CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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2.1 INTRODUCTION

A summary of the writings of recognized authorities and of previous research provides evidence that the investigator is familiar with what is already known and what is still unknown and untested. The significance of such review of related literature is clearly pointed out by Borg (1965) who observed that “literature forms the foundation upon which all the future work is built”. Review eliminates the duplication of what has been done and provides helpful suggestions for significant investigation.

The investigator has reviewed the reports of previous researches, dissertations, articles, surveys, reports, books, and internet sources. The findings, opinions, and statements of various researchers and authors which have a bearing on the present study are presented in this chapter under different heads as follows:

- Emotional Intelligence
- Studies Related to Professional Burnout
- Studies Related to Emotional Intelligence and Burnout
- Studies Related to Burnout and Teacher Effectiveness
- Studies Related to Emotional Intelligence, Personality and Adjustment Needs
- Studies Related to Adjustment Needs and Creativity
- Studies Related to Burnout, Personality Needs and Adjustment Needs
- Studies Related to Personality Needs, Adjustment Needs and Creativity
- Studies Related to Teachers’ Personality
- Studies Related to Creativity and Teacher Effectiveness
- Studies Related to Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Effectiveness
• Studies Related to Teacher Effectiveness

• Studies Related to Burnout of Teachers in Relation to Some Demographic Variables

• Synthesis of the Review of Related Studies

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The following studies highlight the importance of emotional intelligence in workplace and in life.

Importance of emotional intelligence in various walks of life have been studied extensively by many researchers and they have opined that, though emotion historically had taken a back seat to cognition, it is gaining tremendous recognition today because emotional intelligence is said to predict success in both personal and professional life. Earlier philosophers and scientists had relied on and glorified analytical intelligence throughout much of western history. At the same time emotion has been regarded as an inferior, often disruptive element of human nature (Russel and Lemay 2000).

Young (1936) even went on to say that emotions have no conscious purpose and cause “a complete loss of cerebral control”, but there are very few researchers who argued in favor of importance of emotions like Hume (1948), an early 18th century empiricist philosopher. He argued that emotional impulses motivate all action.

Freud (1962) held somewhat similar position. He emphasized the primacy of the id, the seat of the self’s emotionality and psychic energy, and maintained that the other aspects of the self are derivative. Darwin (1965) revealed that emotions serve at least two highly advantageous functions. First, emotion energizes adaptive behaviors and second, emotion gives rise to a signaling and communication system. He brought to the attention the adaptability, which was seemingly intelligent nature of emotional expression.
Emotional intelligence is also said to influence in the key areas of personal functioning. Goleman (1995a, 1998a, b) claims that emotional intelligence will account for success at level higher than $r = 0.45$ at home, at school and at work.

Studies in corporate world have shown that “intelligence quotient gets you hired, but emotional intelligence gets you promoted”. Canadian HR reporter (1998) provides concrete evidence on “EQ beats IQ in Work Place” based on the studies conducted by different researchers. Stein (2004) said “emotional intelligence is significantly and highly correlated with job performance, while cognitive intelligence has shown low and insignificant correlation with performance in the workplace”.


Emotions are recognized as one of three or four fundamental classes of mental operations. These classes include motivation, emotion, cognition and less frequently consciousness Brain (1855), Izard (1993), Maclean (1973) Mayer (1995a, 1995b) and Mayer, Chabot and Carlsmith (1997).

Today great emphasis is placed on the psychological importance of emotion and it is generally accepted that emotions augment rather than interfere with other cognitive capacities. Moreover, there is wide agreement that emotions are the primary source of motivation. They arouse, sustain, and direct human action Izard (1971), Leeper (1948) and Tomkins (1962). Finally one can expect that, the interaction of emotion and cognition would also give rise to emotional intelligence.

According to Karthikeyan (2001) emotional intelligence which is measured by emotional quotient, has its scope in recruitment, retention and employee development. Goleman (1995) showed that IQ contributes about 20 percent to the factors that determine life success, and the remaining 80 percent is predicted by emotional
intelligence. At work group level, emotional intelligence is manifested in harmonious relationships among workers.

Williams and Sternberg (1998) found that harmonious groups were able to more fully capitalize on the creative abilities of their members than were those groups that had friction attributable to dominance by one or more members, anger or resentment between members, or non-participating social workers. The social-skills components of emotional intelligence enhance work-group cohesion.


Kelly and Caplan (1993) observed that peak performing groups had members, who built consensus, empathized with other members, promoted cooperation, and avoided conflicts. He also found that emotional intelligence creates and sustains informal networks.

Kaplan (2003) evaluated the effects of a psycho-educational training program on the development of emotional intelligence in preschool and elementary educators and caregivers. Findings suggest that, though participants’ EI appeared weak pre-program, it improved significantly post-training, as did their implementation of the Peaceable Classroom program with children.

Tyagi (2003) conducted a study on emotional intelligence of secondary teachers in relation to gender and age and found that the level of emotional intelligence of secondary teachers is extremely low. The study also revealed that there was a total lack of emotional competencies such as to tackle frustrations, to delay gratification, communication of emotions and inter-personal relationships. He concluded that male and female teachers do not differ in respect of their level of emotional intelligence.

From the review of related literature, it is found that there were hardly any studies conducted in the area of emotional intelligence and that and that too with higher secondary school teachers. As the concept of emotional intelligence is newly picked up in the area of education in India, since past one decade, there are very less number of studies. Many studies conducted on emotional intelligence are theoretical in nature and a very few are empirical. As it is a budding concept, a number on
emotional intelligence with relevance to teacher effectiveness are rarely found. This shows that the role of emotional intelligence in teaching profession needs to be studied in detail. Thus, the present study is a simple attempt towards filling up this research gap.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT

Quigley (1987) investigated the degree of burnout among secondary school teacher coaches and attempted to identify factors that contributed to this burnout. This study showed that the gender of the teacher coaches, age, size of school, the amount of administration support for coaching, and the compensation, recognition, and rewards for coaching were all related to level of burnout.

Hock (1988) assessed various aspects of teachers and their jobs, including demographic variables, teaching climate, job stress, and dissatisfaction, psychological effects of burnout, and related physical symptoms. 40.8% of the Subjects had psychological effect scores that indicated moderate or high levels of burnout. Results indicate that there was a wide variation in the degree of burnout Subjects experienced. No differences were found in susceptibility to burnout due to demographic variables such as age, grade level, subject taught, or years of experience. Certain characteristics of teaching climate associated with high and low levels of burnout were identified. Classroom discipline problems, lack of support services for personal problems, and the public image of teachers were most highly associated with burnout.

Friesen (1988) surveyed 1,211 teachers to determine the different types of burnout possible. Emotional exhaustion burnout was predicted best by overall work stress, both depersonalization and personal accomplishment burnout were best predicted by satisfaction with status and recognition. Findings were consistent with teachers’ self-reported comments on sources of each form of burnout. Teachers tended to experience different forms of burnout and they tended to burnout for different reasons.

Burke et al., (1996) examined the relative importance of predictors of burnout over time. Data show that predictors of burnout depend primarily on Subjects’ social roles including the occupational role which is often confounded with gender. Among
male Subjects, scores were higher on depersonalization and emotional exhaustion than for female Subjects. Teachers had higher levels of burnout than school administrators with the exception of the personal accomplishment component.

Greenglass (1997) examined the antecedents and consequences of burnout, including the roles of work stressors and social support from supervisors and co-workers, in a sample of 833 teachers at all levels. Results show that greater co-worker support contributed to the prediction of burnout, particularly to decreased depersonalization and increased feelings of accomplishment.

Walker (1997) studied the relationship between social support and professional burnout among public secondary school teachers. Teaching is reported to be a stressful occupation and social support is thought to mediate stress. Differences in levels of professional burnout indicated that females had more emotional exhaustion than males. Teachers who were younger than 45 years had more emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than teachers older than 45.

Collier (1998) designed a study to investigate the relationships between burnout among middle school teachers that come from job-related stress and common sources of that stress such as work environment. The findings showed that the teacher social skills variable to be significantly related negatively to teacher burnout and teacher work environment not at all related to teacher burnout.

Buschmann et al., (1999) conducted a study on “Determinant’s of teachers’ burnout” and found that active coping skills in a good working social environment are necessary to prevent this syndrome among teachers.

Duran et al., (2001) studied the relation of socio-demographic variables, work satisfaction, organizational commitment, and burnout dimensions in 91 male and female primary, secondary, and university teachers. The Work Satisfaction Scale, The Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire were used. The results indicate that 26.4 percent of Subjects report a high degree of emotional exhaustion and 33.0 percent of Subjects do not feel a sense of professional fulfillment. The results also indicate that the degree of burnout is associated with work attitudes.
Upadhayay et al., (2001) examined the level of occupational stress experienced by college teachers and higher secondary school teachers. The sample consisted of 40 respondents, all Subjects having completed the Occupational Stress Index (OSI). Significant differences were found on variables related to role overload, role ambiguity, responsibility, under participation, powerlessness, peer relation and unprofitability. It is concluded that academicians experience stress and need to learn coping strategies to overcome the negative effects of job stressors.

Alkhrisha (2002) identified the important sources behind teacher stress and burnout. Results show that while American teachers reported a moderate degree of burnout, Jordanian teachers reported a high degree of burnout. It was found that environmental variables, particularly level of technology, teacher salary, student behavior, and societal stability, are the major sources of teacher burnout.

Lau (2002) showed that all teacher burnout aspects were related to teachers’ demographic variables, sources of stress, self-concept subscales and meaning of life.

Fu-ming (2003) found that the stress of interpersonal relationship and employment stress positively predicted emotional exhaustion; stress of interpersonal relationship positively predicted a reduced sense of personal accomplishment; stress of interpersonal relationship positively predicted depersonalization and stress of occupational prestige negatively predicted depersonalization. The study concludes that the teachers’ occupational stress is correlated with burnout. Different occupational stressors predict different components of burnout.

Markus (2003) in a study titled “Stress, and Resources, for Burnout of Secondary School Teachers”, found that burnout and attitude towards the school differed between the three school types.

Ochiai (2003) found that teacher burnout is one of the most serious of human service worker burnout problems.

Sari (2004) conducted a study on job satisfaction among special school headteachers and teachers in Turkey. Results indicated that special school headteachers felt less personal accomplishment than special school teachers. However, there were no significant differences between head teachers and teachers on
two burnout dimensions, namely emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and job satisfaction.

Smith (2003) examined the burnout levels of secondary school physical education teachers, and identified some specific work conditions related to burnout. Results show that Subjects experienced only moderate levels of burnout. However, there was no significant relationship between burnout and the demographic characteristics of age, gender, race, marital status, position, years of teaching, and educational level.

Saggino (2005) investigated the validity and the internal consistency of the Maslach Burnout Inventory in a sample of 142 Italian teachers. Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization have aspects in common with the Neuroticism and the Psychoticism scales.

Salas (2005) explored the Burnout Syndrome in a group of teachers and showed that the young teachers report higher scores in depersonalization than the older ones.

Tomic (2005) investigated the relationship between Epstein’s (1998) Constructive thinking. The results of the study suggest that secondary school teachers’ maladaptive thinking processes prevent them from rational thinking during their work, which significantly contributes to the onset of burnout. Burnout intervention programs for teachers are likely to be more effective when the participator’s maladaptive thinking system is taken into consideration. This stems from the idea that personality factors are a probably easier point of departure to tackle burnout symptoms than organizational factors.

Mohammadi (2006): studied the relationships between burnout variables and psychological health variables in high school teachers were examined in this study. The Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Symptom Check List were administered to 137 female and 163 male high school teachers in Tehran selected by the stratified random sampling method. Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient was used for data analyses. Results indicated significant positive correlations between job burnout variables.
Mabry (2006) examined the factors that play a significant role in teacher burnout among 356 elementary, middle, and high school teachers. The results of the data analysis showed 60.4 percent had no evidence of burnout whereas 39.6 percent showed evidence of burnout. The teacher background in relationship to The Teacher Burnout Scale showed the following: The teachers who experienced the highest level of teacher burnout were teachers who taught the 10th, third, and second grades, respectively. The teachers who experienced the highest level of teacher burnout were those who responded neutrally or who felt unprepared. The teachers who experienced the highest level of teacher burnout taught in schools with student populations between 301-500. There was no statistically significant difference between teacher burnout and gender, school location, ethnicity, teacher age, school level, years of teaching experience, class size, or highest degree obtained by the teachers.

Wang (2007) explored the occupational stress, teacher burnout and mental health state of primary and middle schools teachers and investigated the relationship among them. Results show that teachers showed higher scores in every factor of occupational stress and teacher burnout.

It can be observed from the above review that there are a good number of studies on burnout but they are not directly related to teacher effectiveness and other variables of the present study. Moreover most of them are the studies conducted abroad. But there is really a dearth of such studies conducted in India in relation to burnout in secondary school teachers. Attempts have not been made to assess the influence of burnout on teacher effectiveness or vice versa. So there is need for the present study.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND BURNOUT

Williams (1989) studied the relationships between empathy and burnout and possible confounding influences of sex and profession. There were no main effects of profession on empathy or burnout variables. There was an interaction effect of sex and profession on depersonalization, which was accounted for by Subjects in social work and teaching. Women had significantly higher empathy scores than men.
Emotional empathy was significantly positively correlated with both emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment, whereas emotional exhaustion was also positively related to depersonalization. It is hypothesized that high emotional empathy may predispose helping professionals to emotional exhaustion and that emotional exhaustion, if not mediated by personal accomplishment, may lead to the development of depersonalization.

You et al., (1998) studied emotional intelligence as a mediator to experience burnout feeling and investigated how much burnout individuals experience at work and which personal variables influence the burnout experience. Subjects were studied as to whether the burnout experience is mediated by emotional dispositions (mood-awareness, mood-regulation, mood-expressiveness) and emotion related motivations. Regression analysis showed that the burnout experience had a quadratic relationship with Subjects’ length of time at current jobs. The results show that the more flexible Subjects and Subjects who better dealt with emotional problems experienced less burnout caused by work.

Bakker et al., (2000) examined processes by which occupational burnout may transfer from one person to another. The results suggested that burnout contagion was most pronounced under these 2 high-risk conditions. Specifically, the prevalence of perceived burnout among Subjects’ colleagues was most strongly related to individual teachers’ burnout when the teachers were highly susceptible to the emotions of others and when they frequently communicated with each other about work-related problems.

Fu-ming (2003) found that the stress of interpersonal relationship and employment stress positively predicted emotional exhaustion; stress of interpersonal relationship positively predicted a reduced sense of personal accomplishment; stress of interpersonal relationship positively predicted depersonalization and stress of occupational prestige negatively predicted depersonalization. Teachers’ occupational stress is correlated with burnout. Different occupational stressors predict different components of burnout.

Mendes (2003) compared the emotional intelligence of 49 credentialed secondary teachers, as measured by the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) with their current burnout levels, as measured by the Maslach Burnout
Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES). This study examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher burnout and suggested that recognizing, understanding, and managing emotions is essential to effective leadership. Four significant findings were found in this study: (a) In the high emotional exhaustion subgroup (n = 15) there was a negative correlation between emotional exhaustion and managing emotions; (b) also in the emotional exhaustion subgroup (n = 15) there was a negative correlation between personal accomplishment and managing emotions; (c) in the low personal accomplishment subgroup (n = 36) there was a positive correlation between emotional exhaustion and managing emotions; in the total sample (N = 49) a positive correlation was found between the number of years of teaching and identifying emotions. With more experience, teachers are better at identifying emotions.

Nina (2005) opined that emotional intelligence is an essential factor responsible for determining success in life and psychological well-being and it seems to play an important role in shaping the interaction between individuals and their work environment. The purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and perceived stress in the workplace and health-related consequences in human service workers. A sample of 330 participants (42.4% of men and 57.6% of women) representing various human service professions (physicians, nurses, teachers, probation officers and managers) was eligible for the study. The results confirmed an essential but not very strong, role of emotional intelligence in perceiving occupational stress and preventing employees of human services from burnout. The ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees in coping with occupational stress.

Chan (2006) Explored the relationships among four components of emotional intelligence (emotional appraisal, positive regulation, empathic sensitivity, and positive utilization) and three components of teacher burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment) suggesting that emotional exhaustion, influenced by emotional appraisal and positive regulation was causally prior to depersonalization and personal accomplishment, but personal accomplishment could develop relatively independently from the burnout components through the influence of positive utilization of emotions.
2.5 STUDIES RELATED TO BURNOUT AND TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

Beer (1992) found that teachers in grade school experienced less burnout and stress than did high school teachers.

Ito (2000) examined the effects of some factors on burnout among teachers. Results indicated that a lack of personal accomplishment was negatively associated with “self-evaluated teaching ability” and “human relations.” A comparison of new and experienced teachers showed that the new ones felt lower personal accomplishment, and evaluated themselves more poorly on their ability to guide their classes. Two types of teachers, those oriented to class guidance, emphasizing class management, and those oriented to relationships, emphasizing their relations with their pupils, were compared. Self-evaluated teaching ability was a factor in burnout in the former group, whereas relations with colleagues played an important role in preventing burnout in the latter.

Madden-Szeszko (2000) conducted a study on “Variables contributing to teacher efficacy: An examination of burnout, affect, demographic variables, and general self-efficacy”. Teaching effectiveness has been shown to be related to teacher classroom behavior, emotions, and attitudes as well as student variables such as academic achievement. Results indicated that burnout significantly predicted personal and general teaching effectiveness. The burnout dimension, personal accomplishment, predicted a significant amount of unique variance in personal teaching effectiveness. Higher levels of personal accomplishment were associated with higher levels of personal teaching effectiveness. In combination, the demographic variables significantly predicted general teaching effectiveness.

Jenkins (2005) in a study titled “Factors associated with burnout among self-contained secondary behavior teachers”, showed that a statistically significant relationship existed between workload and emotional exhaustion. A statistically significant relationship was found between emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment.

Xu et al., (2005) explored the relationship of teachers’ job burnout with job stress, coping strategies associated with job stress, teachers’ sense of efficacy, self-
esteem, locus of control, social support in primary and secondary schools. Results indicated that (1) Teachers’ job burnout was significantly positively correlated with job stress, inactive coping and locus of control; and (2) Teachers’ job burnout was significantly negatively correlated with active coping, teachers’ sense of efficacy, self-esteem and social support. This study concluded that the teachers’ sense of efficacy, job stress, self-esteem, locus of control, inactive coping, active coping and social support significantly can predict their job burnout.

Antoniou et al., (2006) identified the specific sources of occupational stress and the professional burnout experienced by teachers working in secondary schools. The findings of the study are as follows: The most highly rated sources of stress referred to problems in interaction with students, lack of interest, low attainment and handling students with “difficult” behaviour. Female teachers experienced significantly higher levels of occupational stress, specifically with regard to interaction with students and colleagues, workload, students’ progress and emotional exhaustion. Younger teachers experienced higher levels of burnout, specifically in terms of emotional exhaustion and disengagement from the profession, while older teachers experienced higher levels of stress in terms of the support they feel they receive from the government.

Kahn et al., (2006) investigated whether the relationship between the contents of emotional social support and job burnout among high-school teachers is spurious because of the role of dispositional positive and negative affectivity. A national sample of 339 teachers was surveyed via a web-based procedure. Hierarchical regression analyses did not support spuriousness; emotional social support was uniquely predictive of three dimensions of burnout controlling for affectivity. As positive emotional social support increased, emotional exhaustion and cynicism decreased, and professional efficacy increased. As negative emotional social support increased, emotional exhaustion and cynicism also increased. These findings have implications for research on burnout as well as the prevention of burnout among teachers.

Chan (2007) assessed the three components of burnout. The aim was to explore and examine the contribution of the blending or integration of the triarchic abilities to the three components of teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy.
Findings suggested that the triarchic abilities, especially practical abilities, could independently contribute to teachers' sense of personal accomplishment as well as perceived self-efficacy. The interactive combination of the triarchic abilities could be most important in contributing negatively to emotional exhaustion.

2.6 STUDIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, PERSONALITY AND ADJUSTMENT NEEDS

Though there are a large number of studies on intelligence and adjustment, considerable numbers of studies are not found in relation to the concept of emotional intelligence and its relationship with adjustment. Unfortunately the researcher could not trace out any study on the relationship of emotional intelligence and creativity. Research needs to be accelerated in this regard.

2.7 STUDIES RELATED TO ADJUSTMENT NEEDS AND CREATIVITY

Singh (1975) studied that all components of creativity were positively and significantly related with emotional adjustment. Creativity was found to be positively and significantly related to adjustment in the social, emotional and educational areas. Gupta (1976). Pandit (1976 and Singh (1977) showed that the creatives were better adjusted.

Sinha and Sharma (1978) investigated that high creatives were found to be less adjusted in the home, health, and emotional areas than their lower counterparts, while Kaur (1980) found that high creatives had more problems than low creatives in the socio-psychological areas.

Kaur (1980) found no relationship between creativity and adjustment and creativity was found to be related to adjustment.

Singh (1980) found that creativity was positively and significantly related to the total social and educational aspects of adjustment but not to emotional adjustment.

The above studies provide contradictory findings regarding the creativity and adjustment. So there is a need to understand the relationship between them in clear terms and it is also necessary to know whether these two elements have any link with teacher effectiveness.
2.8 STUDIES RELATED TO BURNOUT, PERSONALITY AND ADJUSTMENT NEEDS

Nummela (1982) argues that rate of adaptation to new programs and social-emotional issues involved in teaching directly influence teacher burn-out. The author suggests that the teacher's rate of adaptation be closely monitored to prevent teacher overload.

Friesen (1988) surveyed 1,211 teachers to determine the different types of burnout possible. Emotional exhaustion burnout was predicted best by overall work stress, both depersonalization and personal accomplishment burnout were best predicted by satisfaction with status and recognition. Findings were consistent with teachers' self-reported comments on sources of each form of burnout. Teachers tended to experience different forms of burnout, and they tended to burn out for different reasons, some of which were not related directly to overall work stress.

Pamela (1989) investigated the relationships among the independent variables of the principal leadership style, the school organization, and the teacher's personality characteristics and the dependent variable of teacher burnout. Findings show that (1) leadership style was not a significant predictor of teacher burnout; (2) organizational stress factors such as work overload, support, and isolation were significant predictors of teacher burnout; and (3) personality characteristics, such as empathic self-concept, were significant predictors of teacher burnout.

Cherniss (1992) explored the relationship between degree of burnout (BO) experienced during the first year of the career and career adaptation during the next decade among 25 lawyers, high school teachers, public health nurses, and mental health professionals. Early career BO was assessed via ratings of interviews that were highly correlated with the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Subjects who were more burned-out early in their careers were less likely to change careers and more flexible in their approach to work as rated by confidants at the time of follow-up.

Fontana et al., (1993) found that a significant positive correlation emerged between stress and psychoticism. A significant negative correlation emerged between stress and extraversion, and a significant positive correlation between stress and neuroticism. Extraversion and neuroticism were the best predictors of burnout.

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Personality dimensions appear to contribute more to burnout than do the variables of either age or gender.

Mohammed (1995) conducted a study on “The effect of some personality traits, sex, and experience on teacher burnout” and examined the effect of personality traits, sex, and experience on teacher burnout and investigated the possibility of predicting the degree of teacher burnout. More experienced teachers were less burnout than less experienced ones. No statistically significant differences were found according to sex. Teachers who got higher scores in cautiousness, original thinking, personal relations, and vigor were less burned-out than those who got lower scores on such traits.

Aron et al., (2000) studied the main sources of teacher burnout and its relationship with school social climate. The results indicate that the main sources of burnout were an unsatisfactory relationship with headmasters, unsatisfactory salaries, dissatisfaction with the general facilities and physical environment, unsatisfactory teacher relationships, an unsatisfactory social environment for students, an overload of teaching and administrative assignments, perceived lack of appropriate teacher training, discipline problems related to increased violence in the school setting, and few opportunities for teacher-teacher interactions.

Daniel (2000) examined the relationship between personality and health state, focusing on burnout and physical age of the teachers and years of teaching practice or some aspects of social background. Results did not confirm the expected high burnout in this professional group; however, the authors found significantly higher score in classic phobias in the group of older teachers and significantly higher score in exhaustion. The most significant differences are in the higher score in social anxiety, which is present among teachers who are just beginning to teach and those with years of teaching practice. The emotional exhaustion indicator (EE) correlates positively with classic phobias, social anxiety, stage fright, depersonalization, neuroticism and also with greater occurrence of health problems in the gastrointestinal and cardiovascular areas.

Fang (2004) developed “Chinese Teacher Job Burnout Inventory”, which is comprised with four dimensions, which are Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, Personal Accomplishment, and Intellectual Burnout. 679 teachers from elementary
and high schools joined the survey. The results indicate that the status of male teachers’ burnout is more severe. Teachers who have worked for 11-20 years have the highest feeling of EE and DP. The support from each source has significantly positively correlated with the dimensions of Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalisation and Personal Accomplishment.

Cano-García (2005) study allows us to appreciate the important role of personality structure in combination with some of the selected contextual variables, both in the description and prediction of teacher burnout.

Xu Fuming et al., (2005) explored the relationship of job burnout with coping strategies associated with job stress, teachers’ sense of efficacy, and social support in primary and secondary teachers. The results were as follows: (1) Teachers’ job burnout was significantly correlated with their coping strategies associated with job stress, teachers’ sense of efficacy, and social support; (2) Teachers’ active coping, inactive coping, teachers’ sense of efficacy and social support significantly predicted emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and increasingly reduced the sense of accomplishment.

Kahn et al., (2006) investigated whether the relationship between the contents of emotional social support and job burnout among high-school teachers is spurious because of the role of dispositional positive and negative affectivity. A national sample of 339 teachers was surveyed via a web-based procedure. Hierarchical regression analyses did not support spuriousness; emotional social support was uniquely predictive of three dimensions of burnout controlling for affectivity. As positive emotional social support increased, emotional exhaustion and cynicism decreased, and professional efficacy increased. As negative emotional social support increased, emotional exhaustion and cynicism also increased. Commonality analyses based on the present data and data reported by K. L. Zellars and P. L. Perrewé provided additional support for the unique role of emotional social support on burnout, but these analyses suggest a greater role of affectivity than emotional social support. These findings have implications for research on burnout as well as the prevention of burnout among teachers.

The above citations of review suggest that many studies on burnout and personality are conducted abroad. Attempts have not been made by many to
understand the relationship of burnout and personality of teachers in India. This fact also necessitates the importance of conducting study on Indian teachers.

There are no sufficient number of studies which are intended to explore the relationship between personality and adjustment needs of teacher and burnout. Definitely this creates a room for taking some initiative to conduct the study related to the same.

2.9 STUDIES RELATED TO PERSONALITY NEEDS, ADJUSTMENT NEEDS AND CREATIVITY

Prasad (1986) administered a personal data questionnaire and the Vyaktitva Parakh Prashnawali developed by M. S. Saxena (1975) to 400 primary and secondary school teachers in Bhagalpur, India, to assess Subjects' home, health, emotional, social, and school adjustments. Results indicate that male and female teachers differ significantly in their general adjustment as well as in all 5 areas of adjustment. Female teachers manifested significantly lower adjustment levels than did male teachers.

Charcha (1986) studied the differential personality profiles of high and low creative teachers and to find out the personality patterns of high and low creative teachers. One hundred and five teachers of different intermediate colleges of Kanpur city were randomly selected for the sample. The creativity test (Chauhan and Tiwari, 1974) and the 16 PF (Hindi adaptation) developed by Kapoor (1965) were used to collect the data. The results showed that high creative teachers were reserved, more intelligent, emotionally stable, sober, imaginative, self-sufficient, and experimenting analytically whereas low creative teachers were outgoing, easy going, less intelligent, emotionally less stable, happy-go-lucky, practical, conventional, conservative, and group dependent.

Goyal (1984) found slight personality differences in males and females at higher levels of creativity, but a relatively stable personality pattern differentiated males and females at lower levels. Goyal also showed that intelligence was the only factor that significantly discriminated between high creative and low creative groups.
In addition to emotional intelligence and burnout, personality is one ingredient in excellence in teaching. Extroversion, introversion and neuroticism are found to be best predictors of stress levels. Personality dimension appears to contribute more to stress levels than do the variables of either age or gender (Fontana & Abouserie, 1993). There is prevalence of high levels of anxiety in a certain specific personality types (Me Neil, 1994). Teachers are significantly extroverted & anxious compared to other professions (Roy, 1995). Teacher burnout is significantly influenced by the personality characteristics of an individual (Mohammed and Derasat Nafseyah, 1995) and is aggravated by the institution and the environment in which the teacher works (Douglas, Bruce Earl, 1995).

Gupta (1988) conducted a study on intelligence, adjustment and personality needs of effective teachers in science and arts. The main objective was to correlate teacher effectiveness with intelligence, adjustment and personality needs. Major findings of the study are as follows: (i) Effective arts teachers were significantly better adjusted socially, psychologically and physically than effective science teachers; (ii) Effective science teachers had significantly more n-ach, n-abasement, n-endurance and n-aggression than effective arts teachers; (iii) Effective arts teachers has significantly more n-exhibition, n-affiliation than effective science teachers; (iv) Effective arts and science teachers did not differ significantly on n-autonomy, n-interception, n-dominance, n-succourance, n-nurturance and n-order, n-heterosexuality, n-deference and n-order; (v) Teacher effectiveness was found to be related to the age of the teachers; (vi) Teacher effectiveness was found to be related to experience of the teachers; and (vii) Teacher effectiveness was not related to gender.

Lilly (2003) found that the teacher’s personality acted as a conduit for expressing her creativity in the classroom. Teachers’ creative process was directed by their personality to choose the materials and methods of developing curriculum and instruction, and to guide them in their reflective teaching.

In India also, some of the studies have been conducted on personality and related aspects of teachers. Roy (1995) found that teachers were significantly more extroverted and anxious compared to other professions like physicians, bank managers and artists.
The researches reviewed indicate contradictory findings in respect of the significant relationship between creativity and personality adjustment. Hence there was a need to find the exact relationship between creativity and personality adjustment.

2.10. STUDIES RELATED TO PERSONALITY, ADJUSTMENT NEEDS AND TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

Bush (1942) studied that the teacher-pupil relationship was the most important factor as the cause of successful teaching. He reported surprising inconsistencies between teacher's perceptions of their report with students and actual attitude of those students towards the teachers. He concluded that, generally speaking, those teachers who knew most about their students and who were sympathetic and accepting with respect to individual abilities and needs of children had the best chance of establishing good relationship with a majority of students in their classes.

Jensen (1951) employed the technique of critical incidents to determine the behaviour patterns of good and poor teachers. He collected reports from qualified persons - supervisors, teacher educators, student teachers, public school teachers and principals, and formulated a set of critical behaviour that appeared to be associated with effective and ineffective teachers. It was indicated, for instance, that effective teachers were alert, cheerful, fair and impartial. They tended to exhibit their own mistakes. They were able to stimulate pupils by their teaching techniques. They were helpful and had no disciplinary problems. They were usually sympathetic, democratic and courteous. They were also generous in praise and blame.

Shukla’s (1956) study revealed a list of qualities which constituted good teaching personality. The qualities were intelligence, cheerfulness, sociability, politeness, sense of humour, cooperativeness, self-confidence, reasoning ability, organizing ability, teaching ability, ability to maintain discipline, ability to get on well with pupils, higher educational qualifications, scholarship, knowledge of the subject, capacity to take pain, concentration, experience in teaching, desire to cooperate with parents, proficiency in the medium of instruction, love and sympathy for pupils,
interests in extra curricular activities pleasing manners, sense of responsibility and a
good moral character.

Gage (1963) reported that 16-personality factor test was correlated with 9
different measures of teaching effectiveness. He found that good teachers were above
average and poor teacher were below average on Cattell’s source traits ‘F’ and ‘H’

Ryans (1964) in his work on the study of teachers’ characteristics, which was
a massive research work, involving approximately one hundred separate studies and
over 6000 teachers in 1700 schools and 450 school systems participated in various
phases of investigation. One of the major objectives of the study was to compare
characteristics of various groups of teachers. This objective and its corresponding
findings are related to the present study of the investigator. Hence, the investigator
highlights some major findings of Ryans on the comparative aspect of the study -
‘High’ teachers compared with ‘Low’ teachers.

There was a general tendency for ‘High’ teachers (teachers related high with
respect to overall classroom behaviour) to be extremely generous in appraisals of the
behaviour and motives of other persons; to possess strong interest in reading and
literacy affairs, to be interested in music, painting and the arts in general; to
participate in social groups; to enjoy pupils relationships, to prefer non-directive class
room procedures; to manifest superior verbal intelligence; and to be superior with
respect to emotional adjustment. On the other hand ‘Low’ teachers (teachers rated
low with respect to overall classroom behaviour) tended to be restrictive and critical
in their appraisals of other persons; to prefer activities which did not involve close
personal contacts; to express less favourable opinion of pupils, to manifest less high
verbal intelligence; to show less satisfactory emotional adjustment and to represent
older age groups.

Kaul (1972) studied the differentiating personality traits and values of 124
“popular” teachers and 100 “not popular” teachers. The main findings of the study
were: (i) The popular teachers distinguished themselves as more outgoing, intelligent,
emotionally more stable, sober, conscientious, venturesome, tough minded, shrewd,
placid, controlled and relaxed; (ii) They were effective in their work as teachers.
Sharma (1974) studied the relationship between personality factors and teaching factor test was used. He found that only six factors out of 16, which are positively correlated with teacher effectiveness. The factors were B (intelligence); L (trusting, adaptable, easy to get on with); Q₁ (experimenting, critical, liberal, analytical, free thinking); Q₂ (self sufficient); F (happy – go lucky, impulsive, lively, gay, enthusiastic); and M (practical, careful, regulated by external realities).

Gupta (1976) studied teacher effectiveness through Cattell’s 16 – personality factor questionnaire. Major finding were as follows;

i. The effective teachers differed significantly from the general population with respect to 8 personality factors out of sixteen.

ii. In comparison to average effective teachers, high effective teachers were significantly more intelligent, emotionally stable, assertive, conscientious, adventurous, tender minded, high self concept control, less suspicious, less experimenting and radical, less self sufficient, less tense and frustrated.

Singh (1976) examined the relationship between some personality variable and teaching effectiveness. The major findings of the study were: (i) The needs of superior, average and inferior teachers were clearly distinct from one another and superior teachers were distinct from the other two in cognition, dominance, autonomy and construction; (ii) The inferior teachers were distinct from the other two by their need of acquisition; (iii) The inferior teachers did not seem to possess the need of exhibition, which was most prominent in the average teachers. The other most prominent needs of the average teachers were exposition and play; (iv) Prominent needs of inferior teachers were succourance, deference and play; (v) The most prominent needs of superior teachers were nurturance, achievement and counteraction; (vi) The organisation pattern of superior teachers was generally logical and that of inferior teachers was emotional; (vii) The interpersonal relations as regards social behaviour were high in superior teachers but very low in inferior teachers; (viii) The inferior teachers lacked self-confidence in teaching and in solving problems; the average teachers had self-confidence but had adjustment problems; (ix) The superior teachers had more of imagination, while the inferior ones were weak in it; (x) The average teachers were more entangled in family problems and were more sensitive to them but the inferior teachers were less sensitive to such problems; (xi) The superior
teachers were less entangled in family problems and were able to solve them quickly; and (xi) The superior teachers used literary language more than the average and inferior teachers.

Gupta (1977) investigated into the relationship between personality characteristics, adjustment level, academic achievement and professional attitude of successful teachers. The data were collected with the following tools; Cattell 16 PFQ, Bell’s Adjustment Inventory, Minnesota Teacher Attitude Scale and a tool to measure teaching success. The main findings of the study were: (i) success in teaching was significantly related to personality factors, A, B, C, F, G, H, I, L, N, 0, Q3 and Q4; (ii) Adjustment in various fields of life, like home, health, social, emotional, total adjustment and professional attitude; (iii) The personality characteristics, adjustment-home, health, social, emotional, professional and total adjustment, attitude towards teaching and sex were found to be the determinants of success in teaching; (iv) Also it was concluded that the factors as a group were better indicators of teaching success than individual factors.

Singh (1978) studied the relationship between teachers’ personality, teaching success and behavioural changes in students. The sample comprised of 135 permanent male teachers with a minimum of three years experience in teaching and 2839 boys of Class IX of the secondary and higher secondary schools of Udaipur. The tools used were: Teaching Success Rating Scale, Information Schedule, Interview Schedule, Critical Incidents Blank, Behaviour Change Questionnaire constructed by investigator; Allport Vernon - Lindzey Study of Values 16 PF, Incomplete Sentences Blank and Rorschach Inkblot Test.

The major findings of the study were: (i) The theoretical and social values were positively related to teaching success but the economic and aesthetic values were negatively related; (ii) The highly successful teachers were assertive, venturesome, controlled, emotionally stable and trusting; (iii) The highly successful teachers were better adjusted than the average and low teachers while the average successful teachers were better adjusted than the low successful teachers; (iv) The highly successful teachers possessed better intellectual capacity and efficiency, had higher creative potential and level of aspiration, showed more introversion and better adjustment than the average and low successful teachers; (v) The highly successful
teachers were able to induce learning, develop interests and foster desirable attitudes in their students; and (vi) The unsuccessful (low successful) teachers contributed significantly to developing aversion to the subject, creating misunderstandings and fostering undesirable attitudes and producing little subject learning.

Dileep Kumar (1979) studied the personality characteristics of innovative and non-innovative teachers and concluded that innovate teachers were young, active and outgoing individuals and less depressive in mood.

Sansanwal and Gurpal Jarial (1979) examined the personality differences among high and low creative teacher-trainees. The four factors of Cattell 16 PF where the high creative teacher-trainees significantly differed from low creative group were: B+, F+, L-, Q4.

Sora (1984) studied the teachers' personality pattern and their attitudes towards teaching and related areas. B.Ed, students of training colleges constituted the population. The sample consisted of 75 in-service male teachers, 65 in-service female teachers, 50 fresher male students and 60 fresher female students. The tool used was a modified version of Eysenck's and Wilson's Personality Inventory.

The major findings were: (i) The secondary teachers were neither extrovert nor introvert and they could be tentatively described as lacking patience but possessing sociability, sobriety, carefulness, temporal thought, introspection, concentration and mental exertion, in terms of their extraversion-introversion traits; (ii) Male teachers were found o be more initiating, expressive, careful, introspective, mentally exertive and concentrated than female teachers. But there was no difference between them on extraversion, and experience had a positive effect on stoicism for either sex.

Wangoo (1984) studied the teacher personality correlates and scholastic competence as related to teacher effectiveness. The sample consisted of 500 teachers drawn from higher secondary schools of Srinagar district and its outskirts (Jammu and Kashmir State), teaching science, mathematics and english to pre-university classes. The tools used were: Cattell's 16 PF Questionnaire (adults, form - A) to assess personality. Raven's Advanced Progressive Matrices (APM - set II) to test Scholastic
Competence, Principal’s Comment Check List (PCCL) evolved by the investigator, and student’s Comment Check List (SCCL) also evolved by the investigator.

Among other things, the major finding was: Personality adjustment, democratic leadership, a high degree of intelligence, and emotional control were the main characteristics that went with teacher effectiveness.

Malik (1984) made a comparative study of personality factors and teaching environments of successful and unsuccessful science teachers in selected schools of Rajasthan.

The study was confined to 72 higher secondary schools located in seven major cities of Rajasthan. Initially 205 science teachers with a minimum experience of three years were selected. The student sample consisted of 3450 science students. In order to measure teaching success of science teachers, the investigator constructed a Science Teaching Success Rating Scale. Besides this tool, a bio-data form and a Hindi version of Learning Environment Inventory were adopted.

The major findings were: (i) Some personality factors were significantly related with teaching success which was positively correlated with intelligence, emotional stability, tender mindedness, suspiciousness, self-sufficiency, placidity and relaxedness; (ii) Successful science teachers had clarity of goals and their students; (iii) Teaching success was positively correlated with dimensions of formality, goal direction, satisfaction, democracy, diversity and cliqueness; (iv) Teaching success was negatively correlated with dimensions of friction, difficulty, apathy and disorganization; (v) The classroom atmosphere of unsuccessful science teachers was full of tension, quarrelling among students, confusion in class activities, lack of affinity with class work, and there was favouritism; (vi) Some significant correlation, either positive or negative, was found between the classroom learning environment and personality factors; and (vii) Personality, learning environment, concomitants of teaching success (physical environment, democracy, goal direction, satisfaction, formality), age and experience were some of the factor patterns associated with science teaching.

Parikh (1984) compared the personality characteristics of the most effective teachers (METs) and the less effective teachers (LETs) in secondary schools in an
Indian city. The study revealed significant differences between the two groups on various personality traits. METs and LETs in the arts and sciences did not differ from teachers in other fields regarding personality traits such as dominance, submission and between most effective teachers and least effective teachers in traits such as introversion/extraversion, emotional stability, honesty, rigidity, flexibility, and aggressiveness. METs were found to be happy-go-lucky, self-sufficient, extraverted, emotionally stable, honest, radical, and consistent regarding leadership qualities. LETs were serious, dependent, introverted, conservative, and had fewer leadership qualities.

Sathyagirirajan (1985) studied competency, personality, motivation and profession perception of college teachers. Tools used were. Teacher Competency Rating Scale developed by the investigator on the Stanford Teacher Competency Appraisal and Teacher Rating Scale, A Self-Actualising Person Inventory structured by the investigator, Cattell’s 16 PF Questionnaire, Tuckman’s Teacher Feedback From and Patted’s Teaching Profession Perception Scale.

The main findings were: (i) Teacher Competency was related to intelligence, emotional stability, conscientiousness, tendermindedness, trusted nature, placid nature, self-sufficiency and relaxedness factors of Cattell’s 16 PF Questionnaire; (ii) It was significantly related to creativity, dynamism, organised demeanor and warmth and acceptance, self-actualization and profession perception of teachers; (iii) The more competent teachers significantly differ from the less competent teachers in all the above variables; and (iv) Those variables that correlated significantly with teacher competence, inter-correlated with one another significantly.

Khanna (1985) studied personality patterns of successful (effective) high school teachers. The tools used were R.C. Deva’s Teacher Rating Scale, the Students’ Perception of their Teachers Scale by Sorenson and the 16 PF Test by Cattell. The students of different institutions of Aligarh District were asked to rate their class teachers on Deva’s Teaching Rating Scale, and Students’ Perception of their Teachers Scale. A sample of 500 teachers was taken for the study. Each teacher under study was rated by 30 students. One of the major findings of the study was the successful teachers had traits which were positively helpful and valuable for the mental health of
the individual whereas unsuccessful teachers had traits which tended to lead the 
person to a kind of maladjustment.

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

More (1988) examined the relationship between teaching effectiveness, 
teaching aptitude and personality traits. On the basis of research findings it was 
revealed that only 6 factors out of 16 factors of personality (R.B Cattell) were found 
to be positively correlated with teaching effectiveness, of which intelligence was the 
most important. Teaching effectiveness and teaching ability have positive correlation 
and the total personality of the teacher is found to be influencing effective teaching 
and ineffective teaching. The study attempted to bring an improvement in the criteria 
for admission to the teacher preparation or programme (B.Ed. training for secondary 
teachers) teachers and found that performance of teachers covered under the 
programme was better than those who were not oriented.

Thamilmani (1990) studied the teacher competency and teacher personality in 
relation to achievement of high school students in science. The sample included 450 
students of standard IX and 50-science teachers from various higher secondary 
schools in Madhurai. The tools used were: Students Ratings on Teacher Competency 
(SRTC), Students’ Rating on Teacher Personality (SRTP), Teacher Competency Self-
Appraisal Scale (TCSAS) and Students Achievement Test (SAT) which were 
developed by the researcher. Pearson’s product-moment correlation and Y test were 
used for statistical analysis. Both male and female science teachers were similar in 
their teaching competencies and personality, human relation and interpersonal skills.

Beckraan (1993) studied the personality characteristics of effective teachers. 
The purpose of this study was to compare personality characteristics, as measured by 
the Gregore Mind Style Delineator and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, of those 
teachers identified as exhibiting effective teaching performance as measured by the 
Pre-Teacher Assessment Model of Indiana University of Pennsylvania, a Principal’s 
Rating Form, a Participant’s Rating Form, and a Student’s Rating Form. The data were 
collected on fifteen adult volunteers. Each received a total teacher effectiveness score.
For the purposes of this study, effective teaching was defined in terms of planning and organizing, sensitivity, initiative, and innovativeness. Analysis of variance with post how procedures demonstrated that teacher performance was affected by the participant’s years of experience, their level of education, and the participant’s school district’s socio-economic status.

2.11 STUDIES RELATED TO CREATIVITY AND TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

De Sousa et al., (2001) found that students concentrate more than faculty on creativity when imagining how they would perform as teachers; when effectiveness is considered, the opposite applies. In addition, the lecturers selected as creative score similar to students, as to the perception of their own creativity, and similar to their peers, as to effectiveness. Creativity lies not in the teacher, nor in the student, but in the interaction between the two.

There is a real dearth of research studies on the relationship of creativity and teacher effectiveness. Some initiative steps should be taken to encourage educational researchers to make attempts to study the relationship between these two variables.

2.12 STUDIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

The studies given here under are related to the analysis of the construct of emotional intelligence and its relationship with teaching effectiveness.

Marcus (1986) conducted a study on Empathy: Aptitudinal ability of the teaching staff and found that emotional empathy directly affects the teacher-student relationship and influences professional performance.

Haskett (2003) found the construct of effective teaching continues to be elusive, and provides fertile ground for additional research. This study has attempted to go beyond that level, and to offer a starting point for continued research into the underlying emotions that differentiate the most effective faculty at institutions of higher education. Based on the results of the study, a significant link was found
between specific EQ competencies, and behaviors of effective teaching, as measured by the "Seven Principles." Based on these findings, one could conclude that it is not only the actions/behaviors taken by faculty that are important, but the underlying attitude behind the actions that has the greatest influence on effective teaching. Additional findings revealed that the EQ sub-score of General Mood was a significant determinant of Teaching Award winning faculty.

Di Fabio (2005) analysed thoroughly the construct of emotional intelligence and its relationship to occupational self-efficacy beliefs in a sample of teachers. Males score higher than females on intrapersonal dimension, while females score higher on interpersonal. Teacher self-efficacy is best explained by intrapersonal. The results enable a wider reflection on teacher emotional intelligence, delineating new perspectives of research.

2.13 STUDIES RELATED TO TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

Lamke (1951) selected poor and good teachers on the basis of composite ratings by their principals and two observers. He compared the qualities of good and poor teachers on the basis of Cattell’s 16 PF test and a paired comparison scale based on Cattell’s 20 Surface Traits. This analysis suggested that good teachers were gregarious, adventurous, frivolous, and more interested in opposite sex and also had above average emotional responses and strong artistic and sentimental interests. They were more talkative, cheerful, placid, frank, quick, polished and cool. Poor teachers, on the other hand, were likely to be more conscious, emotionally unstable, lacking artistic and sentimental interests.

Symodas (1954) observed that two extreme groups of teachers could be differentiated on three well defined bases, namely, (i) The superior teachers liked children while the inferior ones disliked children; (ii) The superior teachers were personally secure and self-assured, while the inferiors suffered from inadequacy; and (iii) The superior teachers possessed good and well integrated personality organization while the inferior teachers tended to be personally disorganized.

In Schultz and Ohilson’s (1955) study the best and poor student teachers were selected by the team judgement of student teachers supervisors. Both were made to
respond to Strong Vocational Interest Blank. It was found that the best student teachers took interest in working with people and selecting occupations which involved teaching.

Jones (1956) conducted a study using a composite rating derived from practice teaching grades, placement bureau ratings and the principals ratings. Margaret Jones divided a group of teachers into good and poor teachers. Her data gathering device consisted of numerous tests including Guilford - Zimmerman Temperament Survey Technique (general activity restraint ascendance, sociability and emotional stability). Her data seemed to indicate that some characteristics were common to good and poor teachers, while other characteristics appeared to differentiate good and poor teachers. It appeared, for example, that the degree of emotional stability was almost equal among good and poor teachers. Good teachers, however, seemed to be characterized by a preference for quickness of action and efficiency of production. They seemed to be more flexible in numerical abilities and disposition. Significant differences among good and poor teachers in academic ability were indicated. Good teachers in Jone's study were superior to poor teachers in intelligence, knowledge of subject matter and professional knowledge. Good teachers were some what more sociable and dominant than poor teachers.

Ryans (1960) based his findings on the responses of teachers to a teacher's characteristics schedule. High teachers were found to be intelligent and social with interest in music, painting, creative literacy affairs. They were generous, emotionally stable and cheerful. On the other hand, low teachers were restricted and critical in their appraisals of other persons. They were less intelligent, emotionally less-stable and represented older age-group.

Barr (1961) in his work gives a summary of 83 studies related to teacher effectiveness and its correlates. This work summarises studies and investigations undertaken and completed between 1940 and 1960. Barr found that good teachers as compared with poor teachers were more vigorous, more enthusiastic and happier, less attractive, more emotionally stable, more pleasant, sympathetic and democratic, possessed a better speaking voice and displayed a keener sense of humour.

Anand (1961) in his study suggested that the teachers of Mathematics and English were ranked higher than the teachers of Drawing. Pupils' ranks also agreed
more for qualities like expression, sympathy, loveliness, beauty, etc. In the case of principal’s ratings also the analysis of variance was worked out which suggested significant differences between principal’s rating and qualities.

Biddle and Ellena (1964) in their study included the following in teacher effectiveness as cognitive experiences (a) Training, (b) Socialization, (c) Ascribed position, [(i) Teacher preparation, (ii) Skill, (iii) Motives, (iv) Habits, and (v) Knowledge], (d) Teacher behaviour [(i) Trait (ii) Immediate effects (external and internal change in the behaviour of students)], (e) Long-term consequences (Adjustment of pupil and new ideas in life and education).

Hall (1964) in his study concluded that fully certified (trained) teachers were more effective when pupils’ achievement scores were used as an effectiveness criterion.

Comb (1964) concluded that a good teacher was primarily a unique personality. He was first and foremost person and this fact was most important in determining the thing about him. He had a competence to be sure but not a common set of competencies like everyone else.

Arisman Febel (1966) found that student teachers in an open-climate school perceived the efficiency of the student teaching situation more favourably than the student teachers in a closed climate school.

Deva (1966) in his study collected the data from 546 student teachers preparing for the B.T. Examination of Agra University and concluded that intelligence, as a predictor, was of negligible importance. Kindness, effective questioning and fluent expression were the most important characteristics of efficient teacher. Good scholarship had been found to be another important characteristic of teaching efficiency, followed closely by good use of material aid.

Sergent’s (1967) research was also supportive of these findings. He investigated that the teachers of schools having open climate rated high on teacher satisfaction as well as school effectiveness as compared to those of schools having closed climate. He found that: (i) there was a significant rank-order correlation between school openness and teacher agreement on the context of this openness; and (ii) There was no significant relationship between faculty size and school climate.
Kulandaivelu and Rao (1968) analysed the qualities of a good teacher. A checklist was developed for data collection. The sample comprised 1227 boys and 1435 girls from 6th to 11th standards of 11 schools of different types.

The major findings revealed that a good teacher as viewed by the students was one who: (i) teaches well, (ii) inspires good qualities, (iii) re-teaches a lesson when not understood, (iv) treats the students alike, (v) reprimands students for their follies and, (vi) tries to reform students of problematic type.

Debnath (1971) studied the determinants of teaching efficiency. A questionnaire and an evaluation sheet for observations of the lesson were developed in order to study the effectiveness of the lesson. Two hundred and twenty-six headmasters selected by stratified random sampling and staff members of twenty-two training colleges of West Bengal served as the sample of the survey. The major findings were: The important correlates of teaching efficiency, as found in the study, were knowledge of the subject matter, sincerity in teaching, mastery of the method of teaching, academic qualifications, mode of exposition, sympathetic attitude towards students, discipline, student’s participation, proper use of instructional aids in teaching and the art of questioning.

Debnath and Sharma (1971) reported that age was one of the significant determinants of teaching competency.

Chhaya (1974) investigated that (i) age and sex of a teacher had a significant relationship with the effectiveness of teaching, (ii) rurality or urbanity of a teacher had no significant relationship with the effectiveness of teaching. The study investigated certain psychological characteristics of effective teachers and compared them with those of ineffective teachers. The teachers were categorized as effective or ineffective based on the High School (U.P. Board, Allahabad) examination results for three years, 1968-70. Principals’ ratings and students’ ratings were used. The two groups 80 effective and 100 ineffective teachers were compared in personality adjustment, attitude towards teaching, interest in teaching, emotional stability, extraversion-introversions and authoritarian. The major findings were: (i) Effective teachers had significantly better personality adjustment and more favourable attitude towards teaching than the ineffective teachers; (ii) Effective teachers did not show significantly more interest in teaching than ineffective teachers; (iii) Effective
teachers were significantly more emotionally stable than ineffective teachers; (iv) Effective teachers were not more extraverted than ineffective teachers; and (v) Ineffective teachers were more authoritarian than effective teachers.

Nair (1974) found that age had a positive relationship with teaching ability, whereas sex, locality of the school, caste, religion were found to be not affecting the teaching ability.

Kamala Arora (1976) studied characteristic differences between effective and ineffective teachers. The major findings were: (i) Effective teachers were mostly satisfied with their job, whereas, ineffective teachers are dissatisfied or indifferent; (ii) Effective teachers derive satisfaction in job, in company of students and teaching in general, whereas, ineffective teachers do so mainly from the financial angle; (iii) Effective teachers have significantly more favourable attitude than ineffective teachers towards teaching profession, teaching personnel, friendly relations between teachers and pupils, democratic discipline and mild reformative punishment, modern teaching techniques, judicious homework and adequate teaching aids; and (iv) Effective teachers feel that enhancement of teacher’s prestige depends on teacher’s own competence and behaviour and feel teacher education necessary and beneficial.

Maheshwari (1976) explored the classroom verbal interaction pattern of effective and ineffective teachers. A sample of 200 teachers consisting of 100 effective (50 males and 50 females) and 100 ineffective (50 males and 50 females) were selected. The effective and ineffective teachers were identified on the basis of pooled criterion of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory Scores, academic qualifications, ratings of the Principals, students ratings and students results. Flanders Interaction Analysis Technique was employed for encoding and decoding the classroom verbal behaviour. All subjects were taught lesson by question-answer method. The classroom observation were encoded by the two raters. The inter-rater reliability was obtained to be 0.84. The data were analysed by using t-test.

The main findings of the study were: (i) Effective teachers used the categories of “accept feeling, praise, uses student ideas, questions student response and initiation”, whereas, ineffective teachers employed “Lecture, direction and authority” categories in the classroom behaviour; (ii) The effective teachers involved more indirect influence, student initiation, teacher response ratio and pupil steady state
ratio, whereas, ineffective teachers involved more direct teacher talk, silence or confusion, steady state ratio and non-stimulating situation in class-room behaviour; (iii) In the effective teacher’s teaching, student response and initiations were followed by teachers’ praise and accepting feelings, whereas, ineffective teachers’ teaching student response and initiation were followed by direction and authority; and (iv) The effective teachers involved more creative teaching models.

Grewal (1976) studied the intellectual and personality correlates of teacher effectiveness and found that: (i) The measure of intelligence and personality traits clustered in specific constellations with some measures of teacher effectiveness; and (ii) The predictors correlate significantly with the criterion measures of teacher effectiveness and the main predictors of teacher effectiveness were home, health, social, emotional and total adjustment, dominance, verbal and non-verbal intelligence.

Gupta (1976) attempted to predict teacher effectiveness. Teacher effectiveness was measured by a Teachers’ Rating Scale, a Pupils’ Rating Scale, a Teacher Attitude Inventory and a Teaching Aptitude Test. The teacher’s personality was measured by Cattell 16 PFQ (Hindi Version). The major findings were: (i) the High effective teachers differed significantly from the general population with respect to A+, B+, C+, F+, Q3+, L-, C-, Q1-; (ii) the low effective teachers differed significantly from the general population with respect to B-, Q3-; and (iii) in comparison to average effective teachers ‘High’ effective teachers were more intelligent (B+), emotionally stable (C+), assertive (E+), conscientious (G+), adventurous (H+), tender minded (I+), and had high self-concept control (Q3+) and they were also less suspicious (L-), less experimenting and radical (Q1) and less self-sufficient (Q2-) and less tense and frustrated (Q4-).

Goodwin Coy Ronald (1978) studied whether or not there was any relationship between junior high school teacher effectiveness and junior high school teacher personality factors. The major findings of this study were: (i) The junior high school students perceived the reserved teacher to be a better motivator of students than the out-going teacher; (ii) the more intelligent teacher to be fairer than the less intelligent teacher; (iii) the tough-minded teacher to be a better motivator of students than the tender-minded teacher; (iv) the tough-minded teacher to be more subject
matter oriented than the tender-minded teacher; and (v) the conservative teacher to be more subject matter oriented than the experimenting teacher.

Chandra and Singh (1980) studied the emotive aspects of work perceived by effective and ineffective teachers and found that, the values of social service, intellectual challenge and independence appealed to effective teachers and the emotive factors for ineffective teachers was economic return.

Mutha (1980) made an attitudinal and personality study of effective teachers. The study attempted to identify the factors attitudinal, motivational and personality which differentiated effective teachers from ineffective ones. The sample comprised of 300 secondary school teachers-180 male and 120 female randomly drawn from the secondary schools of Jodhpur. Teacher effectiveness scale was developed and standardized to form criterion groups. The criterion groups consisted of seventy-five effective ones. Job Satisfaction Questionnaire for secondary level teachers was also developed and standardized to study the attitude of teachers towards job and job-related conditions. Besides this, personal factors like sex, age, professional training, income level, nature of residence, marital status, size of family and nature of schooling were studied. Personality variables like intelligence, anxiety teaching aptitude, marital adjustment, extroversion neuroticism, job satisfaction, values, ascendance-submission and self-concept were also studied. The tools employed were Raven’s Progressive Matrices, Sinha’s Self-Analysis Form, Eysenck-Maudsley Personality Inventory, Srivastava’s Teaching Aptitude Test, Bhatnagar’s Value Scale, Singh’s Marital Adjustment Inventory, Sharma’s Self-Concept Inventory, and Allport’s Ascendance-Submission Scale. Percentage, chi-square, t-test, factor analysis and multiple correlation were employed to analyse the data.

The major findings of the study were: (i) Sex, professional training, nature of schooling and income level were significantly associated with the teacher’s effectiveness; (ii) The effective teachers had significantly higher scores on intelligence than the ineffective; (iii) The effective teachers had higher scores on anxiety than the ineffective; (iv) The effective teachers had significantly higher scores on teaching aptitude than the ineffective; (v) The effective teachers had significantly higher scores on neuroticism than the ineffective; (vi) The effective teachers had significantly higher scores on theoretical value than the ineffective; (vii) The
ineffective teachers had significantly higher scores on political value than the effective; (viii) The effective teachers had significantly higher scores on job satisfaction than the ineffective; (ix) The set of personality variables-ascendance-submission, anxiety, marital adjustment, extroversion, neuroticism, job satisfaction and teaching attitude significantly predicted the teacher’s effectiveness; and (x) Personality variables-ascendance-submission, anxiety, marital adjustment, extroversion, neuroticism, job satisfaction, teaching aptitude, real-self-ideal self-discrepancy, religious value, social value, theoretical value, aesthetic value, economic value, political value and intelligence significantly predicted the teacher’s effectiveness.

Balanchandran (1981) studied teaching effectiveness and student evaluation of teaching. The sample consisted of the teachers who taught at the undergraduate level in the colleges of Madras University area offering general academic courses and the students who took these courses. A tool to evaluate college teachers was developed by the investigator was used. The major findings of the study were: (i) The evaluative feedback based on students’ rating helped teachers significantly improve their teaching effectiveness irrespective of sex or subject of teachers; (ii) Students’ rating and self-rating of teaching effectiveness were positively and significantly related but the self-rating was significantly higher than the students’ rating; (iii) The factors of teaching effectiveness identified were: subject mastery and intellectual kindling, responsiveness, integrity and communicating ability, commitment to teaching, impartiality, motivating, concern for the student’s progress and informal academic help; and (iv) The lowest performance of teachers, on an average, was with respect to encouraging discussion in the class and the best was with respect to punctuality.

Khajuria (1981) studied the typical patterns of classroom verbal behaviour exhibited by successful teachers of language and science. Initially, 250 secondary school teachers teaching language and science were selected randomly, finally 72 teachers were selected. The tools used were: Marks Sheets of students, Headmasters Rating of Teachers Success and Pupil’s Rating of Teacher Success. The main findings of the study were: (i) The science teachers exhibited patterns of asking questions, giving directions, soliciting initiating pupils’ talk, sustained teacher initiated pupil talk, flexibility and teacher talk according to normative expectations; (ii) For the language teachers the patterns of higher proportion of student talk to teacher talk, the
flexibility, content cross and total teacher were found to be of normative expectations; and (iii) Science teachers resorted more to asking questions and lecturing than the language teachers.

Gupta and Swaroop (1981) in their study of teacher effectiveness concluded that: (i) The school educational climate differed from open to closed from one type of school to another; (ii) The personality factors of effective teachers differed significantly from one type of school - organizational climate to another; (iii) Only five factors - B, E, Q., F, Q₂ were highly positive and were related to teaching effectiveness while six factors I, Q₁, 0, M, N and Q₂ had high negative correlation; and (iv) Factors B, H, 0, Q₄ were very important factors for teaching effectiveness.

Passi, B. K. and Sharma (1982) in a study of teaching competency of secondary school teachers (Dept, of Edu., Indore, p. 770) found that the male and female language teachers did not differ in their teaching competency.

Doyle (1985) found that effective teachers adjust their teaching to fit the needs of different students and the demands of different instructional goals, topics and methods.

Subbarayan (1985) found no significant influence of sex of teacher on teacher effectiveness.

Padmanabhaiah (1986) observed that age of the teachers significantly influenced the level of the teacher effectiveness.

Rosenholtz (1986) found that inexperienced teachers (those with less than three years of experience) are typically less effective than more senior teachers. The benefits of experience appear to level off after about five years, especially in non-collegial work setting. A possible cause of this curvilinear trend inexperience effects is that older teachers do not always continue to grow and may grow tired in their jobs. Furthermore, the benefits of experience may interact with educational opportunities. Veteran teachers in settings that emphasise continual learning and collaboration continue to improve their performance Rosenholtz (1984). Similarly, very well prepared beginning teachers can be highly effective.
Mohapatra (1987) found that there is a significant influence of sex on teacher effectiveness.

Rao, P. T. (1987) conducted a study on classroom teaching of effective science teacher. The main objective of the study was to identify effective science teachers on the basis of selected criteria findings indicate that only by a few effective teachers there was no concurrence in interaction patterns observed with teachers.

Veeraraghavan and Bhattacharya (1989) studied the school achievement, student motivation and teacher effectiveness in different types of schools. Four types of schools were taken as a sample, viz. Public Schools, Missionary Schools, Government - run Urban Schools, Government - run Rural Schools. The tools used were the Achievement Motivation Scale by Rao, and the Teacher Effectiveness Scale by Arora. A rank order correlation was used to treat the data. Among other things, the study revealed that the teacher effectiveness was positively correlated with school achievement.

Singh, Daljit (1991) studied the relationship of teaching effectiveness with intelligence and creativity among male and female teachers. He also attempted to predict the extent of effect of creativity and intelligence on teaching effectiveness. He found that among the male and female teachers, teaching effectiveness was positively related with fluency, flexibility, originality, composite creativity and intelligence. The study also showed that creativity and intelligence taken jointly were considered better predictors of teaching effectiveness taken separately.

Biswas and De (1995) in their study on teacher effectiveness found the following (i) male and female teachers differed significantly on teacher effectiveness and (ii) the female teacher were comparatively much effective than their counterparts.

Sanders and Rivers (1996) found that students who are assigned to several ineffective teachers in a row have significantly lower achievement and gains in achievement than those who are assigned to several highly effective teachers in sequence.

Indira (1997) in her study observed: (i) There was no significant difference between male and female teachers in their teacher effectiveness (ii) There was significant difference in the teacher effectiveness of two groups of lecturers i.e.,
below 35 years and above 35 years of age (iii) Subject of teacher was not an influencing factor for teacher effectiveness.(iv) Lecturers working in degree colleges seemed to be more effective than the lecturers working in junior colleges.(v) Type of the college had nothing to do with the teaching effectiveness of lecturers.(vi) There was no significant difference between the two groups of lecturers working under different managements i.e., Government and private regarding teacher effectiveness.

Pradhan (1997) found that there is no significant difference between teacher effectiveness of male and female secondary school teachers.

Aggarwal (1998) conducted a study on teaching efficiency on a sample of female teachers of primary school and concluded that more effective teachers possess emotional problems.

Yeung et al., (1998) conducted a study on student teachers’ personal construction of teacher efficacy. This study employed the repertory grid technique to investigate how a sample of 27 student teachers in Hong Kong developed a personal sense of teaching efficacy. The analysis indicated that third year students’ perceptions were more homogeneous than were those of first year students. The results also indicated that teaching efficacy was viewed in terms of the dimension of concern for instructional participation and learning needs of students, communication and relationships with students, academic knowledge and teaching skills, lesson preparation, management of class discipline, teaching success, teaching commitment and a sense of self-confidence. Experiences of teaching practice, electives, students, teaching practice supervisor (electives) were the major sources for the development of a sense of teaching efficacy.

Wesley (1998) in the study of high school teacher outlines 11 nontraditional expectations for new teachers. Teachers should empathize with students; create partnerships with school community members; account to others; embrace adversity; take the long view; demonstrate competency and Merest in others; keep believing in students; maintain high performance goals; share reflections with colleagues; admit and rectify mistakes and wait patiently for results.

It may be concluded from the above studies that teacher effectiveness and emotional intelligence is an important and new area of research. The research work
reviewed has opened up new vistas in educational research. The present study is not just another piece of research but it is a modest effort to throw more light on the concept of emotional intelligence and teacher effectiveness along with an attempt to study the interrelationship of the variables of the study such as burnout, personality and adjustment needs and creativity with teacher effectiveness.

2.14 STUDIES RELATED TO BURNOUT OF TEACHERS IN RELATION TO SOME DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

A few studies have been undertaken to explore association between teaching experience and burnout of teachers.

Westerhouse (1979) indicated that significant relationship was not observed between teaching experience and burnout.

Schwab (1981) noted that gender difference existed in teachers' perceptions of depersonalization and personal accomplishment scales of burnout.

Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) also observed that youngers had greater feeling of burnout as compared for older teachers.

Grover (1983) did not notice any statistical significant difference in burnout between male and female primary school teachers.

Federman (1984) on the other hand found no significant differences were detected in degree of burnout on account of variation in age.

Gupta and Dan (1990) found that women school teachers experienced more emotional exhaustion than men school teachers.

Mishra (1992) pointed that teachers with less teaching experience felt more exhaustion, which was reverse in the case of high experience teachers.

Robeiro and Bhargava (1994) recorded that teachers with less experience scored higher on depersonalization than those longer in experience. They also observed that female teachers had higher level of burnout than male teachers. However, male teachers scored higher on depersonalization than female teachers.
They conducted a study regarding the relationship of age of teachers and burnout and found that younger teachers were more unfeeling and impersonal than older ones.

Rama (1997) found that female teachers were more burnout than male teachers. It was also found that highly experienced teachers were less burnout than teachers with low teaching experience.

Thus, it may be noted that the results with reference to the relationship between gender, age and teaching experience and burnout are of mixed type. Some show significant, whereas others show no relationship between these variables and teacher burnout. Further, at school level, there is a scarcity of studies on teacher burnout in relation to variables under reference.

2.15 SYNTHESIS OF THE REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

Synthesis of the Studies on Emotional Intelligence

Goleman (1995a, 1998a, b) claims that emotional intelligence will account of success at level higher than \( r = 0.45 \) at home, at school and at work. Studies in corporate world have shown that “intelligence quotient gets you hired, but emotional intelligence gets you promoted”. Canadian HR reporter (1998) provides concrete evidence on “EQ beats IQ in Work Place” based on the studies conducted by different researchers, Stein said “emotional intelligence is significantly and highly correlated with job performance, while cognitive intelligence has shown low and insignificant correlation with performance in the workplace”. Towers et al., (2001) found that gifted teaching comprises interpersonal intelligence and wisdom. Gifted teachers understand learners’ perspectives, link thought and action, and explore cross-cultural expressions. According to Karthikeyan (2001) emotional intelligence which is measured by emotional quotient, has its scope in recruitment, retention and employee development. Goleman (1995) showed that IQ contributes about 20 percent to the factors that determine life success, and the remaining 80 percent is predicted by emotional intelligence. At work group level, emotional intelligence is manifested in harmonious relationships among workers. Tyagi (2003) revealed that there was a total lack of emotional competencies among higher secondary school teachers such as to
tackle frustrations, to delay gratification, communication of emotions and inter- personal relationships.

**Syntheses of research studies on Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Effectiveness**

Gupta (1976) & Singh (1978) Malik (1984) Satyagirirajan (1985) Bass (1961) found that average effective teachers were emotionally stable. Wangoo (1984) found that emotional control was the main characteristic of teacher effectiveness. Lamke (1951) found that poor teachers are emotionally instable but. Jones (1956) found that the degree of emotional stability was almost equal among good and poor teachers. Balachandran observed that motivation is one of the factors that effect teaching effectiveness. Aggarwal (1998) concluded that more effective teachers posses emotional problems. Madden 2000 found the teacher effectiveness is related to teacher emotions.

**Syntheses of research studies on Personality and Teacher Effectiveness**

Gage (1963) observed that good teachers were above average and poor teachers are below average on Cattell’s source traits ‘P’ and ‘H’. Sharma (1974) found that six factors out of 16 are positively related with teacher effectiveness. Gupta (1976) conclude that the effective teachers differed significantly with respect to & personality factors out of sixteen. Gupta (1977) studied the relationship between personality characteristics of successful teachers and found that success in teaching was significantly related to personality factors and personality characteristics was found to be the determinants of success in teachings. Sora (1984) found that the secondary teachers were neither extrovert nor introvert. Wangoo (1984) conclude that personality adjustment was the main characteristics that went with teacher effectiveness. Malik (1984), in his study, found that some personality factors were significantly related with teaching success. Parikh’s (1984) study revealed that More Effective Teachers and Less Effective Teachers in the sciences did not differ regarding personality traits. METs were found to be extroverted and LETs were introverted. More (1988) found that the total personality of the teacher is found to be influencing factor of effective teaching and in effective teaching. Symodas (1954) observed that the superior teachers possessed good and well integrated personality while the inferior teachers tended to be personally disorganized. Comb (1964) found
that effective teachers had significantly better personality adjustment than the ineffective teachers & further he found that effective teachers were not more extraverted than in-effective teachers. Mutha’s findings reveal that the effective teachers had significantly higher scores on neuroticism than the ineffective. He also found that personality variable extroversion and neuroticism significantly predicted the teacher effectiveness. Gupta & Swaroop (1981) concluded that the personality factors were very imp factors for teaching effectiveness. Gupta (1988) in his attempt to correlate teacher effectiveness with adjustment his personality needs found that effective science teachers had significantly more adjustment needs. Singh (1978) found that highly successful teachers showed better adjustment than average and low successful teachers. Khanna (1985) observed that successful teachers had traits which lead them to adjustment and unsuccessful teachers had traits which tended to lead them to a kind of maladjustment. Jones (1956) found that good teachers were somewhat more sociable and dominant than poor teachers. Chayya (1974) found that effective teachers had significantly better adjustment. Grewal (1976) found that the main predictors of teacher effectiveness were health, social, emotional and total adjustment. Singh (1991) concluded that creativity was considered better predictor of teaching effectiveness.

Pamela (1989) found that personality characteristics were significant predictors of burnout. Fountana et al., (1993) found that extraversion and neuroticism were the best predictors of burnout. Personality dimensions appear to contribute more to burnout than do the variables of either age or gender.

Syntheses of research studies on Gender & Emotional intelligence

Di Fabio (2005) found that males score higher than females on intrapersonal dimension, while females score higher on interpersonal & showed that the teacher self – efficiency is best explained by intrapersonal. Tyagi’s (2003) study revealed that male and female teachers do not differ in respect of their level of emotional intelligence.

Syntheses of research studies on Gender & Burn out

Quigley (1987) in his study showed that the gender of the coaches was related to level of burnout. Burke (1996) found that among male subjects, scores were higher
on depersonalization and emotional exhaustion than for female subjects. Walker’s (1997) study indicated that females had more emotional exhaustion than males. Lau (2002) showed that all teachers burnout aspects were related to teachers demographic variables. Smith (2003) examined the burnout levels of secondary school teachers and found that there was no significant relationship between burnout and age. Mabry (2006) showed that there was no significant difference between teacher burnout and gender. Schwab (1981) noted that gender difference existed in teachers’ perceptions of depersonalization and personal accomplishment seals of burnout. Grover (1983) did not notice any statistical difference in burnout between male and female primary school teachers. Gupta & Dan (1990) found that women school teachers experienced more emotional exhaustion than men school teachers. Robeiro & Bhargava (1994) observed that female teachers had higher level of burnout than male teachers. However, male teachers scored higher on depersonalization than female teachers. Sora (1984) found that there was no difference between male and female teachers on extraversion.

**Syntheses of research studies on Gender & adjustment**

Prasad (1986) found that male and female teachers differ significantly in their general adjustment as well as in all five areas of adjustment. Female teachers manifested significantly lower adjustment levels than did male teachers.

**Syntheses of research studies on Gender & teacher effectiveness**

Thamilmani (1990) observed that both male and female science teachers were similar in their teaching effectiveness. Chayya (1974) investigated that sex of a teacher had a significant relationship with the effectiveness of teaching. Mutha (1980) found that sex was significantly associated with the teachers’ effectiveness. Passi and Sharma (1982) found that the male and female language teachers did not differ in their teaching competency. Subbarayan (1985) found no significant influence of sex of teacher on teacher effectiveness. Mohapatra (1987) found that there is a significant influence of sex on teacher effectiveness. Indira and Pradhan (1997) observed that there was no significant difference between male and female teachers in their teacher effectiveness. Biswas and De (1995) in their study found that male and female teachers differed significantly on teacher effectiveness and the female teacher were comparatively much effective that their counterparts.
**Syntheses of research studies on Subjects of Teaching And Teacher Effectiveness**

Indira (1997) in her study observed that the subject of teacher was not an influencing factor for teacher effectiveness. Hock (1988) showed that there were no differences in susceptibility to burnout due to subject taught, years of experience and age.

**Syntheses of research studies on Experience and Burnout**

Hock (1988) found no difference in susceptibility to burnout done to demographic variables such as age, subjects taught, or years of experience. Salas (2005) showed that the young teachers report higher scores in depersonalization burnout than the order ones. Ito (2000) examined the effects of some factors on burnout among teachers. A comparison of new and experienced teachers showed that the new ones felt lower personal accomplishment. Antonion et al., (2006) found that younger teachers experienced higher levels of burnouts, specifically in terms of emotional exhaustion. Mohammed (1995) found that more experienced teachers were less burnout than less experienced ones. Walker (1997) found that teachers who were younger than 45 years had more emotional exhaustion and depersonalization than teachers older than 45. Ito (2000) showed that new teachers felt lower personal accomplishment. Mohammed (1995) found that more experienced teachers were less burnout than less experienced teachers. Fang’s (2004) study indicated that the teachers who have worked for 11 – 20 years the higher feeling of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Wasterhouse (1979) indicated that significant relationship was not observed between teaching experience and burnout. Schwab & Iwanicki (1982) observed that younger teachers had greater feelings of burnout as compared for order teachers. Mishrsla (1992) pointed that teachers with less teaching experience felt more exhaustion, which was reverse in the case of high experience teachers. Robeiro and Bhargava (1994) recorded that teachers with less experience scored higher on depersonalization than those longer in experience.

**Syntheses of research studies on Experience and teacher effectiveness**

Beckran (1993) demonstrated that teacher performance was affected by the years of experience. Padmanabhaiah (1986) observed that age of the teachers significantly influenced the level of the teacher effectiveness. Rosenholtz (1986)
found that inexperienced teachers are typically less effective than more senior teachers.

**Syntheses of research studies on Emotional Intelligence and burnout**

You et al., (1998) studied emotional intelligence as a mediator to experience burnout in teaching and found that subjects who better dealt with emotional problems experienced less burnout caused by work. Mendes (2003) found that in the high emotional exhaustion a positive correlation was found between the number of years of his and identifying emotions. With more experience, teachers are better at identifying emotions. Williams (1989) found that emotional empathy was significantly positively correlated with both emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment, where as emotional exhaustion was also positively related to depersonalization. Bakker et. al., (2000) found that the prevalence of burnout among subjects colleagues was most strongly related to individual teachers burnout when the teachers were highly susceptible to the emotions of others. Nina’s (2005) study confirmed an essential role of emotional intelligence in preventing employees of human services from burnout. Chan (2006) suggested that emotional exhaustion, influenced by emotional appraisal and positive regulation was causally prior to depersonalization and personal accomplishment, but personal accomplishment could develop relatively independently from the burnout components through the influence of positive utilization of emotions. Collier (1998) showed that the teachers social skills variable to be significantly related negatively to burnout. Kahn et al., concluded that as positive emotional support increased emotional exhaustion decreased and as negative emotional support increased, emotional exhaustion decreased.

**Syntheses of research studies on Adjustment and creativity**

Singh (1975) studied that all components of creativity were positively and significantly related with emotional adjustment. Creativity was found to be positively related to adjustment in the social and educational areas. Pandit (1976) and singh (1977) showed that creative’s were better adjusted. Sinha & Sharma (1978) investigated that high creative’s were found to be less adjusted in the house, health, and emotional areas than their lower counterparts. Kaur (1980) found that high creatives had more problems than low creatives in the socio – psychological areas. Singh (1980) found that creativity was positively related to the total social and
educational aspects and adjustment but not to emotional adjustment. Gupta (1976) found that creativity was positively and significantly related to adjustment in the social, emotional and educational areas.

2.16 CONCLUSION

Review of the studies cited above leads us to the following conclusions:

An analysis of comparative studies reveals that 'effective' teachers are good at interpersonal and intrapersonal competencies. Effective teachers significantly differ from ineffective teachers only in a few personality factors / dimensions or any of the correlates like emotional intelligence, level of burnout, personality needs, and adjustment needs. Further the correlates which discriminate between 'effective' teachers and non-effective teachers are different in different studies. This is due to the different criterion employed to rate teaching and the different instrument employed to assess its correlates. Further the populations studied do not resemble one another. The only factor which seems to be characteristics of 'effective' teacher in most of such studies is 'emotional stability' which is found as a common element in emotional intelligence, burnout, personality and adjustment.

Factors like knowledge of subject matter, professional knowledge, sense of humour, higher academic qualifications, sincerity in teaching, mastery of the methods of teaching which function as correlates in certain studies are considered to be components of teacher effectiveness. There is no distinct line of demarcation between teacher effectiveness and its correlates so far as certain facts are concerned. If they exchange places in different studies, then different criterion emerge and hence different findings. A critical appraisal of studies revealed that there are some gaps on the relationship of emotional intelligence, professional burnout, personality, adjustment creativity with teaching effectiveness of teachers. Hence there is a need to bring together greater number of factors influencing teaching effectiveness of teachers and to study their interaction effects.

Efforts are not made to understand the teaching effectiveness in relation to the subjects the teachers teach and the type of school in which they work.

Thus, it may be noted that the results with reference to the relationship between gender, age and teaching experience and burnout are of mixed type. Some
show significant, whereas others show no relationship between these variables and teacher burnout. Further, at secondary school level, there is a scarcity of studies on teacher burnout in relation to variables under reference in this study.

As it is evident in the review of related literature that much of the previous investigations focused on the teacher effectiveness in relation to cognitive intelligence, personality, creativity and communication styles of the teacher. But now, it is assumed that the teacher effectiveness has its own relationship with emotional intelligence, burnout, and personality and adjustment needs of the teacher. So there is a need to find out the impact of emotional intelligence, burnout and other variables such as personality needs and adjustment needs and also creativity on teacher effectiveness of science teachers. In turn these variables help in fostering teacher effectiveness of science teachers. It is very important that there is an attention required on the part of the teachers about their teaching effectiveness and their emotional intelligence. Hence the present study is undertaken with a view to identify effective and non-effective science teachers in terms of their EI, burnout levels, personality and adjustment needs and their creativity.

It is also illuminating to consider how many of our science teachers channelise their emotional potentialities, personality traits, creative energy towards becoming better teachers. Moreover most of the studies in this category have attempted at replicating the earlier studies taking different samples and by including different subjects at various levels. We cannot find a suitable research conducted taking science teachers from state and central government secondary schools, both male and female. So there is a necessity to identify the association of teacher effectiveness with emotional intelligence, burnout levels, personality needs, adjustment needs and creativity. The optimal teacher effectiveness could be expected by the interaction effects of all the above variables.

The investigator hopes that the findings of the study would help the educational system in taking up measures for enhancing the teacher effectiveness along with the improvement of emotional intelligence of science teachers. The present study has high significant importance in the improvement of quality of teachers and the total academic performance of the students in science.