extensively explore the literature and see if any relevant findings are already available. Some of the literature reviewed is directly relevant and hence used as a preface to explain the background of work. Then other reports may be relevant from the point of view of the project as they provide some clues to the puzzle by suggesting a hypothesis, which may be the subject matter of your research project. Lastly, review of literature is also important to highlight difference in opinions, contradictory findings or evidence, and the different explanations given for their conclusions and differences by different authors. In some cases, an analysis of these factors can help one understand many facets of a complex issue and at other times, such analysis can lead to a new possibility that can be researched upon in the current project. Thus review of literature is a very important part of one's research.
2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO TEACHING COMPETENCE

*Bhattacharjee (1981)* in a study to know the effectiveness of Microteaching in developing Teaching Competence. A sample of 20 B.Ed. trainees was selected from one training college in Shillong, and divided into two equal groups (experimental and control) in terms of age, sex, qualifications, etc. The study revealed that training for the integration of the four selected skills under the 'summative model' of integration had contributed to the teaching competence of the experimental group significantly in comparison with the control group.

*Sharma (1982)* studied the effect of additive model of integrating skills upon teaching competence of student teachers. Twenty student-teachers (1981-82) of one training college in Shillong were selected and divided into two equal groups, which were equated in terms of sex, age, qualifications, teaching subjects (method subjects), experience. The significance of difference between means of gain scores of both the groups was found out by employing t-test. Findings showed that additive model of integration skills has a positive impact on student teachers’ teaching competence.

*Bailkeri (1983)* examined the effect of self-instructive remedial micro-teaching on the instructional competence of in-service secondary school teachers. The effectiveness of the course was tested by comparing pre-treatment scores with immediate post-treatment scores and immediate post-treatment scores with delayed post-treatment scores using t-test. The remedial SIMC was effective in improving mathematics general instructional competence of in-service teachers of secondary schools.

*Chathley (1984)* undertook a study to measure the gain in general teaching competence before and after training in micro-skills, before and after training in integration, and to find out the gain in the general teaching competence of trainees. The sample consisted of 90 trainees comprising 45 males and 45 females. The findings of the study were that there was a significant improvement in the general teaching competence of trainees as a result of training in micro-skills and integrated. There was no significant difference in the gain in general teaching competence between male and female trainees as a result of training in integrated skills.
Joshi (1984) for the field study, the sample consisted of 53 student-teachers enrolled in the Adarsh Comprehensive College of Education and Research, Pune, during 1978-80. The results of the experimental study indicated favourable results for IMA over SMI in terms of increasing the proportion of desired transitions in total transitions, occurring in teaching; in reducing the percentage of directions given by the student-teachers in teaching; and in training of RQI skill cluster as a whole.

Syag (1984) to find out the relative effectiveness of three different training approaches-peer feedback upon General Teaching Competence (GTC) of teachers measured at different occasions during their pre-service and in-service stages. The sample of student-teachers was drawn from secondary school trainees studying in the B.Ed. class during two academic sessions, 1977-78 and 1978-79 in DAV College of Education, Abohar. When measured, all the three training approaches-SMT, MMT and TST, produced a significant effect on the development of the general teaching competence and competencies in specified skills.

Wangoo (1984) the major aim of the inquiry was to study teacher personality correlates and scholastic competence as related to effective teaching. The sample consisted of 500 teachers drawn from higher secondary schools of Srinagar district and its outskirts. Personality adjustment, democratic leadership, a high degree of intelligence, and emotional control were the main characteristics that went with teacher effectiveness.

Naik (1984) conducted the study to know the differential effect of microteaching and conventional teacher training approaches in relation to the general teaching competence of student teachers. The study employed an experimental research design and used comparative methods. The sample consisted of 644 student-teachers and 620 eighth standard pupils. Equal weightage was given to experimental and control groups. The experimental group scored significantly higher on general teaching competence than the control group.

Singh (1985) reported that training strategies are significantly effective in developing theoretical understanding of micro teaching, general teaching competence and attitude towards teaching.
Judith Kleinfeld; G. Williamson and Mc.Diarmid, (1986) examined the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, affecting teaching competency among 304 teachers randomly selected from small isolated schools in rural Alaska. These teachers are highly satisfied about their relationship with students and their pay benefits. Large numbers of teachers are dissatisfied, however, with community amenities, their students’ academic progress, and especially, school district management. In many isolated rural schools, high teacher turnover erodes the quality of education rural students receive.

Kalyanpurkar (1986) undertook to study the effect of micro teaching training on the development of general teaching competence (GTC) of in-service teachers, the sample included 36 teachers and their 720 pupils from 17 schools. MT treatment had a positive significant effect on the development of general teaching competence, when the post-test general teaching competence means of the two groups were adjusted for pretest general teaching competence scores.

Abdul (1986) examined whether a significant relationship existed between organizational climate and job satisfaction of teachers. The data for the study were collected from 175 teachers selected randomly from 18 government high schools of Chandigarh. Teachers in more open climate schools were more satisfied with respect to 'Miscellaneous regarding Personal Characteristics' than teachers in less open climate schools.

Dave (1987) reported in his study, relative effectiveness of micro-teaching having summative model of integration versus mini-teaching model in term of general teaching competence, teacher attitude towards teaching, pupil liking and pupil achievement, that Mini-teaching integration model was found superior to the summative-integration model of integration and traditional model of integration, in terms of development of general teaching competence in student teachers.

Asija (1990) resulted that the superiority of micro teaching versus conventional training in developing skills and teaching competency was established on the post test as well as on retention test.

Sonnie S.Billingsley and Lawrence H.Cross (1992) undertook a study to identify variables that influence teachers’ competency and job satisfaction among both general
and special educators. A questionnaire using primarily extant measures was sent to a random sample of 558 special educators and 589 general educators in Virginia. Cross validated regression results suggest that work related variables, such as leadership support, role conflict, role ambiguity, and stress, are better predictors of competency and job satisfaction than are demographic variables.

Salleh and Ambirin (1998) revealed that knowledge of subject matter content, instructional and class room management skills, and knowledge of skills in assessing progress in student’s learning were the major areas of in-service program. Findings of this study suggested among training planners and organizers more attention should be given to all teacher’s problems or needs, their differences and their specific needs for training for preparing the competent teachers.

Mama (1998) in her study to know the impact of in-service education on teachers carried on in-service teachers in Maharashtra state revealed that no efforts were made to involve teachers in planning, evaluation and follow up of in-service training programs. She concluded that in-service education was impacting to a least to improve the competences of teachers.

Farah (2001) conducted a comparative study of Teaching Competence of the teachers trained through the formal system of education and those through the Distance education system, found that there was no significant difference in the competencies of the teachers trained through the formal education system and those trained through distance education system.

Ronit (2001) attempted to find out how much of the variation in teaching competency can be attributed to their perceptions of their occupation, as compared to their perceptions about their principals’ leadership style and decision-making strategy. A quantitative questionnaire using Likert-type scales was administered to 930 teachers in Israeli schools, of whom 745 responded. Path analysis was used by the exogenous variables. Principals’ transformational leadership affected teachers’ teaching competency both directly and indirectly through their occupation perceptions.

Sharma (2003) took a study on teachers of secondary and higher secondary schools of Rajsthan, revealed that training programs for teachers should focus training needs
of teachers that can really attribute in enhancing the teaching skills in teachers. This was endorsed by group of Delphi experts.

Zembylas, Michalinos; Papanastasiou, Elena (2004) examined job satisfaction and competency among teachers in Cyprus. For the purposes of this study that had a sample of 461 K-12 teachers and administrators. The findings showed that, Cypriot teachers chose this career because of the salary, the hours, and the holidays associated with this profession. The study analyzes how these motives influence the level of satisfaction and competency held by the Cypriot teachers.

Butt, Graham and Lance, Ann (2005) analysed the views of secondary school teachers involved in the Transforming the School Workforce: Pathfinder Project—a project designed to address issues of teacher workload and job satisfaction. The relationship between teacher workload, job satisfaction and work-life balance is explored within the context of the future modernization of the entire school workforce.

Sharma (2006) explained in A Study of Teaching Aptitude in Relation to General Teaching Competency, professional Teaching and Academic Achievements of B.Ed Pupil Teachers that teaching aptitude of the pupil teachers was significantly correlated with their general teaching competence, professional interest in teaching and academic achievement. General teaching competence and professional interest in the teaching of the pupil teachers significantly affect their teaching aptitude.

Surasak Labmala (2006) revealed the negative attitude of teachers towards training programs as all training programs lacked expectations of teachers which in terms didn’t help to improve their teaching competence. This study was carried on both pre-service and in-service teachers to find out the attitude of teachers towards training programme given to them to improve the quality of teaching.

Dertin Atay (2006) described the design and results of a descriptive and explorative case study into the development of professional knowledge and teaching competence by pre-service and in-service teachers through collaborative research in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting. After being provided with relevant theoretical knowledge on research, they collaborated and conducted their research in in-service
teachers’ classes. It was found that participating in collaborative action research gave teachers from both groups a framework for systematically observing, evaluating, and reflecting on their L2 teaching practices.

*Kambhampati Parsad (2007)* undertook a study to know the influence of Motivation, Competence and Aptitude on English Teaching Ability. The sample of 425 teachers was drawn for the study employing stratified random sampling. The findings concluded that there is no significant relationship between motivation of teachers and their teaching competence. There is highly significant positive relationship between teaching aptitude and teaching competence.

*Syeeda Shanavaz (2007)* compared the Teaching Competencies, Attitude and Performance of DPEP and Non-DPEP Districts of Karnataka. Sample of 250 teachers and 250 students from each one of the two locales, namely Mysore and Coorg have been drawn employing suitable sampling techniques. Non-DPEP teachers were found better in teaching competencies than the teachers of DPEP districts. Teachers having different length of teaching experience do not differ in their teaching competencies. Male teachers were found to have better teaching competencies than female teachers. Teachers from government and non-government schools and from rural and urban area have not shown any difference in teaching competencies.

*F.L.Antony, Gracous (2007)* probed to find the relationship between Creativity and Teaching Competency of Prospective B.Ed Teachers. Data for the study were collected using self made Teaching Competency Scale and Creativity Scale. The sample consists of 242 Prospective B.Ed Teachers. Findings show that there was no significant relationship between Creativity and Teaching Competency of prospective B.Ed teachers.

*Gregory and Russel (2008)* investigated the importance of three general aspects of teacher effects—teacher background qualifications, attitudes, and instructional practices to reading and math achievement gains in first grade. The findings suggest that the No Child Left Behind Act’s “highly qualified teacher” provision, which screens teachers on the basis of their background qualifications, is insufficient for ensuring that classrooms are led by teachers who are effective in raising student
achievement. To meet that objective, educational policy needs to be directed toward improving aspects of teaching, such as instructional practices and teacher attitudes.

Susan L. Swars and Others (2009) focused on teachers’ perceptions of teacher retention and mobility at their PDS. Participants were 134 teachers at a high-needs elementary school with data sources including surveys, interviews, and open-ended questionnaires. Although this study affirmed many of the findings in the extant literature, it also challenged others—namely, the links between teacher turnover and workplace conditions, student body characteristics, and student achievement.

Lorenzo Cherubini (2009) studied ‘Reconciling the Tensions of New Teachers’ Socialization into School Culture: A Review of Research’. The study reviews the research from 1969 to 2005 describing pre-service candidates’ transition from student teacher to professional educator during their socialization into school culture. The paper also examines the core themes that emerged in each of the respective periods identified in the review, including: teachers’ perceptions of self (1969 to mid 1980s); professional sustainability (mid 1980s to late 1990s); and emerging identity during the process of their socialization into school culture (2000 to 2005). Based on this examination, the paper suggests that the tension between new teacher identity formation and socialization into school culture can be reconciled by a post-industrial perspective of how individuals formulate concepts of self.

Caridad P. Pagaduan (2009) looked into the relationship between performance in the field study courses and off-campus teaching competence of pre-service students of the University of the Cordilleras. Using grades as index of academic performance and evaluations by the critic teacher as bases of teaching competence, the researcher found out that there is a significant correlation between academic performance and off-campus teaching competence. Lessons learned in the field study courses have significantly enhanced the competence of the pre-service teachers in their off-campus teaching.

Ephraim Gorham (2010) explored elementary school teachers’ perceptions of their strengths and deficiencies for working with and meeting the need of students from diverse cultural backgrounds; and assessed the relationships between these perceptions and the teachers’ multicultural background and demographic factors such
as age, gender, and ethnicity. The findings of the focus groups and the survey showed teachers, who had multi-ethnic family origin, early education experience with cultural diverse students and multicultural friendship groups, perceived themselves competent to teach multicultural students.

Sharma, S. (2011) focused on training needs of high school teachers of government and private schools of Bangkok. Both teachers (87.8%) and school leaders (81%) have ranked diagnosing student’s learning needs as the most essential competencies followed by providing effective feedback to students by teachers (85.25%) which is ranked third by school leaders (75%) while organizing instructions for enrichment by school leaders (70.35%) which is ranked fourth by teachers (76.9%). However both teachers and school leaders have put organizing remedial instructions as the least important competencies for teachers. In terms of competencies related to Teacher’s focus there is no relationship existing between teacher’s perception and school leader’s perception on competencies (rs = +0.7).

The review of related studies of Teaching Competence shows that teaching competency is affected by many variables like Micro Teaching, Job Satisfaction and Action research, Incentives, Training, Aptitude, Needs and Problems, Stress, Distance Education etc.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO TEACHING COMPETENCE OF SCHEDULED CASTE AND NON-SCHEDULED CASTE TEACHERS

Hereda (1992) Conducted research study in the Talasai Mission area, New Delhi and concluded that teachers belonging to Scheduled Castes were not enjoying as equality as were teachers belonging to Non-Scheduled castes in schools. This inequality was directly impacting the Competency of Teachers.

Jodhka (2000) undertook a research study in Punjab and explored that teachers belonging to Tribes were being ill-treated by their colleagues which led them to frustration and affected their teaching in adverse manner. There was significant difference in the teaching of Scheduled Caste and Non-Scheduled Caste teachers.
Jodhka (2002) probed into the caste and untouchability in rural Punjab and came forward with the results that teachers belonging to non-scheduled caste were showing superiority over those belonging to the Scheduled caste. Those teachers were called ‘Dalits’ by other class. In the aspect of teaching there was not significant difference in their competence to teach.

Jha (2002) examined the situation of poor and deprived group of the society that was a big hurdle in achieving the universalization of Elementary Education in India. Study showed that teachers belonging to Non-Scheduled caste were not having favourable attitude towards Scheduled caste students and teachers. This added to Non-Enrollement of students of scheduled caste and teachers belonging to scheduled caste also suffered in their class-room instruction.

Samavesh (2003) studied the situation of Dalit and Adivasi in schools in Bhopal. He discussed that the situation of teachers and taught of Scheduled Caste was not as better as the teachers and taught belonging to other caste. They suffered humiliation and discrimination in the schools. Competence of teachers and achievement of students was lower as compared to Non-Scheduled caste teachers and students.

Significant difference was found in the teaching competence among Scheduled and Non-Scheduled Caste teachers. A study conducted by Hereda (1992), Jodhka (2000), Jha (2002) and Samavesh (2003). On the other hand, Jodhka (2002) concluded that Non-Scheduled Caste teachers performed equally in teaching.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Sternberg (1985) concluded that Emotional Intelligence aids the student development process and can address non-academic life challenges. Fostering EI can assist students in adapting to the environmental demands and the pressures of school environment.

Spencer and Spencer (1993) showed that achievement orientation component of emotional competence is the competence that most strongly sets apart superior and average executives and show difference between potentialities and abilities.

Johan D. Mayer and Glenn Geher (1996) to know the individual differences in the ability to connect thoughts to emotions, a sample of 321 participants was taken for the study. Participants who agreed more highly with the group consensus and agreement
with the target also scored higher than the other participants on the scales of empathy and self-reported SAT scores, and lower on emotional defensiveness.

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) conducted a study to find if emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for intelligence, found that emotional intelligence is related to the ability in behavior management. They contended that emotional intelligence contributes significantly to improving behavior.

Shaun (2000) determined the relationship of emotional intelligence, cognitive ability, and personality with academic achievement. Emotional intelligence was assessed using EQ-I (total EQ-I score and five EQ-I composite factor scores.) Both cognitive ability and personality were significantly associated with academic achievement. None of the Eq-I factor scores, nor the total Eq-I score, was significantly related to academic achievement.

Schutte et al. (2001) studied Issues and Recent Developments in Emotional Intelligence, found a significant positive correlation between social skills and emotional intelligence and that participate with higher levels of emotional intelligence reported significantly greater marital satisfaction than did those with lower levels.

Stuhlman and Pianta (2002) pointed, between the teacher's emotional feedbacks and the student's behavior, noticing that teachers' negative descriptors of their students cause greater examples of behavior conflicts.

Brackett and Mayer (2003) demonstrated that people who report higher levels of emotional intelligence also report higher levels of attending to health and appearance and more positive interactions with friends and family.

Gill (2003) reported that children with high EI are more confident, are better learners, have high self esteem and few behavioural problems, are more optimistic and happier and also handle the emotions in better way.

Brackett, Mayer and Warner (2004) assessed the discriminated, criterion and incremental validity of an ability measure of emotional intelligence. A sample of three thirty College students (N=330) was taken. Women scored significantly higher in emotional intelligence than men. Lower emotional intelligence in males, principally
the inability to perceive emotions and to use emotion to facilitate thought. In this sample, EI was significantly associated with maladjustment and negative behaviours for college-aged males, but not for females.

_Okech (2004)_ conducted a study on relationship between emotional intelligence among primary school teachers. Okech found that there were statistically significant differences in emotional intelligence among African, Hispanic, and White elementary school teachers. Self efficacy, experience and gender are other factors affecting the emotional intelligence of teachers.

_Sharma and Sharma (2004)_ explored the notion of emotional competence among adolescents. Open ended interviews and class room based as well as written exercises accompanied by group discussion were used to obtain data. They displayed desires and efforts to manage the emotions.

_Bar-On (2004)_ stated that emotional intelligence contributes significantly to social, behavioral, and academic improvements, there is only limited empirical evidence that reflect such out comes or findings. High emotional intelligence scores indicate a strong, well-developed, and efficient emotional intelligence skill while low scores indicate a deficiency and a need to improve particular competencies and skills to meet environmental demands.

_Srivastva (2004)_ constructed 79 item measure of EI related to four areas; openness to experience, emotional defensive reactions, management of interpersonal relations and anxiety orientations. The measure was administered to five hundred students studying at secondary and graduate levels. The reliability ranged from .75 to .83.

_Annaraja and Jose (2005)_ took a study to know the emotional intelligence level of B.Ed. trainees and found that rural and urban B.Ed., trainees did not differ in their self-awareness, self-control, social skills and emotional intelligence.

_Devi and Uma (2005)_ found that the parental education, occupation had significant and positive relationship with dimensions of emotional intelligence like social regard, social responsibility, impulse control and optimism.

_Eva Justina Romoold, E.J. (2006)_ assessed the effectiveness of the Enneagram Educational Programme on the competencies of emotional intelligence. In this design the investigator involved two groups, the experimental group and control group, both
of which were formed by random assignment. A sample of 40 student teachers, from a B. Ed. College of Jharkhand State was selected at random. A significant difference found between the mean scores for Emotional Self-awareness, Emotional Expression, Emotional Awareness of others, creativity and interpersonal connections.

Pandey, K. (2006) found out that adolescent girls with high, moderate and low emotional intelligence differs on various types of deprivation. The random sample of 100 IX Class of adolescent girls studying in four Hindi medium secondary schools of Varanasi city. The girls having low emotional intelligence perceive various deficiencies more in their environmental factors likes, social isolation, insufficient housing, and other infrastructural facilities, economic insufficiency, meager educational opportunity, unavailability of reasonable share of pleasant emotional experiences, lack of warmth and parental care in comparison to the girls having high and moderate level of emotional intelligence.

Aggarawal (2006) conducted the study to find out the relationship between the deprivation and academic anxiety among girls having different levels of emotional intelligence; the sample of 100 adolescent girls, age group 13-17 years were selected from different secondary schools of Varanasi city. The deprivation and academic anxiety are positively correlated in case of more emotionally intelligent girls compared to low emotionally intelligent girls. The social deprivation and academic anxiety are positively correlated in case of emotionally intelligent girls due to their greater understanding of emotional aspect.

Gunjan (2007) studied the Emotional Profeciency of Adolescent students. Normative survey method was employed for the study. The sample of 1250 students was drawn from schools of Bheelwada Districts employing purposive and randomization techniques of sampling. The urban male and female students found to differ significantly in their emotional proficiency. No significant difference was found in the emotional proficiency of the male and female students of government schools.

Singaravelu (2008) took sample for the study consisted of 220 student teachers selected randomly from the Union territory of Puducherry. Scale of Emotional Intelligence, developed and standardized by standardised by Balasubramanium (2003) was used that consisted of 50 objective type questions of multiple choice type. No significant difference was observed in emotional intelligence between men and
women student teachers as the calculated t value 0.86 was not significant at both levels of significance.

*Momeni (2009)* studied the Relation between Managers’ Emotional Health and the Organizational Climate, reported that the higher a manager’s EI, the better the climate in the work place. The main implication is that organization shows focus on hiring officials with high emotional and social competence and also provide EI training and development opportunities to enable them to create positive climate.

*Mabel (2009)* conducted the study of Education for Emotional development on Emotional Intelligence of secondary School students. The sample of 226 student of IX class for the study was drawn employing appropriate sampling techniques. The EQ test was used as Pre-test and Post-Test. The investigator succeeded in developing emotional intelligence of secondary school students in forms of Expression of Emotions of the Self and Others, Utilization of emotions, Understanding and reasoning about Emotions and Regulation of Emotions in the self and others.

*Reeta (2009)* studied the role of Emotional Intelligence in Academic Success and Adjustment of higher secondary students, the sample of 400 Boys and girls was drawn through stratified sampling from various BSP and non-BSP schools of Bhilai city situated in Durg District of Chattisgarh State. A significant correlation was found between Emotional Intelligence and Adjustment of both, male as well as female XII class students. Overall emotional intelligence was found to produce differential effect on overall adjustment of higher secondary students.

*Brownhill (2009)* found that high emotional intelligence scores indicate that the emotional intelligence skills are functioning efficiently in classroom and school environment; low scores suggest a deficiency and lack of skills in meeting environmental demands.

*Anil (2011)* studied Emotional Intelligence of Pre-Service Teachers The sample for the study consisted of 100 Pre service teachers out of which 50 are male and 50 are female, selected randomly from the College of Education, Barshi. The Single group Experimental Design was used for the study. There is significant difference between the various factors of emotional intelligence of the pre-service teachers in post test. It
means that Developed Remedial Programme helped the male, female and all 100 pre-service teachers in performing of emotional intelligence.

Encinas (2011) conducted an exploratory study on emotional intelligence, ethnicity and generational groups in higher education settings. Encinas found that white participants reported a higher overall level of emotional intelligence than their non-whites. The findings of this study show that there is significant difference in emotional intelligence on racial basis.

Soleiman (2011) analyzed level of emotional intelligence among teachers employed in government secondary schools based on selected demographic variable. The sample of the study comprised 203 teachers. The findings of the study showed that there was a significant difference in the teachers’ races (Malay, Indian and Chinese) and their emotional intelligence. The study also revealed that there were significant differences between teachers with high and moderate level of emotional intelligence in five strategies of classroom discipline used i.e. teachers with high level of emotional intelligence scored higher in the classroom discipline strategies of discussion, recognition, involvement, and hinting, whereas teachers with moderate level of emotional intelligence scored higher in the use of aggression and no significant relationship with one strategy (punishment) of classroom discipline.

The study of related literature to emotional intelligence shows that emotional intelligence largely helps to make discipline strategies, behavioural aspects, interpersonal relations, personality, social involvement, interest and social support, managerial aspects, meeting environmental demands, developing skills, adjustment, performance, creativity and adjustment in better manner.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Coleman (1966) conducted a study on Equality of Educational Opportunity; socio-economic status has been seen as a strong predictor of student achievement. Coleman asserted that the influence of student background especially poverty was greater than anything that goes on within schools.

Shah (1982) studied Socio-Economic Status of primary School Teachers and Their Job Satisfaction, on 525 primary school teachers on the basis of stratified random
sample technique, through interview, found that most of teachers were dissatisfied with their low pay scales, lack of different kind of physical facilities, poor buildings and poor teaching material. Still, they wished to remain in their jobs because the teaching profession traditionally commanded high esteem and were performing their job competently.

White (1982) in a meta-analysis of socio-economic status concluded that the utility and wisdom of using SES in conjunction with academic achievement depended largely on the operational definitions of SES. First, individual SES was defined by participation in the federal free and reduced-lunch program to show only a weak correlation with academic achievement at this level. Secondly, enrollment in a Title I school designated school-level SES because these schools, by qualification, must have 70% or more of their student populations participating in the free-and reduced-lunch program.

Dornbusch et al. (1985) concluded that economic stress may diminish the emotional well-being of parents, which has direct and indirect negative effects on children. Adolescents growing up in families under economic stress or with a single parent may be poorly supervised and often gain autonomy too early.

Misra (1986) found positive relationship between urbanism, socio-economic status, intelligence and the test score, on one hand, and academic achievement, on the other. Girls performed better than boys. The sample consisted of one thousand boys and girls of secondary school of Kanpur.

Oakes (1990) resulted that family income also has a profound influence on the educational opportunities available to adolescents and on their chances of educational success. Due to residential stratification and segregation, low-income students usually attend schools with lower funding levels, which result in reduced availability of textbooks and other instructional materials, laboratory equipment, library books, and other educational resources; low-level curricula; and less-qualified teachers and administrators.

Kaur (1990) studied vocational interest and educational interests of students belonging to different socio-economic locate of Jammu division. It was found that
socio-economic status, sex and locality influence both vocational interests when taken independently.

**Zimmerman (1992)** showed that repercussions of low socio-economic status in childhood and adolescence are often felt throughout the life cycle. Studies of intergenerational income mobility have found a substantial correlation between the incomes of fathers and the incomes of their sons at corresponding points in their careers; the correlation between family income and children's incomes after they reach adulthood is even higher.

**Sibia (1993)** concluded that adolescents from high socio-economic status show higher level of occupational aspiration than the adolescents from lower socio-economic status.

**Schultz (1993)** examined the effects of concentrated poverty in schools that may create disciplinary problems and chaotic learning environments. These school characteristics, combined with limited parental involvement in adolescents' education, have serious consequences. Not surprisingly, low-income adolescents have reduced achievement motivation and much higher risk of educational failure.

**National Research Council (1995)** found that the association between low income, on one hand, and reduced access to health care and worse health, on the other, represents just one manifestation of the effect of socio-economic status on the life chances of adolescents. Family income is perhaps the single most important factor in determining the quality of these settings.

**Lopez (1995)** revealed that low SES classrooms had significantly lower gains on the Norm-referenced Assessment Program of Texas than non-low SES classrooms.

**Howley (1995)** found a weaker level of correlation (West Virginia schools in grades 3, 6, 9 and 11) between SES and achievement at these levels. Additional analysis revealed that the smaller class sizes in most West Virginia schools tended to ameliorate the negative effects of poverty.

**Entwisle and Alexander (1996)** undertook a study of mother-only, mother-extended family, and two-parent families with children in first through third grades, concluded that two measures of parent expectations had a somewhat stronger influence than did
the economic variables. The effects of prior achievement were stronger than poverty on junior high and high school students.

*Kao, Tienda, and Schneider (1996)* compared adolescents with their more affluent counterparts; low-income adolescents receive lower grades, earn lower scores on standardized tests, and are much more likely to drop out of high school. The cumulative effect of socioeconomic status on families, neighbourhoods, schools, and health care guarantees that poor and low-income adolescents arrive at young adulthood in worse health, engaging in riskier and more dangerous behaviors, and with lower educational attainment and more limited career prospects than their more affluent counterparts.

*Chall (1996)* found that the strength of the district and school level influences of socioeconomic status on academic achievement is evident in a growing movement to integrate school districts on the basis of equitable economic status rather than on racial equity.

*Binkley and Williams (1996)* studied that Reading Literacy Study supported a somewhat similar comparison between poverty and reading literacy. The low-poverty fourth-grade group in the United States faired better than any group in the 32 other countries. The high-poverty group scored much lower than the low poverty group, but never fell below the international average.

*Biddle (1997)* using the 1996 NAEP data for state-level mathematics achievement and for state level poverty and *Education Week’s* 1997 edition of *Quality Counts* for state-level funding of education, concluded that the child poverty/achievement correlation was \( r = .700 \) \((p < .001)\) and that, together, school funding and child poverty predict 55% of the variance of state differences in mathematics achievement. The impact of child poverty was stronger at the state than the district level.

*McMurrer and colleagues (1997)* concluded that the inter-generational transmission of socio-economic status is weakest for young adults who graduate from college, but low family income in childhood and adolescence markedly reduces the chances of obtaining a college degree.

*Caldas (1999)* compiled the results of all Louisiana 10th graders in 1990 who took the Louisiana Graduation Exit Examination to correlate both district- and school-level
effects of poverty on achievement. SES accounted for 45.5% of the variation between
districts and 41% of the variation among schools within districts. He further found
that even if a student came from a two-parent family, the domination of a school or
district by one parent families could have an overriding negative influence stronger
than that of poverty or race.

Payne and Biddle (1999) commented in their study of data obtained from the Second
International Mathematics Study (SIMS) that if the United States had been
represented only by its school districts with low-level poverty, the United States
would have ranked second out of the 23 nations involved. If the high-poverty district
scores were used, the United States would have ranked only above Nigeria and
Swaziland.

Ford, bearman and Moody (1999) updated the evidence on the association between
socioeconomic status—specifically, income—and the health care and health status of
adolescents in the United States. Using the 1999 and 2000 editions of the National
Health Interview Survey, they found that poor and low-income adolescents are more
likely than their more affluent counterparts to be in fair or poor (versus good or
excellent) health, have limitations in their activities, and have had behavioral or
emotional problems. Poor and low-income adolescents also are more likely than their
peers to be uninsured, have no usual source of care, face financial and non-financial
barriers to access.

Darling-Hammond (1999) used NAEP data at the state level, this time from two
years of fourth-grade mathematics results, two years of eighth-grade mathematics
results, and two years of fourth-grade reading results. She concluded that poverty was
significantly and negatively correlated with student outcomes at the state level.

Duke (2000) concluded that at the classroom level, however, teacher factors
influenced student achievement causing greater variance. Poverty played a significant
role in the learning environment and experience of students in first-grade classrooms
in the greater Boston area. To further illustrate the degree to which individual schools
and classes can reduce the effects of poverty on student achievement.
Blum et al. (2000) conducted a study to know the Effects of Race/Ethnicity, Income, and Family Structure on Adolescent Risk Behaviors conclude that the low family income has been associated with early sexual activity, cigarette smoking, adolescent pregnancy, and delinquency.

Trusty (2000) resulted that socio-economic status became stronger for individuals at the post-secondary level (because more family and individual resources are necessary to attain this level. However, low prior mathematics achievement can have a strong barrier effect as well, regardless of family or individual socio-economic status.

Council of Great City Schools (2001) studied urban schools belonging to the results of the Stanford Achievement Test indicated that the greater the concentration of poverty in the school districts, the lower the student achievement. Of the three grades—4th, 8th, and 10th—selected to report poverty data, achievement gaps between districts of high and moderate concentrations of poverty were generally greatest in fourth grade in both reading and mathematics.

The U.S. Department of Education (2001a) found that individual and school poverty had a clear, negative effect on student achievement and that students who attended schools with the highest percentages of poor students performed worse initially on both reading and mathematics tests. Gaps in reading remained the same from third to fifth grades, but gaps in mathematics partially closed. Teacher effects made the difference in this study.

Sander (2001) compared Chicago schools with those in the rest of Illinois. Again, the low-income students had lower achievement, but Chicago grade schools were just as efficient as the others in teaching reading and mathematics after factoring out family background. Reading scores became significantly lower for impoverished students at the high school level.

Jerald (2001) identified 4,577 schools nationwide that were in the top third of their state in reading or mathematics performance and that had at least 50% low-income or at least 50% minority students compared with other schools at their grade level. The influence of socio-economic status at the individual level is still prevalent.
Singh (2003) conducted a study on social competence in high school learners with respect to sex, locality and socio-economic status and found that there was no significant difference in level of social competence of high school students with respect to socio-economic status.

Chahar (2005) reported that there exists a significant difference in the socio-economic status of male and female student teachers. The female student teachers scored significantly higher on socio-economic to male student teachers.

Chaudhury et.al (2006) in his study reported that higher absenteeism among more powerful leaders; male, more experienced, having strong socio-economic status was noted. These features, more likely were in regular teachers, possibly contribute to larger social distance.

Marianna Virtanen (2007) surveyed the responses and employer records of 1862 teachers were linked to census data on school neighbourhood socio-economic status, resulted that teachers working in schools with lowest socio-economic status reported heavy alcohol consumption and lower frequency of workplace meetings, lower participation in occupational training, lower teaching efficacy and higher work load.

Mete and Bariagya (2009) studied environmental awareness in relation to sex, stream and socio-economic status at higher secondary level and concluded that students belonging to high and low socio-economic status expressed the similar awareness of environment.

Murlidharan and Sundararanan (2009) experimented that providing an extra contract teacher to schools randomly found that absence rate for contract teachers was in fact lower at 16% compared to 21% for regular teachers and the difference was significant.

Rick (2011) indicated that one-third of middle school teachers were significantly stressed. Data was collected on students in the teachers’ classroom using teacher stress diaries, archival school records and observational ratings. Teachers reported their emotions – positive, negative; how their cognitive functions are affected by stress; stress due to low salary, low status of teachers in society, demands on job, and the time pressure. They also report on effectiveness in instruction and classroom
management, and on their student’s behavior in the classroom. Stress significantly affects teacher performance and student learning.

Richardson and George (2011) focused on 12 efficacious teachers from three middle schools in the Midwest. The researcher interviewed them, observed them in their classrooms and took field notes of the observations. The premise of this study is that if efficacious teachers are capable of bringing about changes in student behavior, motivation, and learning, and perform well academically in their classrooms. An efficacious teacher performs effectively in class and affects students; learning in positive manner.

The above study of related literature implies that Socio-Economic status, weather of student, teacher, employer or parents, largely affects the academic achievement, adjustment, personality, performance, regularity, punctuality and positive relations inside and outside the school environment.

2.5 STUDIES RELATED TO TEACHING COMPETENCE AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

K.E.Kram (1985) found that mentors, in addition to helping people to get ahead, also serve as valuable role models and sources of support. In doing so, they help people to develop the social and emotional competencies that are particularly important for one’s job performance and success.

Ross (1994) reviewed 88 teacher competency studies in pre-college settings and identified potential links between teachers’ emotional behaviour and sense of efficacy. He reported that teachers with higher levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to learn and use new approaches and strategies for teaching, provide special assistance to low achieving students, and persist in the face of student failure.

Goleman (1995) formulated the best known theory of emotional intelligence. Goleman’s explanation of the construct was based on Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) original theory. Among other claims, he theorized that emotional intelligence is equal to, if not more important than IQ as an important indicator of success in one’s professional and personal life. He explained that an individual’s emotional intelligence can effect one’s work situation.
Bandura (1995) asserted that self efficacy, when applied to teachers, refers to the extent to which teachers believe they can bring about change and impact on students’ behaviour and learning outcomes. Teachers who have a high sense of efficacy about their teaching capabilities can motivate their students and enhancing learning environment rests heavily on the competency, talents and self efficacy of teachers and these are mainly dependent on individual’s emotional intelligence.

Cheung and Cheng (1996) reported that emotional intelligence, self reflection and critical minds help teachers not only in knowledge, skills and attitudes but also improve teacher effectiveness which in turn increase competency in teaching.

Abrham (2000) concluded in his study that employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence have higher levels of job satisfaction and greater commitment to their organizations that ultimately reflects in their competency in teaching and employees with low level of emotional intelligence are not as competent in teaching as with high level of intelligence.

Slaski and Cartwright (2002) found that highly emotional intelligent individuals appear to experience significantly less stress at work than less emotionally intelligent counterparts. They have better physical and psychological well being, and demonstrate higher role in job performance.

Gardner and Stough (2002) using the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) summarized that academic leaders identified as having high levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to desire success, work harder, lead a team in effective manner and feel more satisfied working with others. It could be inferred that individuals with particularly low levels of EI would not make effective work leaders.

Robert McKeage (2002) explored the impacts of emotional intelligence and spirituality on workplace performance and has shown a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and workplace success. The workers who are less intelligent on emotional grounds also showed the less effectiveness at their workplace.

Benjamin Palmer (2002) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. Emotional intelligence was assessed in 107 participants using a modified version of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale and the Twenty – Item Toronto Alexithymia Scale. The results showed that there was a positive relation between...
emotional intelligence and life satisfaction. Satisfaction from life also helps in achieving success in teaching.

Palmer, Gardner and Stough (2003) supported previous assertions that emotional intelligence might be associated with higher occupational status and success. They reported higher levels of emotional intelligence would also report higher levels of teaching competence and relationship between emotional intelligence and teaching competence would be moderate by gender, age, length of teaching experience and current status within school.

Bar-On (2003) found that there was a moderate yet significant relationship between emotional, social intelligence and psychological health. The aspects of emotional and social intelligent competencies that were found to impact on psychological health are: (a) the ability to manage emotion and cope with stress, (b) the drive to accomplish personal as well as professional goals in order to actualize one’s inner potential and lead a more meaningful life.

Cavallo and Brienza (2004) used the emotional intelligence inventory on more than 300 managers of Johnson & Johnson. The results showed that superior performers scored higher in all emotional intelligence clusters based on both superior and subordinate ratings.

Law, Wong and Song (2004) published in the highly selective, peer reviewed journal of applied psychology, offer further evidence for the unique contributions of emotional intelligence in teaching. The authors found that self-report measures of emotional intelligence and personality together predicted job performance better than did the personality measures.

Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) conducted a meta-analysis based on 58 studies of the emotional intelligence construct; involving more than 8,000 research participants examined the power E.I. has to predict performance outcomes. They found a correlation between emotional intelligence and performance of .23, and the predictive validity of emotional intelligence held relatively constant across the different performance domains, from workplace to academic.

Stone, Parker and Wood (2005) took the study on 464 principals and vice principals in Ontario. The study reveals the relationship between emotional intelligence and
school leadership. The study examined emotional and social competencies of school leaders and considered the information as a guide for planning professional development activities. Subjects with higher emotional and social competence showed better school leadership.

Bar-on, Handley, and Fund (2005) conducted a study in U.S. Air Force to see if emotional intelligence assessment could help to predict performance in military recruiters. The study measured emotional intelligence using the EQ-I, and performance ratings were based on individual productivity. The study found that high performers had significantly higher scores on the emotional intelligence measures than low performers.

Nelson and Low (2005) explored the role of emotional intelligence in effective teaching and learning. Emotional intelligence skill characters of effective teaching are discussed. They concluded that to achieve the high goals and expectations of education of 21st century, the inclusion of emotional intelligence skills in teacher preparation programs are needed because emotional intelligence highly impacts the competencies of teaching.

Goad (2005) indicated the importance and value of emotional intelligence in teacher preparation programs. According to their research, indicate that pre-service teacher education, induction experiences with mentoring, and alternative certification programs could be strengthened by providing emotional intelligence training in preparing new teachers. Teachers having sound grounds in emotional intelligence show better teaching performance. Emotional intelligent teachers show better performance in teaching.

Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) had a group of executives to complete the MSCEIT, a personality measure (the 16pf5), and a measure of cognitive ability. Then they asked each other executive’s subordinates and direct manager to assess his or her leadership effectiveness. Regression analysis indicated that emotional intelligence not only predicted the leadership effectiveness but also explained variance not accounted for by either personality.
Linda A, O’Hara (2006) examined the relationships among employees’ emotional intelligence, their job satisfaction and performance. Study was implemented on 187 food service employees from nine different locations of the same restaurant franchise. Results showed that employees’ emotional intelligence was positively associated with job satisfaction and performance.

Amritha and Kadhiravan (2006) found that gender, age and qualification influenced the emotional intelligence of school teachers. Emotionally intelligent teachers help students with improved motivation, enhanced innovation, increased performance, effective use of time and resources, improved leadership qualities and improved teamwork. Hence, it is essential to develop the emotional intelligence of teachers during pre-service.

Chan and Caput (2006) studied Emotional Intelligence and components of burnout among school teachers in Hong Kong, posit that emotional intelligence may protect people from stress and lead to better adaptation. They opine that an objective measure of emotional management skill is associated with a tendency to maintain an experimentally induced positive mood which has obvious implication for preventing stress.

Dong (2006) suggested that an employee with high emotional intelligence is able to respond appropriately to workplace stress and to emotional behaviour of his coworkers. These abilities greatly lead to one’s high job performance.

Patil and Kumar (2006) took a sample of 302 student teachers studying in four colleges of Education in Kolnapur district, using simple random sampling. Descriptive survey method was employed. After analysis he concluded that there exists a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and teaching performance.

Upadhyaya (2006) examined the personality traits of high and low emotionally intelligent student-teachers. He took a sample of 78 student-teachers studying in Ewing Christian College Allahabad. He found that student teachers with high emotional intelligence were more competent and have more self-confidence, hard working, more motivated energetic and full of enthusiasm than those of having low emotional intelligence.
Todd (2007) purposed with mixed methods study (N = 40) was to determine whether Student Teacher Performance (STP), as measured by a behavior-based performance evaluation process, is associated with Emotional Intelligence (EI), as measured by a personality assessment instrument. The study is an important contribution to the literature in that it appears to be the first study to explore the possibility an EI assessment instrument can predict STP. The results indicate that EI, as assessed by the BarOn EQ-i, and College Supervisors' assessments of STP are related.

Andera Penrose and Ian Ball (2007) asserted in their research that teachers have great potential to affect the students’ educational outcomes. There is substantial evidence indicated that schools make a difference in terms of student achievement and the significant factor in that difference is attributable to teachers. Teachers with high levels of emotional intelligence significantly show competence in teaching that is further affected by their status and length of experience.

Pugh (2008) conducted a project in a primary school taking four student teachers and their teacher mentors explored the hypothesis that student teachers could reflect upon feedback to improve their use of emotional intelligence in the class room, thereby making consequent improvements to their teaching as defined by required professional teaching standards. The outcomes show linked improvements in terms of emotional intelligence and the professional standards.

Mills and Rouse (2009) stated that there is a moderately strong relationship between emotional intelligence an effective leadership. They conducted a meta-analysis to determine if a relationship exists between emotional intelligence and effective leadership. The results of the study suggested a moderately strong relationship between emotional intelligence effective leadership, $r = .383$, p.05. Mills and Rouse also suggested that emotional intelligence is a concept that school leaders should assess for themselves and that it should be incorporated in the evaluation process. School leaders who understand their own emotional intelligence are able to lead and interact with others more effectively.

Akintayo (2009) investigated the impact of emotional intelligence on managerial effectiveness of managers in work organization in Nigeria. The descriptive survey research method was adopted for the study. It was found that emotional intelligence significantly predicts managerial effectiveness of the managers.
Joseph and Newman (2010) analyzed multiple studies to examine relationships between EI performance, cognitive ability, personality, race and sex. They said that relationship between ability based EI and job performance was inconsistent. Some may have adverse impact due to gender and race subgroup differences.

David and Roy (2010) undertook a study to know the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Teaching Competence. A random sample of eighty teachers was drawn from sixteen schools of Secunderabad. The study shows that there is moderate relation between Emotional Intelligence and Teaching Competence as Emotional intelligence itself is not a strong predictor of job performance.

Sarah (2010) conducted a study related to Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Effectiveness of Secondary school teachers. A sample of 120(60 M,60 F) secondary school teachers from various schools of Barely district was used to collect the data and found that the emotional intelligence is significantly positively correlated with teacher effectiveness.

Amit and Richa (2010) conducted a study on six hundred secondary school teachers based on the assumption that application of emotional intelligence can increase teacher effectiveness and can reduce occupational stress. After analysis it was found that teachers with high emotional intelligence were having more teaching effectiveness and were proving better competence in teaching than those having low emotional intelligence. Their stress in occupation was also released.

Neal and Dashborough (2010) presented the results of a preliminary classroom study in which emotion concepts were incorporated into an undergraduate leadership course. In the study, students completed self-report and ability tests of emotional intelligence. The test results were compared with students’ interest in emotions and their performance in course assessment. Results showed that interest in knowledge of emotional intelligence predicted team performance in better way.

Khurram Shahzad (2011) focused on the impact of emotional intelligence on employee’s performance in Pakistan. The results revealed that a positive relationship exists between social awareness and employee’s performance while self awareness and self management were not found significantly related to employee’s performance.
Prarthna (2011) undertook a study to know the impact of Emotional and Spiritual Intelligence for well being at work place and concluded that by cultivating emotional and spiritual intelligence at the work place leads to the full realization of individual’s potential that dawn upon us and work becomes worship.

On the basis of above studies it can be concluded that studies K.E. Kram (1985); Ross (1994); Goleman (1995); Bandura (1995); Cheung and Cheng (1996); Abraham (2000); Slaski and Cartwright (2002); Gardner and Stough (2002); Robert McKeage (2002); Benjamin Palmer (2002); Palmer, Gardner and Stough (2003); Bar-On (2003); Law, Wong, and Song (2004); Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004); Stone, Parker and Wood (2005); Bar-on, Handley, and Fund (2005); Nelson and Low (2005); Goad (2005); Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005); Linda A. O’Hara (2006); Amritha and Kadhiravan (2006); Chan and Caput (2006); Dong (2006); Patil and Kumar (2006); Upadhyaya (2006); Todd (2007); Andera Penrose and Ian Ball (2007); Pugh (2008); Mills and Rouse (2009); Akintayo (2009); Joseph and Newman (2010); Sarah (2010); Amit and Richa (2010); Neal and Dashborough (2010); Prarthna (2011) suggest that teaching competence and one’s work performance is influenced positively by emotional intelligence. But, David and Roy (2010) and Khurram Shahzad (2011) concluded that there is moderate relation between emotional intelligence and teaching competence.

2.6 STUDIES RELATED TO TEACHING COMPETENCE AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Koul (1977) studied Personality factors, Values and Interests among the most accepted and least accepted Secondary School Female Teachers of Mathura District with purpose to identify personality factors that differentiated between most accepted and low accepted teachers at secondary school level and asserted that teachers with teaching competencies having average social and economical background, intelligence and more outgoingness denoted group acceptance.

Gopalcharya (1984) found the relationship between certain Psycho-Sociological factors and achievement of student-teachers in teacher training institutions of Andhra Pradesh. He resulted that socio-economic status and caste influenced all the three variables, namely Theory, Practical and Total Achievement. Attitude towards
Profession and Attitude towards Training influenced Theory and Total Achievement significantly.

*Walli (1985)* sought to find out the relationships between various demographic and social correlates (such as social status, age, income, caste, rural-urban background) academic background of teachers (experience, qualifications), motives, values, needs, job satisfaction and teaching effectiveness. A sample of 129 science and mathematics teachers in the age range of 25 to 60 teaching in 15 secondary schools of Varanasi division was taken. Correlation coefficients educational qualification, salary, experience, family background and source of age, income was significant.

*Srivastva (1986)* examined the qualities, values, attitudes, activities and adaptation of teacher educators: special reference to Avadh Area to study the social, economic and educational qualities of teacher-educators effecting the competence of teachers and its relationship with their qualities, found that the socio-economic status of teacher educators was generally satisfactory. In spite of various odds in working conditions the educators seemed to be satisfied with their job and their was total competence in their teaching.

*Tharyani (1986)* conducted a research study on student teachers in Pune has concluded that intelligence and knowledge in their subject areas were found to be the best predictors of the teacher effectiveness and also disclosed that teaching aptitude, academic grades, socio-economic status, teaching experience and age, in the order of their arrangement, appeared to be sound predictors of teacher effectiveness.

*Singh (1987)* conducted a research study on 330 teachers of urban and rural areas from intermediate colleges of Varanasi, Gorakhpur and Jaunpur districts, reported that a low relationship between intelligence and socio-economic status was observed. The teacher competence scores of rural male and female teachers appeared to be significantly related with intelligence and socio-economic status and adjustment.

*Rajameenakshi (1988)* identified the factors that affected the teaching competence of B.Ed. trainees. A survey was conducted on 610 students of colleges of education in Tamil Nadu. The type of management, the time of admission to the B.Ed. course and the teacher-pupil ratio were the factors that affected the mean teaching competence of B.Ed. trainees in almost all colleges of education in Tamil Nadu. Teacher-trainees with higher socio-economic status scored significantly higher in teaching competence.
than others. The analysis revealed that there was a negative correlation between age and teaching competence scores.

* Bretz and Thomas (1992) * proved in their research study that economic dissatisfaction leads to reduced levels of performance, not only this, also Creates the tendency of withdrawal and absenteeism among teachers.

* Ostroff (1992) * hypothesized satisfaction from salary, status in society and job may result in better performance at organizational level. The results approved the hypotheses framed for the study. If proper salaries are given to teachers and proper place in community is provided, the performance of teachers becomes better.

* Smith and Glenn (1994) * explained that internal factors have an impact on teachers feeling of success and a number of external forces can either aid or hinder a teachers success. There are number of factors that influence teacher performance. Increased duties and demands on time, low pay, low social-status and disruptive students have a significant impact on teachers’ attitudes toward their jobs.

* Ingvarson (1996) * discussed about developing teaching standards and performance assessments researched best practice and provided four detailed case studies on work done in developing teaching status. Deteriorating status of teachers doesn’t provide quality education. Rewarding increases the quality of teaching. He also argues that teaching standards are the essential foundation for the main quality assurance mechanisms in any profession.

* Anandadayi praklpa (1997) * carried a study at Amaravati at Department of Education (Maharashtra) reported that there is obvious relation between high social status of teachers that motivate the teachers to work competently. In order to improve the status of all teachers world wide, organizations must ensure that teachers receive the moral and material recognition appropriate to their level of qualifications and responsibilities.

* Naik (1998) * explained that teaching is noble, but demanding occupation. In order for teachers to maintain a high level of professional performance under these conditions, they must assume personal responsibility for their own performance, growth and development. In other words teachers satisfied from their status in society and salary they receive can perform effectively in class-room teaching.
Fredriksson, Fumador and Nyoagbe (1999) studied that the picture of teachers’ economic and social status was not very good. This study reveals that to manage their needs and to retain their status, most employees in the education sector have to look for the additional income sources and have little time left to concentrate on their job. So the quality teaching deteriorates.

Zollia Stevenson (1999) examined the perspectives of administrators from 17 of 22 Urban Systemic Initiative (USI) school districts about the factors that influence the recruitment, retention, and attrition of science and mathematics teachers in their locales. Dissatisfaction from salaries they received and statuses they have are the reasons of leaving the job.

Suzanne Wilson (2000) carried a research study at Michigan University, concluded from the findings that raising teacher salaries, incentives, quality of policy implementation, high social status, facilities, safety lead to teacher retention in desired school. If we want highly competent teachers, we will need to accord teaching with higher status, create policies that attract and keep good teachers in the workforce and continue to teach their students well.

Campbell et al. (2000) divided three predictors in achievement in teaching, are further divided into sub factors: Demographic Factors (gender, socio-economic status, parent’s educational level), Instructional Factors (teacher competency, instructional strategies and techniques, curriculum, school context and facilities), and Individual Factors (self-directed learning, arithmetic ability and motivation) and resulted that all these factors jointly effect the achievements of student teachers.

Mohanty (2000) explained that teacher performance as the most crucial input in the field of education. How well they teach depends on motivation, satisfaction, rewards, qualification, experience, training, aptitude and a mass of other factors, not the least of these being the environment and management structures with in which they perform their role. Poor pay, low status and morale are key causes of poor performance and corrupt behavior in the public sector.

Heneman and Judge (2000) examined the Linkage between pay satisfaction and performance outcomes at the organizational level of analysis. The higher the satisfaction with pay the teachers have the better they show in their teaching. The satisfaction from pay also leads to community Recognition.
Jabeen (2001) explained that the External factors as well as Internal factors, which affect the performance of female teachers. Teacher’s social status is low and held in low esteem. Teachers’ status is lower than that of doctors, engineers, advocates, civil servants, even lower than that of a semiliterate and illiterate. Internal factors including the attitude of male or female officers, the other factor is workload, which affects teacher’s performance.

Griffin et al. (2001) investigated the effect of pay satisfaction on teachers’ perceptions of local community support for better education and quality teaching and found that pay satisfaction was a positive predictor of community support.

VSO (2002) noted in three case studies that poor absolute value of teachers’ salaries was a significant factor influencing their work motivation. All employees in educational sector have descent economic and social condition on which it is impossible to survive. Low salaries and status and bad working conditions are always feeding corruption.

Greenbaum (2002) showed that if teachers are paid fairly, they feel economically satisfied and socially approved. A satisfied teacher performs well in class room. Parents of children are satisfied that their wards are taught well.

Joint ILO/ UNESCO Committee (2003) concluded in the report from the eight meetings that there is limited evidence of any general improvement in the status of teachers and there overall conditions of services that ultimately leads to low quality of classroom teaching.

Schneider et al. (2003) combined both satisfaction survey and organizational financial problem data. Their measure used two items, namely respondents’ comparison of pay with others in similar jobs and respondents’ rating of the amount of their pay. They resulted that satisfaction level leads to better job performance.

Steven C.Currall (2005) using multi level and multi method data, investigated the relationship between pay satisfaction and outcomes at the organizational level of analysis. Individual level survey data on pay (including satisfaction with pay level, satisfaction with pay structure, satisfaction with pay rises and benefits) satisfaction were collected from 6394 public school teachers from 117 public school districts. With respect to its influence on organizational outcomes, pay satisfaction was
positively related to school district-level academic performance and negatively related to average teacher intention to quit.

*Green et al. (2005)* research study carried at California reported that teachers often teach competently the students with characteristics and backgrounds similar to their own. Moreover, teachers who came from culturally linguistically, and economically disadvantaged (low-SES) backgrounds appeared to be more attracted to a certificate programme that allowed them to gain the skills and abilities to work with students from similar backgrounds.

*Partap Singh Rana and Shakti Singh Rana (2009)* conducted a study on 240 Government and Private school teachers, randomly selected from Tehri District. The general findings show that Government and private background as well as gender differences do not impact on their teaching competence if they are provided the same facilities, salaries and status as well.

*Agarauwhe and Nkechi (2009)* determined that effective classroom teaching has positive relation with students’ academic performance. It was a descriptive study included 979 teachers, made up of 450 males and 519 females, drawn from 72 out of the total of 361 public secondary schools in the state by stratified random sampling technique. The results showed that high pay scales and proper recognition in society leads to the effective teaching and effective teachers produced better performing students.

*Linda Hargreaves (2009)* carried a research study related to status and prestige of teachers and teaching reported that teachers are entrusted with the task of preparing new generation to meet the challenge of the future. While teachers in some countries enjoy high salaries and comfortable working conditions, elsewhere they may have to do two jobs in order to survive, or they may not have been paid for months and they do not enjoy high status in society. Low salaries and low social-status adversely affects the competence in teaching.

*Kingdom and sipahimalani (2010)* studied the status of para-teachers and their impact on teaching and quality of education in India. Para –teachers or contract teachers are being hired in increasing number in many Indian states. Fewer salaries are paid to them and their status is not considered in much esteem. These conditions
of teachers lead to inefficient teaching and the level of quality education falls down.

**N.V.S Suryanaryana (2010)** compared the role perspective of 132 teachers of Primary Schools (28) and Secondary Schools (18) in and around the Vizianagaram City. Women teachers coming from different socio-economic strata and the role of perspective women teachers in the context of certain personality variables concluded that non SC/St women teachers had a higher role perspective than SC/St teachers. The main effect of SES was significant and was in favour of women teachers coming from high SES group. Further, the results of the study reveal that the Teaching Competency in terms of all demographic variables like Sex, Locality, Qualification, experience, type of Management and Type of institution do differ significantly.

**Paloma and Rosanne (2011)** emphasized the worldwide shortage and declining status of teachers and poor quality of education. This research consisted of two parts: first was desk research and second was the case study research that was confined to eight countries. Cultural and socio-economic competencies along with personal factors were taken into account that affects competences and teachers’ performance. The research collectively carried at Chile, Brazil, India, Malaysia and the Netherlands and Slovenia resulted that Cultural, Social, economical and personal factors have significant relation with teachers’ competencies and quality of education.

**Alam and Farid (2011)** examined the factors responsible for high and low motivational level of teachers at secondary school level in Rawalpindi city. The population of study included the teachers of class X in the secondary schools of Rawalpindi. A random sample of 10 schools was taken for the purpose of research and 80 teachers were selected for the study. Keeping in view the findings it was concluded that teachers were not satisfied with their socio-economic status, choice of profession and examination stress. These factors negatively affected the competence of teaching.

**Mohammad Nadeem (2011)** conducted a study to identify and analyze the factors affecting the performance of female teachers in urban and rural areas of Bahawalpur (Southern Punjab). A group of 1020 students and 204 teachers of high schools/higher secondary schools were recognized as sample to accomplish the study. Poor socio-economic status of teachers affects the teachers’ performance. Poor socio-economic
condition of the area where school is situated decreases the teacher’s motivation but society gives more respect to female teachers as compared to male teachers.

Review of above related studies of Teaching competence and socio-Economic Status shows that most of the studies conclude that there is significant and positive relation between the both variables. Gopalacharya (1984); Wali (1985); Tharyani (1986); Rajameenakshi (1988); Bretz and Thomas (1992), Struff (1992), Smith and Glenn (1994), Ingvarson (1996); Anandadayi (1997), Naik (1998); Fredrikson (1999); Zollia Stevenson (1999); Suzanne Wison (2000); Campbell et al (2000); Mohanty (2000); Heneman and Judge (2000); Jabeen (2001), Griffin et al (2001); VSO (2002); Greenbaum (2002); UNESCO Committee (2003); Schneider et al (2003); Steven (2005); Green et al (2005); Pratap Singh and Shakti Singh (2009); Agharuwehe, Akriti and Nkechi (2009); Linda Hargreaves (2009); Kingdom and Siphimalani (2010); N.V.S. Suryanaryana (2010); Paloma and Rosanne (2011. Alam and Farid (2011); Mohammad Nadeem (2011). Studies of Kaul (1977) and Biswas and Dass (2004) show least effect of Socio Economic Status on Teaching Competence. Kaul (1977; Srivastva (1986); Singh (1987) Gopalacharya (1984); Wali (1985); Biswas and Das (2004); N.V.S. Suryanaryana (2010); have taken the sample of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes to know the relation between variables.

2.7 EMERGENCE OF THE PROBLEM

The well-established tradition of teaching and learning in India has retained its inherent strength even under adverse circumstances. The post-independence period was characterized by major efforts being made to nurture and transform teacher education. The system of teacher preparation has come under considerable pressure as a result of the expansion and growth of school education, through efforts to universalize elementary education. Having inherited a foreign model of teacher preparation at the time of independence from Britain in 1946, major efforts have been made to adapt and up-date the teacher education curriculum to local needs, to make it more context based, responsive and dynamic with regard to best meeting the particular needs of India. The current system of teacher education is supported by a network of national, provincial and district level resource institutions working together to enhance the quality and effectiveness of teacher preparation programs at
the pre-service level and also through in-service programs for serving teachers throughout the country.

The changing role of teachers and the changing definitions of teacher effectiveness have been increasingly studied and analyzed, with research undertaken and the outcomes being feedback into the system to facilitate the process of education reform. The current focus of researchers, policy makers and practitioners with regard to teacher education is on the development of professional competencies, and on the most effective ways of achieving higher levels of commitment and motivation for higher-level performance on the part of teachers. In addition, important possibilities are arising with regard to current developments involving the new information and communication technologies. As a result, teacher education in India is on the brink of a major transformation.

Competence in any particular field to a great extent is responsible for this evolution in the field of specialization. Further this specialization under some factors like different circumstances, experiences and situations, takes its shape and grows up. In the world of struggle a few are able to achieve the objectives of their interest. Similarly, in the field of teaching there we can find certain factors responsible for the competence of the teachers. Some of these are interest, aptitude, creativity, achievement, study habits, motivation, attitude, interpersonal relations, stress, support, personality variables, values, exposure, age, experience, gender differences, marital status, equal distribution of work, socio economic status, work culture of the working place, general as well as emotional intelligence and many more.


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From the overview of related literature, Investigator found that many researches have already been done to know the relation between Teaching Competence and Emotional Intelligence K.E. Kram (1985); Ross (1994); Goleman (1995); Bandura (1995); Cheung and Cheng (1996); Abraham (2000); Slaski and Cartwright (2002); Gardner and Stough (2002); Robert McKeage (2002); Benjamin Palmer (2002); Palmer, Gardner and Stough (2003); Bar-On(2003); Law, Wong, and Song (2004); Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004); Stone, Parker and Wood (2005); Bar-on, Handley, and Fund (2005); Nelson and Low (2005); Goad (2005); Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005); Linda A, O’Hara (2006); Amritha and Kadhiravan
(2006); Chan and Caput (2006); Dong (2006); Patil and Kumar (2006); Upadhyaya (2006); Todd (2007); Andera Penrose and Ian Ball (2007); Pugh (2008); Mills and Rouse (2009); Akintayo (2009); Joseph and Newman (2010); Sarah (2010); Amit and Richa (2010); Neal and Dasborough (2010); Khurram Shahzad (2011); Prarthna (2011) suggest that teaching competence and one’s work performance is influenced positively by emotional intelligence. But, David and Roy (2010) concluded that there is moderate relation between emotional intelligence and teaching competence.

Gopalacharya (1984); Wali (1985); Tharyani (1986); Rajameenakshi (1988); Bret; and Thomas (1992); Struff (1992) Smith and Glenn (1994); Ingvarson (1996); Anandadayi (1997); Naik (1998); Fredrikson (1999); Zolliia Stevenson (1999); Suzanne Wison (2000); Campbell et al (2000); Mohanty (2000); Heneman and Judge (2000); Jabeen (2001); Griffin et al (2001); VSO (2002); Greenbaum (2002); UNESCO Committee (2003); Schneider et al (2003); Biswas and Das (2004); Steven (2005); Green et al (2005); Pratap Singh and Shakti Singh (2009); Agharuwhe, Akriti and Nkechi (2009); Linda Hargreaves (2009); Kingdom and Siphimalani (2010); N.V.S. Suryanaryana (2010); Paloma and Rosanne (2011); Alam and Farid (2011); Mohammad Nadeem (2011). Some studies show least effect of Emotional Intelligence on teaching competence. Kaul (1977); Srivastva (1986); Singh (1987); Gopalacharya (1984); Wali (1985); N.V.S. Suryanaryana (2010); have taken the sample of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes to know the relation between variables. Very few researches have done to know the relation between Teaching Competence and these variables. Some research work has been done related to Scheduled caste and Non-Scheduled caste teachers: Hereda (1992); Jodhka (2000); Jha (2002); Samavesh (2003); Jodhka (2002). The extensive review of related literature pertaining to the two variables teaching competence, teacher adjustment and teacher attitude and their inter-relationship is presented in the preceding pages. The researcher after a thorough study of the reported past studies, smelt some gaps and deficiencies. Even though there is lot of research on teaching competence there is much scope for further research. It is found from the extensive view of related research that many studies are conducted on Teaching competence, but little effort is made to study the relationship between Teaching competence, Socio-Economic Status and Emotional Intelligence. Many factors affect the teaching
competency. Keeping all these trivial issues in mind the investigator decided to make a probe into the relationships between teaching competency, emotional intelligence and socio-economic status. The need of collecting facts in this direction is also felt. In the present study, competency in teaching was analyzed under the impact of emotional intelligence and socio-economic status. From the overview of related literature, Investigator found that no definite conclusion can be drawn regarding the comparison of Teaching Competence of Scheduled Caste and Non-Scheduled Caste Pupil Teachers with their Emotional Intelligence and Socio-Economic Status. Therefore, Investigator attempts to compare the Teaching Competence of Scheduled and Non-Scheduled caste Pupil teachers in relation to their Emotional Intelligence and Socio-economic Status.