Chapter 2

CONCEPTUAL PERSPECTIVE
CONCEPTUAL PERSPECTIVE

The terms used in this study had the specific connotations strictly with reference to this study. Therefore, to understand and know the conceptual framework of variables considered for the present study and also to understand the rationale of the present study, the theoretical understanding of these variables are discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.1. WELL BEING

It was Halbert Dunn who first coined the term “Wellness” in 1961 and defined it as “an integrated method of functioning which is oriented towards maximizing the potential of which the individual is capable”. The realization of such potential is considered to be good life that includes loving others, pleasure or self-insight. Another idea of what constitute a good life, however, is that, it is desirable for people themselves to think that they are living good lives. This subjective definition of quality of life is democratic in sense that it grants to each individual the right to decide whether his or her life is worthwhile. It is this approach to define the good life that has come to be called “subjective well being” (SWB) and sometimes labeled as “happiness” (Diener, 2000). In defining happiness it is common sense to combine the frequency and intensity of pleasant emotions i.e. the people considered to be the happiest are those who are intensely happy more of the time. Experiencing pleasant emotions most of the time and infrequently experiencing unpleasant emotions even if the pleasant emotions are only mild is sufficient for high report of happiness (Larson & Diener 1985).
Subjective well-being (SWB) is a field of psychology that attempts to understand people’s evaluations of their lives; being cognitive e.g. life satisfaction (global judgement of one's life), satisfaction with important domains (e.g. work and marital satisfaction) and affective e.g. positive affect (consisting of the frequency with people experience pleasant emotions and moods (viz. joy, affection and pride) and negative affect, experiencing few unpleasant emotions and moods (viz. shame, guilt, sadness, anger and anxiety). Thus a person is said to have abundant subjective well being if she or he experiences satisfaction, frequent pleasant emotions and infrequently experiences unpleasant emotions. In contrast, a person is said to have low subjective well being if he or she experiences dissatisfaction and infrequently feels pleasant situations and frequently feels unpleasant emotions.

Inglehart (1990) proposed that as basic material needs are met, individuals move to a post-materialistic phase in which they are concerned with self-fulfillment, it is likely that SWB becomes an even more valued goal. Thus, although SWB is not sufficient for the good life (e.g., Diener, Sapyta and Suh, 1998) it appears to be increasingly necessary for it.

Mental health professionals have become increasingly concerned with psychological well-being and ways to promote it rather than focus on negative affect dimensions like anxiety, depression and insecurity. Some of the most common indications of positive well being are happiness, self esteem, optimism and life satisfaction (Sehgal, 1999). Self-esteem has been widely defined as the personal judgement of one’s worth (Flemming and Watts, 1980). Happiness has been defined as the balance between positive and negative affect (Bradburn, 1969). Life satisfaction has been defined as a global evaluation
by the person of his or her life (Pivot et al., 1991). Optimism refers to a general tendency to expect a favourite outcome in one’s life. (Scheier and Carver, 1985). Life satisfaction seems to complement happiness (Andrews, 1991).

There are, at present, two schools of thought about the meaning of mental health. One, largely represented in the medical profession, finds it fruitful to think about mental health as the absence of mental disease. According to Richek (1970), mental health may simply be defined as absence of disabling mental illness. The second, largely represented by psychologists, the teaching profession and psycho analysis, mental health in positive term is the presence of certain psychological characteristics.

Mental health is aptly defined as the full and harmonious functioning of total personality, realizing one’s full potential in the world of work with satisfaction and contentment to oneself and benefits to the society (Kunhikrishnan and Stephen, 1992). Positive mental health could be manifested as a general feeling of well being (Sinha, 1990). So subjective well being is only one but important aspect of mental health or psychological health.

Davis (1965) has expressed that extremely bad mental health people may not be equated with mental illness. In his book entitled, “Education for positive mental health”, he has concluded as follows:

“In the general population, individual vary within a dimension of generalized subjective distress. Those people who are high in dimension, tend towards multiple complaints in the areas of (a) overall assessment of happiness, morale, spirits, etc. (b) feeling of hostility (c) physical tension (d) physical complaints headaches, loss of appetite, insomnia, upset stomach, chronic
tiredness... all different sorts of complaints and ailments in different parts of the body.”

Whenever an individual finds himself trapped in such situation, he does not have matching coping strategies to deal with it effectively, he gets himself mentally strained. This mental strain is reflected in symptoms like anxiety, tension, restlessness or hoplessness among others. If it is felt for too long and too extensively by the person, these symptoms may take a definite form or get ‘syndromised’, representing mental illness. Mental health, therefore, should not be confused with mental illness, it is a study of the pre-illness mental condition of the person. Mental health, as such, represents a psychic condition which is characterized by mental peace, harmony and content. It is identified by the absence of disabling and debilitating symptoms both mental and somatic in the person.

The concept of “self actualization” has served as the primary understanding of psychological well being (Kasser & Ryan, 1993, Ryan et al., 1997). The use of this particular understanding of well being was based on the belief that Maslow’s (1954) theory of personality most closely matched a broad definition of well being. Maslow considered the highest level of well being for individuals to be ‘self-actualization’.

Adler believed that an individual’s psychological well being cannot be understood without including one’s whole being as part of a group namely the family and one’s social world (Ansbacher and Ansbacher, 1956). He termed this concept as social interest and believed that it was central for understanding psychological well-being.

Another concept receiving attention in the psychological literature is that of ‘communitarianism’ which has come to mean a push toward the ‘we’ rather than the ‘me’, that is, the concept
represents a reaction against a perceived growing individualism. Communitarians do not suggest a pendulum swing in favour of suppressing individuality or excessively promoting the needs of the community over the individual, rather there is a notion that equates the well being of a people with a commitment to the common good including both rights and responsibilities (Frost and Frost 2000).

Today the term stress is used in everyday vocabulary to capture a variety of human experiences that are disturbing or disrupting the well being of individual in some manner or the other. Stress involves a perceived discrepancy between the demands of the situation and the resources of the person. The emotional and physical strain that accompanies stress is uncomfortable. Therefore, people can’t remain in a continual state of tension and they are motivated to do things to reduce their stress. These things are what is involved in coping.

Since people engage in coping in an effort to neutralize or reduce stress and hence to improve their well being, coping activities are geared towards decreasing the person’s appraisal of or concern for this discrepancy. Thus, coping is the process by which people try to manage the perceived discrepancy between the demands and resources they appraise in a stressful situation. The word manage in this definition is important. People using coping efforts can be quite varied and do not necessarily lead to a solution of the problem. Although they can and some would argue, should be aimed at correcting or mastering the problem, they may also simply help the person alter his or her perception of discrepancy, tolerate or accept the harm or threat or escape or avoid the situation (Lazarus and Folkman 1984).
The concept of well being has its rootings in mental health and with plethora of researches, it is being used synonymously with adjustment, mental health and wellness.

The **White House Conference (1930)** in its preliminary report stated – “mental health may be defined as the adjustment of the individual to themselves and the world at large with a maximum of effectiveness, satisfaction, cheerfulness and socially considerate behaviour and the ability of facing and accepting the realities of life”.

The **International Preparatory Commission (1948)** of the International Congress on Mental Health proposed a definition that stated, “Mental health is a condition which permits the optimal development – physical, intellectual, emotional- of the individual so far this is compatible with that of other individual.”

**English (1958)** states that mental health is “a relatively enduring state where in the person is well adjusted, has a zest for living and attaining self-actualization or self realization”. It is a positive state and not mere absence of mental disorder.

**Dunn (1964)** suggested that mental health or well being involve a balance among several components of the individual and the society in which he lives. According to **Random House Dictionary (Stein, 1966)**: “Well-being is a good or satisfactory condition of existence of a state characterized by health, happiness prosperity and welfare.”

According to **Bradburn (1969)**, the psychological well being is some what malleable concept which is to do with people’s feelings about their everyday life activities.

**Travis (1978)** described ‘wellness’ as “an attitude about one’s own process of self care involving understanding of basic emotional and physical needs and the kind of habits and lifestyle necessary to meet these needs”.

46
According to Jasnoski and Schwartz (1985), wellness may be emergent property of the individual experiencing optimal health. Wellness emerges from state of living, human system in optimal health.

Archer, Probert and Gage (1987) defined wellness as “the process or a state of quest of maximum human functioning that involves the body, mind and spirit.”

According to Scherman (1989) the wellness typically includes the provision of nutritional information services designed to improve value classification and self understanding, stress management, physical fitness and self care.

General well being may be defined as subjective feeling of contentment, happiness, satisfaction with life experiences and one’s role in the world of work, sense of achievement, utility, belongingness and no distress, dissatisfaction or worry etc. These things are difficult to evaluate objectively. Hence, the emphasis is on the term “subjective well-being. It may be maintained in adverse circumstances and conversely may be lost in favourable situation. It is related to but not dependent upon the physical/psychological conditions (Verma & Verms, 1989).

The Oxford English Dictionary (Simpson and Weiner 1989) states well being as, “a state of being or doing well in life, happy, healthy or prosperous condition, moral or physical welfare”.

Wellness is characterized by Lyon (1990), ‘as the experience of somatic comfort (emotional and physical) and a functional ability level at or near the person’s perceived capability level.” In this definition, a person’s subjective evaluation of functional ability is a comparison between what the person believes is his or her capability level and what he or
she is actually able to do. **Eddin and Golanty (1992)** summed up positive wellness into three categories.

1. being free from symptoms of disease and pain as much as possible.
2. being able to be active, able to do what you want and what you must at appropriate time.
3. Being in good spirits in most of the time.

**Hartified and Gartified (1992)** defined wellness as the conscious and deliberate process by which people are actively involved in enhancing their overall well being-intellectual, physical, social, emotional, occupational and spiritual.

**Orem (1995)** defined ‘wellness’ as a “state characterized by experiences of contentment, pleasure and movement toward maturation and achievement of the human potential i.e. personalization. Engagement in self care facilitates this process of personalization

**Messeret and Gupta (1998)** conceptualized well being as capacity to establish positive aspects of life, general satisfaction, sense of achievement and having appropriate place or position, in life.

Well being, it seems, is synonymously understood with mental health, subjective well being and wellness. In broad sense, it is viewed in terms of physical, emotional, intellectual, social, occupational and spiritual health encompassing an individual’s life span. It is a continuously developing state of affairs, may be positive or negative, that affects an individual’s capacity to deal with life situations.

Thus well being in a way is a state of happiness, pleasant emotions, satisfaction, prosperous conditions, moral or physical welfare, **(Simpson and Weiner, 1989)**, to do with people's feelings about their every day life activities **(Bradburn, 1969)**,
attitude about one’s own process of self care involving understanding of basic emotional and physical needs (Travis, 1978), optimal health (Jasnoski and Schwartz, 1985), experience of somatic comfort – emotional and physical (Lyon 1990), capacity to establish positive aspects of life, general satisfaction, sense of achievement and having appropriate place or position, in life (Messeret and Gupta, 1998).

It is assumed that well being of an individual may have some association with the burnout tendencies.

2.2. JOB SATISFACTION

The term Job-satisfaction is the combination of two words: Job and Satisfaction. Job necessarily means a piece of work, labour undertaken at a stated price, or paid for by the hour or day and turned to private advantage or in other words we can say, a job refers to collection of tasks, duties and responsibilities which as a whole is regarded as the established assignment to individual employee.

According to Encyclopedia of Psychology (1972), job can be distinguished from work and occupation. Job is a task, an occupational activity performed by individual in return for a monetary reward. Job is a complex of inter relationship of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives and rewards. The general definition of the term ‘job’ as also given in the Collins English Dictionary (1980) is a piece of work. The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2000) defined job as “a small definite piece of work done in a way of one’s specific occupation”. The operational definition of the ‘job’ implies that it is a piece of work or activity performed for the payment received in lieu of it. It involves a contractual agreement between employer and employee and denotes not only the specific responsibilities assigned to the employee but also the totality of his
responsibilities towards the firm or authorities that have employed him.

According to \textit{Webster's New World Dictionary of Education} (Guralnik, 1972), ‘Satisfaction’ means the fulfillment of a need or desire. Some authorities defined it as a feeling of a pleasantness or contentment, while others described it as feelings, emotions and sensations. \textit{New Webster Encyclopedia Dictionary of English Language} (1981), defined satisfaction as the act of satisfying or state of being satisfied; contentment in possession and enjoyment and to grant fully the wants, wishes or desires of; and to supply to the full extent with what is wished for.

The term job satisfaction is generally used in organizational endeavour in business management. One of the senses signs of deteriorating conditions in an organization is low job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is the favourableness or unfavourableness with which employees view their work. It signifies the amount of agreement between one's expectations of the job and rewards that the job provides. Job satisfaction is concerned with a person or a group in the organization. Job satisfaction can be applicable more to parts of an individual’s job. If each person is highly satisfied with his job then only it be considered as group job satisfaction.

Generally job satisfaction is related with number of employee's variable such as turnover, absence, age, occupation, burnout and size of organization in which he works. The degree of satisfaction of job largely depends on satisfaction of employee’s variables.

Job-satisfaction refers to an individual's subjective experience on his work situation, his response and feelings towards different facets of his work role. Job Satisfaction is not
a unitary concept but a composite of many factors or dimensions. The term "job-satisfaction" has been defined as all those factors which make a person like his job and go about it willingly. In spite of the fact that much research has been done on job-satisfaction, it is doubtful if experts would agree on a specific definition of the term of bringing the term job-satisfaction into light. The credit for bringing this term into use goes to Hoppock (1935), who defined job-satisfaction as "any combination of psychological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say, I am satisfied with my job".

Attitude of an employee can be considered as a readiness to act in one way rather than another in connection with specific factors related to Job.

Bullock (1952), considered job-satisfaction as employee's judgment of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs.

Among factors extrinsic to job are: sex, level of intelligence, job experience, personal adjustment and perceptions about supervision.

Vroom (1964), defined job-satisfaction as a positive orientation of an individual towards the work role which he is presently occupying. This can be easily paraphrased as "an individual's liking for more aspects of his work than he dislikes". It refers to an employee's general attitude towards his job which is the result of many specific attributes in three areas namely specific job factors, individual's characteristics and group relationships.

"Job-satisfaction" covers the satisfaction derived from being engaged in a piece of work or in any pursuit of higher order. It is essentially related to human needs and their
fulfillment through work. In fact, job-satisfaction is generated by individual’s perception of how well his job on the whole is satisfying to his various needs. (Sinha, 1974).

Singh (1974), said that job-satisfaction is the attitude of a worker towards his job, sometimes expressed as related response of liking or disliking the work itself, the rewards (pay, promotions, recognition) or the working conditions and, benefits.

Job-satisfaction is a popular concept in an individual and organizational psychology. The reasons for its popularity have been well documented in Locke’s (1976) chapter in Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. At various times the concept has been a dependent variable, an independent variable or a co-variable. Locke (1976) defined job-satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”.

Srivastava (1978), is of the opinion that job-satisfaction is the attitude people hold towards their job. The positive attitude towards job connotes satisfaction with it, the negative attitude towards it shows dissatisfaction with it.

2.2.1. Components of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has three essential components, namely cognitive, affective and behavioural intentions. The element of cognitive is reflected in a statement like "my work is quite complex". The affective component is reflected in a statement like “I enjoy having a variety of tasks to do."; and the behavioural intentions may be reflected by the statement like "I plan to quit this job in three months". Other elements of job satisfaction would include pay, subordinate officers, subordinate workers and other working conditions. Finally the job satisfaction may be viewed as overall job satisfaction or satisfaction with particular fact of one’s job.
2.2.2. Characteristics of job satisfaction

Based on the above meaning and components of the concept of job satisfaction, its following characteristics may be highlighted: First, it is a complex abstract and multidimensional concept. There are three generally accepted dimensions of job satisfaction. (a) job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such it cannot be seen, it can only be inferred. (b) job satisfaction is often determined by how welfare comes to me or exceed expectations (c) job satisfaction represents several related attitudes. Secondly, job satisfaction is a relative concept, it is related to the job characteristics. Over the years, five job characteristics have been identified by various research scholars, which have significant bearing on it. These characteristics are: work itself, pay, promotion opportunities; supervision and co-workers. Thirdly, job satisfaction is an essential and evaluative concept.

Robbins, Timothy and Sanghi (2008) have pointed out: “A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive feeling about the job, while a person, who is dissatisfied, holds negative feeling about the job. When people speak of employee’s attitudes, more often than not they mean job satisfaction. In fact, the two are frequently used inter-changeable”.

Thus job satisfaction typically refers to the attitude of individual towards his job. Essentially it has individual focus. Nevertheless it can be assessed from a group focus also, which is technically called 'group morale'. When assessments of individual satisfaction are averaged across all members of a work unit, the general term is used to describe overall group satisfaction.
2.2.3. Determinants and Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Luthans (2002) has pointed out that over the years five job dimensions have been identified to represent the most important characteristics of a job about which employees have effective responses. These are: The work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, Supervision and co-workers. Similarly, Robbins et al (2008) found that job satisfaction facets (working self, pay advancement opportunities, supervision and coworkers) correlated with high levels of overall job satisfaction. Interesting jobs that provide training variety, independence, and control satisfy most employees. In addition to the job characteristics, scholars have also attempted to establish whether specific variables such as gender, age, personality or occupational status are predictors of job satisfaction. There is evidence that job characteristics have a different impact on men and women. There is a growing evidence that there is a relationship between age and job satisfaction but not a linear one. Age itself rather than the variables associated with it, has a direct impact on job satisfaction. Variables such as socio-economic status may also cause different groups of workers to construct different meanings as to what constitutes a satisfactory job.

As regards, the outcome or consequences of job satisfaction on employees, research scholars have attempted to trace the effects of job satisfaction on the employees' performance, turnover, absenteeism and productivity. The consequences of job satisfaction are also known as its 'behavioural correlates'. It may be generally understood that behavioural correlates of job satisfaction should be higher work performance, lower absenteeism and lower staff turnover. However, research has failed to establish a strong direct link between job satisfaction and workplace behaviour. Job
satisfaction and performance are relatively independent of each other. This is explained that in many jobs, variations in satisfaction cannot lead to variations in productivity (machine work) and secondly, where correlation do occur they may not be genuine in that both may be associated with other factors.

To come to teacher job satisfaction, it can be pointed out that various research scholars have approached the problem from different points of view. The factors associated with job satisfaction mentioned by various scholars and researchers may broadly be grouped in three categories: (i) personality traits or psychological factors related to teachers namely their psychological needs like self esteem and self actualization, personality variables like sociability, extroversion/ introversion, emotional and incentive attitudes, professional perceptions, emotions like aggression, tolerance, aspiration, skills, interpersonal relationships with pupils and colleagues etc. and ego structure and super ego functioning; (ii) the relationship between the demographic or biographical factors related to teachers on their job satisfaction has also been traced. This category includes factors, like age, gender, length of experience, marital status, size of the family, socio-economic status etc. (iii) This category refers to the institutional factors like type of school, level of school, organizational structure organizational climate, leadership style of the principal and other working conditions or work environment.

2.2.4. Theories of Job Satisfaction

Nature of job-satisfaction has led to much controversy, which has come out in the form of different theories of job-satisfaction. These theories tend to explain different facets of job-satisfaction and endeavour to explore this phenomenon from different angles. Some of these are:
1. **Maturity – Immaturity Theory:**

   This theory assumed that worker has very little self discipline and personal pride. This theory points out that most employees are expected to do as they are told and leave the thinking to the boss.

2. **Need Hierarchy Theory (Maslow, 1954):**

   Maslow (1954) proposed that people are continuously in the motivational state, as one's desire becomes satisfied another rises to take its place. He postulated a hierarchy of human needs—physical needs, safety (security needs, social affiliation) needs, esteem (recognition) and self actualization. This shows how the satisfaction of the higher needs is based on the satisfaction of the lower needs and how the number of persons who have experienced the fulfillment of the higher needs gradually tapers off.

3. **Behaviouristic Theory (Skinner, 1960):**

   He has proved that cause of behaviour is outside the person and is in the environment. Behaviour of an individual is modified through operant conditioning. It is encouraged through positive re-inforcement and discouraged through negative conditioning.

4. **Dual Factor Theory (Herzberg, 1959):**

   In 1959, Frederick Herzberg, a behavioural scientist proposed a two-factor theory or the motivator-hygiene theory. According to Herzberg, there are some job factors that result in satisfaction while there are other job factors that prevent dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, the opposite of “Satisfaction” is “No satisfaction” and the opposite of “Dissatisfaction” is “No Dissatisfaction”. Herzberg classified these job factors into two categories-
**Hygiene factors-** Hygiene factors are those job factors which are essential for existence of motivation at workplace. These do not lead to positive satisfaction for long-term. But if these factors are absent / if these factors are non-existent at workplace, then they lead to dissatisfaction. In other words, hygiene factors are those factors which when adequate / reasonable in a job, pacify the employees and do not make them dissatisfied. These factors are extrinsic to work. Hygiene factors are also called as **dissatisfiers or maintenance factors** as they are required to avoid dissatisfaction. These factors describe the job environment / scenario. The hygiene factors symbolized the physiological needs which the individuals wanted and expected to be fulfilled. Hygiene factors include:- Pay, Company Policies and administrative policies, Physical Working conditions, Status, Interpersonal relations, Job Security

**Motivational factors-** According to Herzberg, the hygiene factors cannot be regarded as motivators. The motivational factors yield positive satisfaction. These factors are inherent to work. These factors motivate the employees for a superior performance. These factors are called satisfiers. These are factors involved in performing the job. Employees find these factors intrinsically rewarding. The motivators symbolized the psychological needs that were perceived as an additional benefit. Motivational factors include:- Recognition, Sense of achievement, Growth and promotional opportunities, Responsibility, Meaningfulness of the work.

5. **Equity Theory (Adam, 1963):**

This theory is essentially a social comparison theory in which an individual evaluates his inputs vs. outputs derived from a given situation relative to those of another, where this 'another' may be a person, a group, an organization or the individual himself relative to his experiences. To the extent that
an individual perceives an imbalance in this relationship (i.e. inequity), it is postulated that he will experience dissatisfaction and be motivated to engage in some of the activities which will restore satisfaction.

6. **Performance Theory (Donald, 1970):**

   In this theory employee's satisfaction is connected with job-performance: satisfaction leads to performance and performance to satisfaction and performance-satisfaction relationship is moderated by many variables linked with man and his job.

7. **Discrepancy Theory:**

   Locke (1976) has argued for a discrepancy approach to thinking about satisfaction, discrepancies may be actual or perceived. This theory suggested techniques for measuring job-satisfaction. Vroom (1964) said that job-satisfaction is a direct negative function of the discrepancy between person’s need and the extent to which the environment provides satisfaction to those needs. The greater the total discrepancy counting all needs the lesser the satisfaction, and the lesser the discrepancy the greater the satisfaction.

8. **Achievement Motivation Theory:**

   This theory made the point that a score on n-ach is of an operant and not of respondent nature, in that, it records how often a person spontaneously thinks about improving things, not how interested he is.

9. **Need Gratification Theory (Wolf 1970):**

   As per Wolf (1970) job motivation will be stronger when an individual perceives an opportunity to gratify an active need through job related behaviour. The hypotheses underlying Wolf theory include the following:
i. Persons whose lower needs (as postulated by Maslow, 1954) are yet ungratified, derive both their satisfaction and dissatisfaction of their lower level needs (primarily job content factors).

ii. Persons whose lower level needs are conditionally gratified receive both their satisfaction and dissatisfaction from the degree of gratification of their higher level needs (primarily job content factors), and the dissatisfaction can also come when continued gratification of their lower level needs is disrupted or threatened.

iii. Persons whose lower level needs are unconditionally gratified obtain both their satisfaction and dissatisfaction from the degree of gratification of their higher level needs.

iv. Dissatisfaction results from the frustration of an active need and from interruption or threatened interruption of previously gratified (lower level) needs.

Keeping in view the above cited definitions and views suggested by various investigators, it can be opined that job-satisfaction is not a unitary thing or entity but a composition of many factors including personal judgment of a worker, how he thinks about his job. It can be concluded that job-satisfaction is governed to a large extent by perceptions and expectations. Men work to satisfy their needs and aspire or expect their work life to fulfill these needs. For perfect job-satisfaction, there should exist a one to one relationship between the perception of how well the job life fulfils various needs or expectations or aspirations of an individual and the extent to which these needs are actually fulfilled by the individual.
2.2.5. Models of Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction theorists have used the terms “Theory” and “Models” as somewhat interchangeable. However, there are three specific models of job satisfaction which are discussed below:

(i) Self-Evaluation Model

Judge et al. (1998), proposed a core self-evaluation model and argued that there are four core self-evaluations that determine one’s disposition towards job satisfaction viz. self-esteem, general self efficacy, locus of control and neuroticism. This model states that higher levels of self-esteem, (the value one places on his self) and general self efficacy (the belief in one’s own competence) lead to higher work satisfaction. Having an internal locus of control (believing one has control over her/his own life, as opposed to outside forces having control) leads to higher job satisfaction finally, lower levels of neuroticism lead to higher job satisfaction.

(ii) Job Characteristics Model (JCM)

Hackman and Oldham (1976), proposed the job characteristics model, which is widely used as a frame work to study how particular job characteristics have impact on job outcome, including job satisfaction. The model states that, there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback), which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcome, and knowledge of the actual result), in twin influencing work outcome (job satisfaction, absenteeism, work motivation, etc).
(iii) Range of Affect

Locke's (1976) proposed a Range of Affect Model of job satisfaction. The main premise of this model is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job in hand. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) measures how satisfied/dissatisfied one feels when expectations are/are not met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn't value that facet. To illustrate, if employee 'A' values autonomy in the workplace and employee 'B' is indifferent about autonomy, then employee A' would be more satisfied in a position that offers a high degree of autonomy and less satisfied in a position with little or no autonomy compared to employee 'B'.

Therefore job satisfaction is a combination of psychological and environmental circumstances, that cause a person truthfully to say that I am satisfied with my job (Hoppock, 1935), covers the satisfaction derived from being engaged in a piece of work or in any pursuit of higher order (Sinha, 1974), an attitude people hold towards their job (Srivastava, 1978).

Components of job satisfaction namely cognitive, affective and behavioural intentions may be influenced by the burnout tendency of the employee.

2.3. TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

2.3.1. A Broad View Of Teaching

The process of teaching-learning is as old as human beings on earth. It has been carried out by human beings and even by animals to teach their young ones for successful adjustment in the environment. The process has undergone several changes from non-formal to formal with the passage of time.
Teaching, as conventionally understood by a traditional teacher, is the act of disseminating information to the learners in the classroom. It is, generally, equated with telling.

Gage (1963) has given a very precise but comprehensive definition of teaching as "Teaching is the stimulation, guidance, direction and encouragement of learning." The definition has four key words which need explanation: stimulation means to cause motivation in the learner to learn new things. It is to create an urge to learn, Direction means that teaching is not haphazard activity but it is a goal directed activity which leads to pre-determined goal. Direction also means that the activities of the learner in teaching are directed and controlled, keeping into consideration the economy of time and efficiency of learning. Guidance means to guide the learner to develop his capabilities, skills, attitude and knowledge to the maximum for adequate adjustment in the external environment and the last key word is the encouragement of learning which means to encourage the learner to acquire maximum learnings.

Teaching is manifested in various acts that a teacher carries out in congruence to certain professional rules and principles. Teaching may consist of a description of those acts that teachers demonstrate and that reflect their commitments to a particular philosophy of education. It has been explained from different angles by psychologists and educators. Some of the explanations are as follows:

(1) Teaching is communication between two or more persons who influence each other by their ideas and learn something in the process of interaction.

(2) Teaching is to fill in the mind of the learner by information and knowledge of facts for future use.
Teaching is a process in which learner, teacher, curriculum and other variables are organised in a systematic way to attain some pre-determined goal.

Teaching is to cause motivation to learn.

Thus the word 'teaching' refers to a very broad class of activities. The particular activities that constitute teaching in any particular situation depend upon how the educational institution is organised, the nature of the program, the structure of the curriculum, the teaching materials to be used, the expectations of parents and the social context of education. Research shows quite clearly that pupils adapt well to many different approaches to teaching calling for very different ways of functioning on the part of the teacher. Pupils in open classrooms learn at very much same rate as pupils in classrooms that run in highly structured styles, and yet the way in which teachers function in these two different settings may be very different. There is no single factor that affects teacher effectiveness because there is no single concept of what the teacher should be undertaking in classroom.

According to Hough and Duncan (1970) "Teaching is an activity - a unique professional, rational and human activity in which one creatively and imaginatively uses himself and his knowledge to promote the learning and welfare of others." Teaching is defined as a four-phase process which are curriculum planning, instructing, measuring and evaluating. Curriculum planning helps to formulate the goals of education, selecting and organizing the content of instruction, stating the objectives of instruction. Instructing helps creating attention regarding the strategies and tactics of instruction, obtaining situational feedback about instruction. Measuring helps creating or selecting devices to measure student learning, organizing and
analyzing data. Evaluating means using feedback to evaluate the appropriateness of objectives, the effectiveness of instruction, the validity and reliability of measurement.

Good (1973) in Dictionary of Education has defined teaching as: Narrowly-the act of instructing in an educational institution and broadly-management by an instructor of the teaching-learning situation which includes, direct interaction between the teacher and the learners, pre-active decision-making process of planning, designing, and preparing the materials for the teaching-learning conditions, and post active redirection (evaluation, redesign and dissemination) and collectively that which is taught, such as the teachings of a religious leader.

Teaching profession means career in teaching or adoption of teaching profession and an occupation for future life.

2.3.2. Description of Teacher Effectiveness

One of the most difficult problems in educational research is that of recognizing teacher effectiveness, of discriminating between more and less effective teachers. The role of the classroom teacher in education is central. The teacher is after all, the point of contact between the educational system and the pupil. The impact of any educational program or innovation on the pupil operates through the teachers. It is therefore quite accurate to say that a school's effectiveness depends directly on the effectiveness of its teachers. Maximizing teacher effectiveness is a major goal of education.

The importance to educators of being able to recognize teacher effectiveness has long been acknowledged; in fact, this was one of the first problems ever to be studied by educational researchers. As a result, research in teacher effectiveness has been going on for almost a century. It is appropriate to examine
the results obtained during these years and to question why so little useful information has appeared in all this time.

A variety of descriptions of an effective teacher have been evolved during the past few decades. The effective teacher of 1920's according to Monroe (1952) was the person possessing the traits, knowledge and skills and was considered necessary for performing various duties related to teaching profession. The 1940's – 1950's image of an effective teacher was more or less the same as it was in 1920s but here the emphasis was given to the interest and attitude of a teacher towards his duties with regard to instruction as well as to school activities. This is exhibited in Monroe's (1952) description of a teacher as a person who is constructive and adaptable member of the school staff, is competent to participate in determining school policies and programmes and is interested in doing so and is also an efficient instructor in the classroom.

In 1960's the qualities sought in an effective teacher included the deep love for one's subject in particular and learning in general, a love that ensures continued scholarship throughout his career and interest in young pupil and respect for them, a constant assessment and understanding of the morals as well as intellectual ends for which the teacher teaches, and the possession of personal qualities, e.g., integrity, vitality, stability and courage. Thus, in 1960's the qualities which were added with a view of strengthening the image of an effective teacher in the passing decades mainly concerned with three areas (i) mastery of the subject matter, (ii) ability to inspire students, and (iii) being well informed about basic and current materials (Bernadett, 1966).

Besides the thorough knowledge of the subject matter, deep interest and enthusiasm for teaching are another qualities
of an effective teacher of 1970’s which are related to the students’ achievement.

In the decade (1980’s) the description of an effective teacher includes both the teacher as a person and as an expert in teaching-skills directed towards the achievement of educational goals. A variety of descriptions provided by empirical evidences present the image of an effective teacher as one who enjoys teaching and knows the subject matter, is interested in the students as individuals and treat them with respect, has patience and positive attitude, displays fairness, curiosity, confidence and open mindedness on the strength of congruency of values, uses goal directed adequate teaching skills in explaining things thoroughly with willingness to repeat and without discussing personal problems with students, and has an urge to grow himself through experience, positive role models and communities (Kenneth, 1980; Pascarelli, 1982).

It is difficult to arrive at a universally acceptable definition of this concept. Hence the debate on question of ‘Who is an effective teacher?’ and ‘How to judge an effective teacher?’ still continues. Is the effective teacher a person who is skilled in applying the particular method or procedure? Is the effectiveness of a teacher a function of some discernible qualities in him? From the position of this stand, it follows that the characteristics of effective teacher and criteria of measuring teacher effectiveness need contextual descriptions for giving a direction to present study.

Across the ages, the task of the teacher has been conceptualized in many different ways. There is little agreement on what the role of the teacher should be in facilitating pupil learning. Teacher can involve many different tasks and as the tasks prescribed for the teacher vary so the criterion that can effect the effectiveness of the teacher.
Public issue related to teaching effectiveness did not arise in history until pupils were required to go to school. To be an effective teacher was to be a person who attracted students. The criterion of teacher effectiveness was objective and definite, even though the reasons why a teacher attracted students were subtle and obscure. A teacher to survive had to be able to attract students from whom fees were extracted directly. A teacher who could not attract students had no source of income. The system had a built-in criterion of effectiveness, the ability to attract students.

Barr (1952) observed: “Teacher effectiveness may be essentially a relationship between teachers, pupils and other persons concerned with the educational undertaking, all effected by limiting and facilitating aspects of the immediate situation.”

Remmers (1952) defined effectiveness by remarking that effectiveness is the degree to which an agent produces effect on pupil, school operation and the school community. Effect on pupils has been accepted as a relevant criteria dimension of successful teacher. Pupil's growth, change, development, learning and the like had often been considered as the ultimate criteria of successful teacher. But the effect on school operation and community not had similar accuracy as criterion of teacher's effectiveness.

Good (1959) defined teaching effectiveness as “The degree of success of a teacher in performing instructional and other duties specified in his contract and demanded by the nature of his position.”

Ryans (1960) makes a mention of general approaches to the measurement of teaching effectiveness which involve the evaluation of:
According to Flanders (1970), “Teacher effectiveness is concerned with the relationship between the characteristics of teachers, teaching acts and their effects on the educational outcomes of classroom teaching”.

Nair (1973) remarked, “Teacher effectiveness denotes the ability of the teacher to teach a particular lesson to his pupils”. But perhaps he makes the things too simple.

Fulcher and Anderson (1974) opined that the effectiveness of a teacher (source) is indexed by how effectively the teacher communicates with his students (receivers). An efficient teacher may be understood as one who helps in development of the basic skills, proper work habits, desirable attitudes, value judgments and adequate personal adjustment of the students.

According to Evans (1976), effective teaching is that in which teacher is committed to promote experimental learning among students, provides learners with a continued experience of discovering, defining and solving real and personally meaningful problems, establishes a warm accepting response and genuine relationships with students, a relationship unperverted by power struggles or dishonesty, able to provide a rich, stimulating variety of experiences and materials for exploration by learners.

Gupta (1979) on the basis of his study of some factors considered to be helpful in class room teaching, concluded that the factors mentioned as helpful were: the blackboard work, correcting oral mistakes, explaining difficult points, general knowledge, handwriting, knowledge of the subject, maintaining
discipline, power of oral expression, revision of main points, skill in questioning and the use of material aids.

The term teacher effectiveness is used to refer to the results a teacher gets or to the amount of progress pupils make towards some specified goal of education. (Medley, 1982)

According to Ramsden (1992) the emotional aspect of teacher-student relationship is more important than methods and techniques applied in teaching. A good relationship involves respect for students, stepping down from the stage to help them to learn, and being available for the students even outside of class.

What comes to focus in the research within higher education, apart from clarity of presentation, clear goals, feedback, intellectual challenges and high expectations, is the importance of a good relationship between the teacher and his students.

2.3.3. Qualities of an Effective Teacher

Hart (1934) in one of the earliest and most comprehensive studies probed the question, what do pupils like and dislike in their teacher? The study identified the following ten characteristics based on a survey of 3,725 high school seniors:

- Is helpful with school work.
- Explains lessons and assignments clearly and thoroughly, and uses examples in teaching.
- Cheerful, happy, good natured, jolly, has a sense of humour, and can take a joke.
- Humane, friendly, companion of the students,
- Interested in and understands pupils.
- Makes work interesting, creates a desire to work, makes class work a pleasure.
- Strict, has control of the class and commands respect.
- Impartial, shows no favouritism and has no pets,
- has a pleasing personality.

Menon (1949), Ramsden (1992) and Ballantyne et al. (1999) mention the following qualities essential for success in teaching—ability to maintain discipline, teaching skills, intelligence, fairness and cooperation with his students.

The effective teacher can apply teaching methods that are easier, quicker, better, safer, more rewarding, less labour intensive and more suitable. It may be stated that pupil's growth is the most relevant criterion for teacher efficiency (Krishnan and Seenivasagam, 1994).

An effective teacher succeeds in producing desired changes among the students through his/her teaching. He/she is satisfied with teaching as a profession and able to accomplish the prefixed goals of teaching effectively.

Enlightened, emancipated and empowered teachers lead communities and nations in their march towards better and high quality of life. They reveal and elaborate the secrets of attaining higher values in life and nurture empathy for fellow beings. Teachers not only disseminate knowledge but also create and generate new knowledge. They are responsible for acculturing role of education. A teacher can work according to expectation, only if he is effective.

It may therefore be concluded from the above statement that effective teachers have great influence on student achievement. An effective and efficient teacher may be understood as one who helps in development of the basic skills, proper work habits, desirable attitudes, value judgements and adequate personal adjustment of the students. (Krishnan and Seenivasagam, 1994).
According to Palmer (1998) “Effective teaching cannot be reduced to technique; effective teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher”.

Ballantyne et al (1999) go as far as to conclude that a good relationship between teacher and learner is crucial for effective learning at any level of education.

According to Pal (1999) becoming an effective teacher is not a question of acquiring a bag full of tricks of the trade, but of growing into a human being skilled in the art of communication. It is indispensable to develop attitudinal skills including effective communication, to catalyse self-development, build teamwork, motivate and channelise human resources to resolve the dilemmas of quantity vs. quality, creativity vs. convergence and equity vs. excellence to face the challenge of the 21st century.

Hamachek (1999) observed, effective teachers are in a sense total teachers. They seem able to adjust to the shifting tides of classroom life and students’ needs, and to do what has been done to reach, and thereby teach, different students in a variety of circumstances.

A person’s concept of a ‘good’ teacher depends first on his acculturation, his past experience and a value attitude he has come to accept and second on the aspect of teaching which may be foremost in his consideration at any given time. Taking the same into consideration, Ryans (1953) in his characteristics of teachers, considers two major sets of conditions for the concept of competent teacher. These are:

- The social and cultural group in which the teacher operates involving social values which frequently differ from person to person, community to community, culture to culture and time to time.

- The grade level and subject matter taught.
Alexander (1960) has outlined the characteristics of good teachers as follows, which invariably point out to a number of personal and professional values.

**Personal Equipment**
- Concern for the individual
- Emotional stability
- Enthusiasm
- Intelligence
- Integrity
- Knowledge
- Personal charm
- Skill in communication

**Ways of teaching**
- Effective relations with individual pupils
- Adequate planning and preparation
- Wise use of teaching aids
- Involvement of pupils in varied learning experiences
- Active leadership of the learning group

**Professional behaviour**
- Helping other teachers in general school
- Cooperating responsibilities
- Cooperating in educational improvement
- Strengthening professional organizations
- Maintaining ethical relations with the school administration and the public

According to Fulcher and Anderson (1974) effective instructors must be credible. The five dimensions of credibility include: competence, trustworthiness, dynamism, composure and sociability.
• **Competence** implies knowledge and being informed, increased competence and credibility, cite references, be organized and be comfortable with a specialized vocabulary (e.g. practice Latin pronunciations to sound natural).

• **Trustworthiness** means being respectable, decent, honest and ethical, to inspire trustworthiness, be consistent, provide rationales, explains students' expectations and carry out commitments or promises.

• **Dynamism** is reflected in an outgoing, energetic personality, interested in topic, uses vocal variety and vivid language and shows enthusiasm.

• **Composure** means confident, preparedness, practice but don't memorize and tries relaxation techniques, avoids annoying habits like tugging on students' clothing or playing with their hair.

• **Sociability** is reflected in a friendly, pleasant manner and attitude. Cultivate a positive attitude towards students, smiles, listens carefully and use their names.

**Somers and Southern (1974)** have discussed teachers' effectiveness in terms of certain qualities. According to them, an effective teacher is he who has a sense of humour, ability to understand the students and their problems, ability to explain things clearly so that students can easily understand what is being taught, ability to make any subject interesting to learn, ability to control the class, ability to be ready and willingness to help the students when they need and ability to be fair as far as possible in dealing with students, maintains eye contact with students to enhance credibility, develop a style that students are comfortable with, experiments with new ideas and find what works best. Professional behaviour is also influenced heavily by socio-economic conditions of the teachers and their adjustment in the various correlated fields.
Grewal (1988) found that effective presentations of university instructors included:

- Stating objectives at the beginning of the class and outlining lesson content.
- Signaling transitions between parts of a lesson.
- Indicating important points in a lesson.
- Summarizing the points of a lesson as the lesson proceeds.
- Reviewing main ideas and facts at the end of one lesson and the beginning of the next
- Being organized but flexible in their plans.

Adaval (1979) in his study collected the opinions about the qualities of a successful teacher from educational experts in the country. The qualities enumerated by 34 experts responding to the open ended questionnaire covered a wide range which were grouped under seven major headings. The first nine qualities emerging from the study in order of frequency were:

- Friendliness, cheerfulness, sense of humour
- Honesty, impartiality, fairness, love for children, affectionate
- Sympathetic, intuition and understanding
- Character, moral integrity, uprightness.
- Presence of physical qualities, appearance, impressiveness
- Sociability, extroversion
- Love, loyalty, idealism for profession
- Patience
- Sincerity, earnestness.

According to Anderson (1982) an effective instructor:

- Creates a climate in which students will want and be able to participate and learn.
- Establishes good rapport with students.
- Help students to overcome anxiety as an obstacle to learning.
- Reads nonverbal cues to students' feelings and attitudes.
- Corrects students in ways that they remain involved and do not withdraw or reduce their learning efforts.
- Identifies students' goals, learning needs and learning styles.
- Incorporates students' needs and interests in how class time is used.
- Elicits students' reactions on how the class is progressing, so improvements can be made.
- Provides opportunities for students to participate in class and discuss directly with each other.
- Organizes and presents material in ways that help students learn.
- Implements course goals in planning activities geared to produce the desired learning.
- Asks questions or pose topics, which will engage students' interest or stimulate students to become self-sufficient.
- Guides discussions flexibly to produce varying degrees of focus.
- Presents and discuss material at various levels of difficulty and complexity.
- Defines expected student performance and how it will be measured.
- Informs students about their expected performance in terms of what you expect them to be able to do.
Discusses with students how they will be evaluated, so they can better prepare and learn.

Rewards students effectively and provide clear helpful feedback to increase willingness to learn and participate.

Dave (1985) talked about teacher factors, teacher behaviour, teaching system, learning as criterion of teaching effectiveness as given by IDRC (International Development Research Centre).

Research on instructor effectiveness supports the assertion that effective instructors display knowledge and organization of the subject matter, instruction skills and good personal qualities or attitudes for working with students (Ebel, 1988).

The importance of teacher in educational process is unquestionable. In the present day system of sophistication and specialisation, one can hardly make a statement, which may not be called into question. But to say that in the educational process a good and effective teacher occupies a place of tremendous importance is accepted by all as true. He is central to the educational system. The success of the educational system lies in the hands of the teacher who handles it. Any worthwhile change in educational organisation and system can be effectively implemented only by a group of efficient teachers. The National Policy on Education (NPE, 1986) rightly emphasises the importance of teachers as follow: “The status of the teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of a society; it is said that no people can rise above the level of its teachers.”

However the entire edifice of education is shaky if the teacher is weak and ineffective. But unfortunately it is true that all the teachers available in the education system are not efficient.
Arora (1991) conducted a research on differences between effective and ineffective teachers. According to the analysis of data collected for the research, an effective and efficient teacher must:

- have accurate knowledge of the subject.
- have ability to bring the subject matter to the level of students understanding,
- explain topics clearly,
- make clear presentation of the subject matter,
- organise subject matter systematically,
- have self confidence,
- have ability of expression,
- have skill in stimulation of interest and motivation of students, have sense of duty and responsibility,
- plan and prepare his lesson,
- have good health,
- have skill of correlating subject matter effectively,
- have quality of leadership,
- have sportsman's spirit,
- have skill in the use of instructional material,
- have knowledge of evaluation techniques, be impartial with students,
- have ability in questioning, and
- have respect for students' opinion.

Brasington (1992) discussed teaching behaviours that are positively related to desirable student performance. Five key teaching behaviours have been consistently supported by research over the past two decades. The five key teaching behaviours are:
(i) **Lesson clarity:** It refers to how clear and interpretable a presentation is to the class and includes both cognitive and oral clarity, audible delivery free of distraction.

(ii) **Instructional variety:** It refers to the variability or flexibility of delivery during a presentation and includes variability in instructional materials, questioning, types of feedback and teaching strategies.

(iii) **Task orientation:** It refers to time devoted to teaching of a topic, having goals and objectives for each class.

(iv) **Engagement In the learning process:** It refers to maintaining a task behaviour and limiting opportunities for distraction; it is time in which the student is engaged with and benefiting from the instructional activities.

(v) **Success rate:** It refers to the rate at which students understand and correctly complete exercises.

**The five helping behaviours are:**

(i) **Use of student ideas and contributions:** It includes acknowledging, modifying, applying, comparing and summarizing student responses to promote the goals of a lesson and to encourage student participation.

(ii) **Structuring:** It includes comments made by the instructor to put the present task or topic in context with what is to follow or what has occurred in an earlier part of the course or class period.

(iii) **Questioning:** It includes both content and process questions.

(iv) **Probing:** It refers to instructor statements that encourage students to elaborate upon an answer and can include eliciting, soliciting and redirecting expressions.
(v) **Teacher affect:** It includes enthusiasm maintained with vocal inflection, gestures, eye contact and movement.

According to **Mishra, Pandit and Hindolia (1993)**, teaching effectiveness may be perceived as an aggregation of qualities such as:

- Knowledge of the subject
- Conceptual clarity.
- Communication/presentation skills.
- Rapport with the students, which make the taught understand the subject quicker and better.

Many more components may be included depending upon the teacher, the learner and the subject.

According to **Creemers (1996)** the following teacher behaviours contribute to better student outcomes:

- effective class management
- use of homework
- high expectations
- clear goal setting
- structuring the curriculum content
- clarity of presentation
- frequent questioning
- use of immediate exercise after presentation of new content
- use of evaluation feedback and corrective instruction

**Ralph et al. (1998)** found three broad areas that administrators valued in new staff members arranged in order of importance. These were:

- Ability to communicate clearly and positively.
- Ability to use instructional skills and
Their university background and experience.

Administrators expected candidates to be competent both in human relations and technique of professional skills, but they ranked the former as more important in the teaching process.

The term teacher effectiveness is used to refer to the results a teacher gets or to the amount of progress the pupil make toward some specified goal of education. One meaning of this definition is that teacher effectiveness must be defined and can be assessed, in terms of behaviours of pupils, not behaviours of teachers. For this reason, and because the amount that pupils learn is strongly affected by factors not under the teacher's control, effectiveness will be regarded not as a stable characteristic of the teachers but as product of the interaction between certain teacher characteristics and other that vary according to the situation in which the teacher works.

Researchers from National Research Center on English Learning Achievement identified nine characteristics shared by outstanding first-grade teachers in five states. In their classrooms, most students were reading and writing at or above first-grade level. The characteristics of these teachers include:

- **Ability to Motivate High Academic Engagement and Competence:** Most students were engaged in academic activities most of the time, even when the teacher left the room.

- **Excellent Class Management:** Teachers in the most effective classrooms managed student behaviour, student learning, and instructional aids and used variety of methods.

- **Ability to Foster a Positive, Reinforcing, Cooperative Environment:** These classrooms were active places. The
rare discipline problems were handled constructively. Students received a lot of positive reinforcement for their accomplishments, both privately and publicly, and students were encouraged to cooperate with one another.

- **Teaching Skills in Content:** Word-level, comprehension, vocabulary, spelling and writing skills were typically taught in the context of actual reading and writing tasks.

- **An Emphasis on Literature:** The students selected books from extensive classroom collections. The teachers read literature and conducted other studies.

- **Much Reading and Writing:** Teachers set aside 45 minutes for language, arts, providing long, uninterrupted periods for reading and writing. Both the students and teacher read daily to themselves, to a group, to an adult volunteer or to the class as a whole. Everyone wrote daily in journals.

- **A Match between Accelerating Demands and Student competence:** The teachers set high but realistic expectations and consistently encouraged students to try more challenging (but not overwhelming) tasks.

- **Encouraging Self-Regulation:** Teachers taught students to self-regulate, encouraging students to choose appropriate skills when they faced a task rather than wait for the teacher to dictate a particular skill or strategy.

- **Connections across Curricula:** Teachers made explicit connections across the curriculum—providing students with opportunities to use the skills they were learning. Reading and writing were integrated with other subjects.

According to a handbook from the University of Iowa (2001), effective teachers use the following strategies:
❖ **Clarity:** They communicate clearly about course objectives, content and testing, making sure to provide a rationale for learning particular material and adapt instruction to their student's level of knowledge and skill.

❖ **Review:** They review prerequisite knowledge as the foundation for new knowledge.

❖ **Planning:** They are familiar with current research and develop outlines for each class, begin with information about their students' preparation and skills and prepare for contingencies and "opportune moments" for teaching.

❖ **Feedback:** They ask questions requiring students to reflect, evaluate, connect ideas while providing clear and specific responses to student comments and following a correct response to a question with another question.

❖ **Transfer of Learning:** They provide adequate opportunity for mastery of tasks by making sure that principles are understood before asking students to apply them and offering a wide variety of examples.

❖ **Evaluation:** They solicit formal and informal responses from students during the semester and use this information to improve their courses as they are being taught and also invite observation and suggestions from colleagues.

**Ross (1990)** suggests that perhaps the most important qualities of an effective teacher are that:

- She must be a learner. This role is referred to as the "teacher-student" because the teacher presents the material to the students for their consideration, and reconsiders the earlier considerations. The effective teacher, then is one who extends a cordial invitation to her "student-teachers", to enter into a dialogic relationship with her and the subject matter.
The effective teacher must be a leader who can inspire and influence students through expert and referent power but never coercive power. This teacher knows his subject well and is kind and respectful toward his students. This teacher empowers students and gets them to do things of which they did not think they were capable.

The effective teacher is a provocative, who probes, asks questions, poses problems and stimulates frustration and conflict all in an attempt to plant seeds so that tidy and stereotypical explanations are unmasked and discarded.

An effective teacher keeps students at a healthy emotional distance. This teacher can, through continuous reflection, employ greater objectivity in her ability to balance the needs of individuals with the needs of the class as a whole.

The effective teacher models enthusiasm not only for his subject but also for teaching and learning in general. By showing a positive attitude, excitement, and passion, the effective teacher makes it clear to his students that he would prefer to be nowhere else.

The effective teacher is an innovator who changes strategies, techniques, texts, and materials when better ones are found and/or when existing ones no longer provides an independent learning experience for her students. This teacher values and uses students' ideas about how to enhance their own learning.

The effective teacher is a coach or guide who helps students to improve on the skills and insights. By returning the students' work promptly with constructive comments, and by being available for assistance, the creative teacher helps students to develop responsibility for their own learning, or to become what is known as self-reliant.
The effective teacher is a genuine human being or humanist who is able to laugh at herself in the world without being cynical. By being a down-to-earth person, the effective teacher helps her students to develop the will, courage and hope to fulfill their own potentials as human beings.

The effective teacher provides an environment of intellectual safety in which opposing ideas can be aired without fear of censure or retribution. Her students feel free to express their views with equal ease.

The effective teacher is an optimist or idealist who firmly believes that without an idea or mission, there will be no approximation of it. This teacher sees herself in each of her students and feels that her legacy is what she contributes to their development.

The effective teacher is one with others. He is a collaborator who places a high value on collegiality. He shares ideas and materials with others, solicits input and has involvement by parents, and seeks help from his fellow teacher when he encounters a problem.

The effective teacher is creative because she aspires to all these qualities. She values truth than certainty and the rightness of a cause more than personal popularity. As this teacher attempts to change the world, she transforms herself and others in the process. Thus, the effective teacher is revolutionary because she knows that, with an exception of parenthood, her role is the most vital one on earth in the preservation of the sanctity of life and its natural outcome – the elevation of humanity.

McEwan (2002) suggested the following ten traits of highly effective teachers. The first three traits come under Personal traits that signify character i.e. what the effective
teacher is, the next four under teaching traits that get results i.e. what the effective teacher does, and the last three fall under Intellectual traits that demonstrate knowledge, curiosity and awareness i.e. what and how the effective teacher thinks.

**Personal Traits**

- **Mission Driven and Passionate:** The effective teacher is mission driven, feeling a 'call' to teach as well as a passion to help students to learn and grow.

- **Positive and Real:** The highly effective teacher is positive and real, demonstrating the qualities of caring, respect and fairness in relationships with students, parents and colleagues.

- **A Teacher Leader:** The highly effective teacher is a 'teacher-leader' who positively affects the lives of students, parents and colleagues.

**Teaching Traits**

- **With-it-ness:** The highly effective teacher demonstrates with-it-ness, the state of being on top of, tuned into, aware and in complete control of three critical facets of classroom life-the management and organization of the classroom, the management of students and the management of time.

- **Style:** The effective teacher exhibits a personal unique style, bringing drama, enthusiasm, liveliness, humour, creativity and novelty to teaching.

- **Motivational Expertise:** The highly effective teacher is a motivator par excellence who makes a difference in the lives of students and relentlessly press and pursues students to maintain the highest possible behavioural and academic expectations.
❖ **Instructional Effectiveness**: The highly effective teacher is a skilled communicator with a repertoire of essential abilities, behaviours, models and principles that lead all students to learning.

**Intellectual Traits**

❖ **Book Learning**: The highly effective teacher has a sound knowledge of content (the structure of discipline) and outcomes (what the school, district or state has determined is essential for students to know).

❖ **Knowledge of students and community**: The highly effective teacher has knowledge of the students, the school and the community in which that teacher is teaching and uses this knowledge to solve problems in the instructional setting.

❖ **A Mental Life**: The highly effective teacher has a substantive thought life that includes abilities to be the following:
  - Meta-cognitive i.e. ability to read one's own mental state and how will it affect ones present and future performance.
  - Strategic i.e. ability to think aloud and model strategic learning for students.
  - Reflective i.e. ability to think about personal teaching behaviours for the purpose of self growth.
  - Communicative i.e. ability to articulate ideas, issues, beliefs and values about the act of teaching with colleagues, students and parents.
  - Responsive i.e. ability to 'flex' to the changing needs and demands of the profession.
Different researches on teacher effectiveness describe effective teachers on the basis of their qualities. Review of such studies reveals that effective teachers:

- are good in classroom management (Noerrlinger, 1987, Creemers, 1996; and Minor et al, 2002).
- have good presentation skills (Noerrlinger, 1987; Mishra et al., 1993; Arora, 1991).
- are organized in subject matter (Ebel, 1988; Andrews, 1982).
- are well planned for teaching (Alexander, 1960; Andrew, 1982; Gage, 1976).
- use questioning (Creemers, 1996; Borich, 1992; Arora, 1991).
- use instructional variety (Alexander, 1960; Ebel, 1988; Arora, 1991; Ralph et al., 1998; Borich, 1992).
- have clarity of expression (Somers and Southern, 1974; Andrews, 1982; Borich, 1992; Arora, 1991; Mishra et al., 1993; Creemers, 1996; Ralph et al., 1998).
- are impartial (Somers and Southern, 1974; Adaval, 1979; Arora, 1991; Balachandran, 2000 and McBer, 2000).
- have a sense of humour (Somers and Southern, 1974; Adaval, 1979).
- have knowledge of subject matter (Ebel, 1988; Arora, 1991; Mishra et al. 1993; McEwan, 2002; Alexander, 1960 and Balachandran, 2000).
- respect students opinion (Arora, 1991; Borich, 1992).
- help students to succeed and infusing current in the field (McCannon, 1993).
give importance to feedback (Andrews, 1982; Ramsden, 1992; Creemers, 1996).
- have enthusiasm for teaching
- motivate students (Balachandran, 2000).
- are intelligent (Menon, 1949; Alexander, 1960).
- have strong cognitive skills (Cotton, 1995; Demmon-Berger, 1986; Educational Testing Service (ETS), 1997; Finn, 1993; Good and Brophy, 1994; National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), 1987, Redfield and Rousseau, 1981 and Rosenshine and Stevens, 1986).

2.3.4. Criteria For Judging Teacher Effectiveness

The term ‘criterion’ is commonly attached to any set of observations that may be used as a standard for evaluative purposes or as a frame of reference for judging or testing something. It is a base, often of a rather arbitrary nature, and ultimately involving value judgements, against which comparisons may be made. Calling a particular measure a criterion, thus leads to its connotations of worth and value, although there is no standard definition of criterion and no adequate measure of it have been developed so far, in teacher effectiveness research.

There is no denying the fact that the present demands of training, employing and promoting teachers make educational administration to accept either implicitly or explicitly certain criteria of teacher effectiveness. Whatever the nature of criteria may be, they invariably involve some commitment on these
questions: Is teacher effectiveness multidimensional or unidimensional? Should teaching effectiveness be evaluated primarily against the intellectual and cognitive goals of education or primarily against attitudinal affective goals?

Later research identified four kinds of variables related to teacher effectiveness; (1) presage (2) process (3) product and (4) context. Presage refers to the characteristics that the teacher has, such as intellectual ability, knowledge of subject matter, interest and attitude towards teaching. Process refers to what the teacher does while teaching i.e., teachers’ behaviour including teacher-pupil interaction. Product refers to the outcome of teaching. Context refers to the teaching situation, i.e. the conditions under which teaching was done. These variables are inter-related and affect one another (Das, 2004).

1. **Pre-sage Criteria**

According to this criteria, teacher effectiveness must relate to personal characteristics like knowledge of skill and achievements etc. of the teachers. Four types of variables are generally accepted as presage criteria of teacher effectiveness.

- Teacher’s personality attributes.
- Characteristics of teachers in training
- Knowledge and achievement of teachers
- Status characteristics of in-service teachers

The relevance of pre-sage criteria depends upon an assumed relationship to other criteria i.e. either process or product. These criteria are somewhat away from the interplay of behaviours in the classroom. For instance, we may measure a teacher’s intelligence with precision, but students do not know or react to the teacher’s intelligence score. Such concepts as teacher intelligence, teacher creativity, personal adjustment and the like have come to stay as appropriate criteria for teacher
effectiveness on the basis of their common sense appeal. Accordingly intelligent, creative and well-adjusted teachers are effective but *Fattu (1949) and Kearney (1953)* observed that scientific evidence does not uniformly endorse this viewpoint.

*Grewal (1976)* observed that the personality attributes of teachers that are considered as effective criteria are as many and as varied as the investigators who have employed them. Industrious, intelligence and the like are a few traits included in rating scales used for assessing teaching effectiveness. *Barr (1948), Domas and Tiedeman (1950)* have listed many such studies.

Numerous studies have also employed an evaluation of overall teaching competence, generally obtained from a generalized opinion rating or marking by a supervisor. This approach to criterion definition has too often ignored the comparative instability of the evaluations made about teachers on different occasions, as well as the different educational outcomes and situational differences caused by different teaching profession. *Morsh and Wilder (1954)* regard this 'armchair-opinion' approach as unfruitful though economical and convenient.

Teacher training variables like marks in education courses, success in student teaching, and teacher evaluation have been used as presage criteria *Mitzel and Gross (1956)* favour criterion of this type especially those involving student teaching experiences, because of their relevance to the teaching process than those based on personality attributes or a general competency trait. But the difference between the student teacher's behaviour under training and the behaviour in the teaching profession is expected due to the experience, maturity or other variables intervening after training. Since the critic-
teacher provides training in teaching variables so it seems to be quite justified to use such criterion as potential predictors of teacher effectiveness.

**Cockrill (1982) and Pearl (1982)** observed that variables like enthusiasm and emotional stability, professional skills, subject matter and planning skills were used as criteria for selecting the teachers in Texas.

**Hayman (1985)** concluded that the teachers who possessed the highest level of motivation, self-actualization, tended to be more effective teacher. **Knoblock (1985)** findings indicated that participation or lack of participation in graduate education rather than the degree subject area or currentness of that participation has an influential effect on teacher effectiveness.

**Slinger (1985)** findings indicated that identification of the differences or gaps in the knowledge of a subject in relation to teaching across these issues determined a subject's potential for becoming a more effective teacher through the course experiences or from class experiences. **Lambertson (1985)** found that elementary teachers and secondary teachers had similar attitudes and elementary teachers and school-based administrators had similar attitudes concerning effective teaching behaviours.

**Collier (1986)** attempted to examine effective teaching of high achieving students and their responses were categorized as instructional skill, classroom management, teacher student relations or personal characteristics.

**Bae (1987)** attempted to investigate American and Korea teachers conceptions of effective teaching and found that for both the groups of teachers-teacher enthusiasm, teacher student rapport and clarity were more closely related to effective
teaching than other behaviours. Werst (1987) observed that the criteria rated the most important in the selection. Recruitment of potentially successful applicants were based on the abilities to teach, transmit knowledge, work well with others, maintain order and discipline motivate learning in others, be reliable and trustworthy, demonstrate high degree of hardwork and knowledge and skills and have a high level of academic achievement.

Kirby (1987) found that measures of teacher effectiveness gathered through one-hour classroom observations of 102 teachers were not significantly correlated with scores on the RTI i.e. Reflective Teaching Instrument.

Gettings (1989) found that using computers in the classroom makes a positive contribution towards teaching effectiveness. Forrest (1990) found that participation in the summer workshop improved the teacher effectiveness and maintained the writing apprehension levels of the teachers.

Vashishta and Verma (1991) concluded that effective and ineffective teachers had sharp distinction in relation to personality traits like-emotional construction, marked inhibition of sexuality, dependency and difficulty in establishing close personal relationship.

Sutliff (1992) found that part time faculty were consistently rated the highest across the four faculty groups. Selna (1993) found that no significant differences were found between the effective and less effective teachers in pupil control orientation and the sense of teacher efficacy.

McCannon (1993) conducted a study that indicated that helping to students succeed and infusing current in the field were two of the effective teacher's characteristics. Anyalewechi (1994) found the following characteristics/traits of effective teachers or
factors influential in teaching effectiveness. These are – understanding students, managerial skills, planning, educational background, administrative support and instructional method.

**Rao (1995)** found significant relations between teacher effectiveness, creativity and interpersonal relationships of teachers and significant differences existed between rural and urban teachers with reference to inter-personal relationships.

**Wilhelm (1996)** found significant differences in perception between students and faculty or between types of course, in the following seven categories: learning/academic value, instructor enthusiasm, organization/ clarity, examinations/grading, assignments/ readings, individual rapport and overall rating.

**Babu and Ghanaguru (1997)** found that the involvement of teachers in teaching Commerce and their effectiveness of teaching were found to be correlated significantly. **Nyiri (1997)** found that a relationship exists between lifelong learning and the degree of teacher effectiveness. These findings can be used as predictors of expert teachers or as prescriptive measures for teacher improvement.

It is held that attitude of a teacher to a great extent affect teacher effectiveness because these are important indicators of personal and social adjustment of a teacher. Teacher is genuinely interested in his teaching for its own sake and also in the children. His altruistic behaviour will go a long way to evoke an enthusiastic response from the students in the classroom (*Grewal, 1988*).

2. **Process Criterion**

It includes those aspects of teacher's or student's behaviour which are believed to be worthwhile in their own right. They remain indices of social emotional climate of the classroom (*Chauhan, 1976*). These are defined and evaluated in the
classroom in terms of conditions or typical situations involving the social interactions of student and teacher. Process criteria obtained from observations of teacher behaviour would be limited to the extent to which teachers discipline students effectively, maintain rapport with students, or individualize instruction, consistent with student's personality and achievements which form desirable classroom characteristics.

Evans (1951) reported eight criteria for assessing teacher effectiveness in England. They relate to (i) pupil change; (ii) judgement of experts (iii) use of rating scales; (iv) pupils ratings (v) agreement between different measures of teaching ability (vi) attitudes (vii) interests (viii) socio-metric analysis. Besides observational techniques, objective instruments like inventories, projective tests, covert qualities, self-report and existing records were also employed.

Flanagan's (1954) method for the identification and development of process criteria of teacher effectiveness holds some promises. Similarly, process criteria obtained from observations of student behaviour would be limited to the extent to which students exhibit affection for the teacher attentive listening or conformity to classroom routines.

Mathew (1980), Bhagoliwal (1988), McGarvey (1983) and Tell (1983) identified those characteristics, which seemed to differentiate superior teachers from inferior teachers. Some of these are:

- Superior teachers liked children;
- Superior teachers were personally secure; and self-assured;
- Superior teachers were integrated;
- Effective teachers understood the social and educational needs of a child;
• Effective teachers were flexible; and
• Effective teachers were sensible.

McKeachie, Lin and Mann (1971) found that teachers whose students rated them high in "rapport" tended to be more effective on measures of student's critical thinking.

Costin and Grush (1973) obtained correlations between student ratings of classroom behaviour and the following variables;
• Students descriptions of teachers personality traits;
• Student's self-described traits;
• Discrepancies between traits that students preferred in their teachers and the traits they observed.

They, however, concluded that student's perceptions of classroom behaviour were more closely related to their descriptions of the teacher's personality traits than to their own traits or to the teachers self-described traits.

O'Kelley (1974) observed that (i) faculty and students use the same criteria to evaluate teaching effectiveness (ii) teaching is situational and effective teaching depends upon human qualities inherent in the teachers.

Centra (1974) found student and alumni ratings for twenty three teachers correlate at .75. This study clearly indicated that the judgements of teachers by their students at the end of a course were fairly permanent and mature.

Sud (1976), and Gurmeet (1984) used pupils' ratings of teachers as the criterion measure of teacher effectiveness. The teachers who were rated high by the pupils have been considered to be more effective.
Bojar (1985) found that when teachers mean scores on management style was correlated by school with the mean of student's scores on teacher effectiveness, no significant relationship was found. There was also no significant relationship between congruence of perception and teacher effectiveness. Stocksen's (1985) findings indicated that students generally do not perceive any major differences between part time and full time faculty.

Warner (1986) found no significant difference in the instructional behaviour of the three groups of teacher classified as excellent, good and average. Jennings (1987) concluded that there was a significant relationship between students' perceptions of effective teacher characteristics and student's attitudes toward school. Noerrlinger (1987) found that elementary students can be a reliable source of information of teacher effectiveness. The students rated the more effective teachers significantly higher than the less effective teachers on personal interest, classroom management presentation, guided practice and independent practice.

Daly (1990) found that student perception might be valid and reliable sources for faculty development.

Clark (1993) concluded that student ratings of effectiveness are related to teacher leader effectiveness. Young (1995) found that according to the students in this study, excellent teaching does not demand teachers who are superior in all aspects. Meadows (1997) concluded that post analysis revealed a significant relationship between instructor effectiveness and instructor leadership. Socio-independent instructors received the highest student grades and students viewed these instructors as enthusiastic mentors.
Treder (1998) found that more effective teachers indicated greater interaction with social needs of students and also indicated higher level of promotion of inclusive practices at their schools.

In research on teacher effectiveness much analysis has been devoted to the criterion question-self. University of Wisconsin, U.S.A. used seven categories, namely:-

- In-service ratings by superintendents, principals, other supervisory officials, teacher educators, departmental specialists, state departmental personnel and self ratings;
- Peer rating;
- Pupil gain score;
- Pupil rating;
- Composite of test scores from tests thought to measure teaching effectiveness;
- Practice teaching grades and
- Combination or composites of some or all of the above criteria. Preference was given to self ratings in majority of the studies, followed by pupil gain scores.

3. **Product Criterion**

   It depends upon the teaching goals, which are most economically stated in terms of changes in students behaviour. Teaching efficiency must relate itself to student's growth, psychomotor skills and effective and cognitive areas of behaviour (Shah, 1995).

   Ebel (1955) suggested that schools should be more practical and should confine their activities and efforts of self-evaluation to the fulfillment of those objectives which are immediate and measurable.
But the importance of the product criteria has been ignored by the fact that out of 138 studies as summarized by Barr (1948), only 19 used a measure of student gain as a criterion. Mitzel and Gross (1956) found just 20 such studies. This produces a doubt regarding the measure of student growth and reflection of teacher’s skill in the student growth.

Another idea forwarded by Remmers (1952) is that teacher competence should be evaluated against teacher’s effects on school operations, school/community relations and students learning. Truely, the role of a teacher is important within the milieu of the school and the community, but it formulates only subsidiary goals, which derive the sanctions from the fact that they tend to promote student growth. Sanford and Trump (1952), after going through numerous studies noted that the correlation between teaching ability and pupil achievement presented a confusing picture. The correlations were reported to be low in certain studies (Barv, 1952), whereas such correlations were high in certain other studies (Lins, 1946 and Restker, 1945). Barr (1952) elucidated that the variables other than teacher behaviour, affecting pupil growth may be controlled to produce more reliable results.

Evans (1951) attributed these difficulties to:

- Multiplicity of changes;
- Pupil maturity; and
- Other influences.

A teacher produces unlimited and varied changes in the pupils and hence there are apparent difficulties in the evaluation of these changes. Similarly, pupils mature at different rates and attain levels of maturity, this in turn affects the amount of knowledge acquired by them. So increase in knowledge can
never be attributed to the activities of the teachers alone and thus cannot be used as a measure of teaching effectiveness. Pupil progress may be to some extent due to effective teaching and thorough grounding at earlier stages. Obviously, the isolation of a single teacher's contribution to pupil growth is a complex and practically unsolvable problem.

As Morsh, Burgess and Smith (1956) have pointed out, if the student gains are to be used as a measure of instructor's effectiveness, it is necessary to hold constant, in so far as possible, all relevant variables other than the effects of teaching itself. This rules out the possibility of accepting the increase in knowledge as the only basis for measuring pupils gains because of practical difficulties in identifying and controlling the variables other than the effects of teaching itself. In other words, what has to be ensured is that the teachers being judged, carry out their teaching with groups of pupils with same intelligence, earnestness for study, educativeness of home and the community, similarity of earlier teachers' influence and learning experiences etc. Reliability and Validity of achievement tests add another difficulty.

The approach of pre-testing and post-testing (after a period of teaching by teachers under study) of pupils, and control of certain factors also failed due to the problems of multiplicity of influence and multidimensionality of pupil gain. So it is not surprising to note that out of 1000 studies, only 20 used student as the criterion of teaching effectiveness (Travers, 1973). Rest of the studies involved the ratings made by supervisors, independent observers and more commonly by principals. More frequently, researchers have correlated particular teacher's behavioural characteristics with pupil growth as measured on achievement test or by self-reports. They analysed teacher-behaviour in classroom itself.
Blalock (1985) found no significant difference between students of 'more' and 'less' effective teachers. Mendez’s (1986) findings indicated significant differences in perceptions of students and those of teachers and principals on aspects of communication and teaching behaviours.

Simms (1988) remarked that both teachers and principals found process criteria to be the most relevant and presage criteria the most feasible. Product criteria was considered to be least relevant and least feasible by both groups. Effective teachers sensitively and flexibly control those learning conditions that can be arranged, try to influence or at least take into account less manageable conditions and recognize that their teaching effectiveness will depend on a preparedness to experiment with, analyze and evaluate their own patterns of thought and action.

The task of the teacher centres on:

- Orienting the child from the standpoint of action and motivation towards desirable goals.
- Facilitating his attainment of these goals through introduction of suitable learning experiences and
- attending to the more personal aspects of his own growth e.g. attitude values and personal adjustment.

These tasks are highly interrelated, none can be considered apart from the other.

Frost-Williford (1989) concluded that the teachers who were identified as less effective were not using as many competencies as did those teachers who responded with a high degree of comfort. Deshpande (1991) found that teacher effectiveness as evaluated by the performance test in terms of student advancement was not related to other types of assessment like student’s ratings, or teacher behaviour indices.
Reed (1996) found that when the peer-coached participants (Group I) were compared to the non-coached participants (Group II), both groups felt positive about –

- the effects of the teaching strategy on student achievement
- the continued use of the strategy and
- their reflection of the teaching strategy and what they learned about themselves.

Rhodes (1997) reported that teacher effectiveness can be grouped into 3 areas: the students, the teacher and teaching methods. Madsen (1999) found significant differences due to experience level and teaching segments. Examination of the subjects group mean ratings and evaluative comments indicated that high and low teacher delivery affected the response ratings of the middle and high school students more than any other variables;

2.3.5 Models of Teacher Effectiveness

Model of teacher effectiveness by Mitzel (1982) shows how these criterion are linked to each other. The structure of teacher effectiveness as given by him shows in a systematic form nine important types of variables involved in the definition of teacher effectiveness proposed as basis for planning future research, in the research itself and in making decisions about teacher effectiveness.

![Fig 2.1: Structure of Teacher Effectiveness, Mitzel (1982)](image-url)
The five cells in the top row (on-line) define five types of variables each of which has been selected at one time or another as a criterion for evaluating teachers. The four cells in the second row (off-line) define four additional types of variables that affect the outcomes of teaching and that are not controlled by the teacher. The arrows in the diagram indicate the flow of influence from one variable to the next. Each cell is joined by such an arrow to the one other cell that it influences most directly. Note that all the other cells shown affect pupil learning outcomes directly or indirectly. The effectiveness of a teacher depends, then on at least eight different kinds of variables; and it is vital that they be distinguished clearly from one another.

Mitzel's (1982) presage criteria included pre-existing teacher characteristics, teacher training variables, and teacher competencies, his process criteria included teacher performance and pupil learning experiences; his product criteria were based on pupil learning outcomes; and his environmental variables included variables in the remaining three of the four off line cells (shown in the second line of figure 2.1).

Variables in first four online cells and the fifth, i.e. pupil learning outcomes, need no clarification. The four off line cells may be explained as follow:

Teacher training variable in figure 2.1 reflects efforts of teacher educators or others to help a teacher grow in competence i.e., to add additional competencies to her credit. Of particular interest is pre-service preparations the training that goes on before the teacher enters into full time practice of the profession. The set of competencies a teacher has at the end of pre-service preparation is mixture of pre-existing teacher
characteristics and knowledge, abilities and belief acquired during training.

**External context variables** are characteristics of the school in which the teacher works, that interact with the competencies the teacher possesses to determine how well that teacher performs in that situation. The physical and support facilities in the school, media and materials available to the teachers and the relationship between the school and community are variables that belongs to this cell. The major contribution made by other school personnel to teacher effectiveness is determined by variables in this cell.

**Internal context variables** are group characteristics of the class taught by the teacher that interact with teacher performance in determining the learning experiences that pupils have in that classroom. Such variables as class size, average ability, heterogeneity, ethnic composition and socio-metric properties of the class belong to this cell.

**Individual pupil characteristics** are the characteristics of a pupil that determine what learning outcomes result from any particular learning experience that pupil might have. Two pupils will be effected differently by identical learning experiences because they differ in ability, interests values and so on.

Similarly **Nitiasasook and Postleth (1986)** gave the process products paradigm, probably the best known paradigm which is implicit in **figure 2.2.** It is sometime called the presage-context-process-product paradigm.
In presage-context-process-product-paradigm, the presage variables are, in general teacher characteristics, such as the teacher's sex, training, verbal aptitude, years of experience, knowledge of the subject, teacher-education experience, educational values and implicit theories of teaching. Context variables describe the setting in which the teaching takes place; type of school, grade level, subject matter, students ability, initial knowledge of subjects, class size, school size and so on. Process variables refer to what goes on in the classroom teaching behaviour, methods practices and styles as well as student behaviour and teacher-student interactions. Product variables are those that characterize students achievement of cognitive objectives as well as student's attitudes values etc.

More recently research by McBer (2000) provides a framework to describe effective teaching. He reported three main factors within teachers’ control that significantly influence pupil progress- (i) teaching skills (ii) professional characteristics (iii) classroom climate. The three factors are different in nature. Two of them – professional characteristics and teaching skills – are factors which relate what a teacher brings to a job. Classroom climate, on the other hand, is an output measure. Teacher effectiveness model by McBer (2000) has been described in figure 2.3.
A Summary of how this model works is as follows. All competent teachers know their subjects. They know the appropriate teaching methods for their subjects and curriculum areas and the ways pupils learn. More effective teachers make the most of their professional knowledge in two linked ways. One is the extent to which they deploy appropriate teaching skills consistently and effectively in the course of all their lessons – the sorts of teaching strategies and techniques that can be observed when they are at work in the classroom. The other is the range and intensity of the professional characteristics they exhibit – ongoing patterns of behaviour which make them effective. Professional characteristics can be assessed, and good teaching practice can be observed. Classroom climate provides another tool for measuring the impact created by a combination of the teachers skills, knowledge and professional characteristics. Taken in combination, these three factors provide valuable tools for effective teaching.

McBer (2000) defined teaching skills as “those ‘microbehaviours’ that the effective teacher constantly exhibits
when teaching a class. These behaviours were clustered under the following seven headings comprising the teaching skills.

![Diagram of teaching skills](image)

**Fig. 2.4: The Teaching Skills**

In addition to the microbehaviours under the seven headings, teaching skills can be observed in terms of the way the lesson is structured and flows, and the number of pupil who are on task through the course of the lesson.

Further professional characteristics were defined as deep seated patterns of behaviour which outstanding teachers display more often, in more circumstances and to a greater degree of intensity. The effective teachers show the following distinctive combination of characteristics, which are given in figure 2.5.
Classroom climate is defined as the collective perceptions of what it feels like to be a pupil in any particular teacher’s classroom, where those perceptions influence every student’s motivation to learn and perform to the best of his or her ability.

McBer (2000) concluded that effective teachers use their knowledge, skills and behaviours to create effective learning environments in their classroom.

Hence teacher effectiveness is the degree of success of a teacher in performing instructional and other duties specified in his contract and demanded by the nature of his position (Good, 1959), the results a teacher gets or to the amount of progress pupils make towards some specified goal of education (Medley, 1982).
By seeing the conceptual perspective of teacher effectiveness, it may be inferred that along with other factors, burnout tendencies among teachers may have some influence on the teacher effectiveness.