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CHAPTER - 1
INTRODUCTION

“A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence stops”

1.1) Teachers in Present Scenario
In this new era of information technology and economic globalization, knowledge becomes the driving force of nearly all types of economic, social, and political developments at different levels of country. In this context and in facing up the challenges in the new century, education in general and school education in particular is the key for the successful future that can build up the necessary knowledge forces among young generations and citizens for rapid local and global developments in different areas. Technological advancements and innovations have changed the scenario. Rapid and pervasive integration of information technologies in our lives have prompted an increase into their potential role in education system providing students with many alternatives of acquiring knowledge of subject matter content besides solely dependent on their teachers. As a result, schools and teachers have to face numerous new changes, uncertainties and challenges rising from their internal and external environments and increased demands from the society. They are expected to perform a wide range of new functions to support the rapid developments in individuals, local communities, societies and international relations.

Figure 1.1: Roles of 21st century teacher.
Traditionally teachers are perceived mainly as the knowledge providers to students. But now, teachers are expected to assume a new major role as a facilitator in supporting students’ learning process and developing students’ multiple intelligences and lifelong learning abilities. Owing to rapid advancements in teaching methods, teachers also need to put extra efforts besides giving formal instruction to students. In this regard, the views of Pang (2000), Elliot and Morris (2001) are quite acceptable. They emphasized that teachers themselves also need to be a lifelong learner; be able to articulate their teaching with the new paradigm of learning; be adaptive and flexible in dealing with a new brand of students comprising different age groups of diverse ethnicity and with a wide range of prior knowledge and background; and be conversant with the new technologies which are developing rapidly at an ever increasing speed. Moreover, teachers are also expected to network and work with peer teachers, students, parents, other experts and the community so that teaching and learning can extend beyond the boundaries of one class or one school to an entire network of local and international leaders. In the present scenario, teachers’ work is complex, and located in contexts that are both demanding (of knowledge, classroom management and teaching skills) and emotionally and intellectually challenging (Day, 2004, p.13). Day (2004, p.13) further advocated that teachers are confronted in their work by a number of external imperatives that lead to contradictory demands: on the one hand, there is growing recognition of the importance to the economy, to life-long education, and to the society, of teamwork and cooperation, tolerance and mutual understanding. On the other hand there is an increase in alienation of students from formal schooling increasing emphasis on competition and material values and growing inequalities, deepening social differences and breakdown in social cohesion (UNESCO, 1996; Bentley, 1998). Owing to extreme pressures of the multitasks and contradictory demands, there is a possibility that teachers may feel high amount of stress, emotional imbalances and even they may feel maladjusted which ultimately affect their performance. Therefore it is very important for a teacher to be effective enough in coping with these circumstances and to maintain their efficiency in extreme pressures of their strenuous jobs. This could be achieved by integrating professional as well as personal skills and then applying them in teaching learning process thereby improving the quality of education.
One of the most desired goals for this millennium is to provide quality education to all the students that depend entirely on the quality and efficiency of teachers. For achieving this goal, teachers must focus on the development of educational practices and programs which will provide all students with the opportunity to develop the skills and knowledge necessary to contribute to a global economy and a diverse ever changing world society. Also they need to create environments in their classrooms that support and encourage success for all students, not just a few (Hunt et al., 2009).

In order to discharge the new and challenging roles in the new millennium, a teacher should be effective in organising teaching and learning activities and maintaining a congenial classroom climate for leading the students to the threshold of their minds for reaching the desirable learning outcomes. Bobby Coles (2012) stated “an effective teacher has a unique skill-set that allows them to gain the trust and respect of their students, and then to use that to their advantage in the quest to motivate their students to achieve beyond their wildest imagination.” Thus the problem of finding required number of teachers for child population explosion all over the country is a pressing one. But a more urgent necessity is that of finding, recruiting and retaining the

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**Figure 1.2: Consequences of extreme workload.**

- Emotional Imbalances
- High Levels of Stress
- Job Maladjustment
effective teachers in schools and improvement of teaching effectiveness of school teachers.

1.2) Teaching Effectiveness

Teaching effectiveness has been the focus of many in the field of education in an attempt to come up with quality education. Quality learning is related to good teaching or teaching effectiveness. The term teaching effectiveness seems to imply effectiveness of teaching within the unit, whereas teacher effectiveness addresses individual teacher’s performance. For the present study, the terms teaching effectiveness and teacher effectiveness are used interchangeably because teachers’ thoughts and actions do not occur in a vacuum.

Teacher effectiveness means perfection or the optimum level of efficiency and productivity on the part of teacher. It refers to the height of learning and maturity in the life span of a teacher. Presently teachers are supposed to maintain the high and relevant standards for academic success besides also maintaining student centred, achievement oriented classroom environments. To accomplish this, a combination of both subject matter knowledge and an understanding of the nature of effective teaching itself can provide a solid foundation for effectiveness. In education systems locally and nationally, the quest to identify teacher effectiveness, as the primary influence on student outcomes has intensified greatly because the teacher is, after all, the point of contact between the educational system and the pupil; the impact of any educational programme or innovation on the pupil operates through the pupil’s teacher. It is therefore quite accurate to say that a school’s effectiveness depends directly on the effectiveness of its teachers.

Teacher effectiveness is an area of research which is concerned with relationships between the characteristics of teachers, teaching acts, and their effects on the educational outcomes of classroom teaching. Dash (2009) tried to clarify teaching effectiveness as the ability of a teacher to create a meeting and an interaction between the physical, intellectual and psychological interests of the students and some given subject matter contents. However a teacher’s influence is far reaching so it is challenging to define what outcomes might show effectiveness and how to measure those outcomes. According to Lowman (1995), teaching effectiveness is the product of two dimensions: The first is the instructor’s ability to stimulate intellectual
excitement in the classroom. Fundamental to this ability is the clarity of lectures and their emotional impact on students, as well as the instructor's knowledge, organization and flexibility. An effective instructor is one who promotes positive student emotions by fostering critical thinking and creativity, showing sensitivity to students' feelings about the course material, and promoting an atmosphere of respect.

An overview of recent literature on teaching effectiveness reveals that there is no standard and commonly agreed upon definition or list of effective teaching qualities. Throughout the educational and psychological literature, different definitions of teaching effectiveness / teacher effectiveness abound (Chickering & Gamsor, 1991; Stones, 1992; Lowman, 1995; Robertson, 1996; Kyriacou, 1998; Borich, 2000; Hay Mc Ber, 2000; Witcher et al., 2001; Anderson, 2004; Day, 2004). Donald M. Medley in the Encyclopaedia of Educational Research by Mitzel (1982, p.1899) identified nine important types of variables to be involved in the definition of teacher effectiveness. These are depicted in a schematic manner in Figure 1.3. The five cells in the top row define variables which are to some extent are controlled by the teacher. The four cells in the second row define four additional types of variables that also affect the outcomes of teaching and that are not controlled by the teacher. The arrows in the figure indicate the flow of influence from one variable to the next. From the figure it is inferred that all of the other cells shown affect pupil learning outcomes directly or indirectly. So the effectiveness of a teacher depends, then on atleast eight different kinds of variables. This model derives directly from Mitzel’s model (1960). Pre-existing teacher characteristics, teacher training and teacher competencies comprise the Presage criteria; his Process criteria included teacher performance and pupil learning experiences while pupil learning outcomes comprised his Product criteria. The remaining variables i.e. external context, internal context and individual pupil characteristics were included in his Environmental variables later known as Context variables.
Figure 1.3: The structure of teacher effectiveness.

On the basis of this model, it can be said that no matter whether teaching effectiveness be defined in terms of some qualities such as knowledge and organization of subject matter, instructional skills and personality characteristics, or in terms of students’ achievement or on the basis of ratings of supervisors, administrators and other interested high stakeholders, one can assess the area of teacher effectiveness in terms any of the four basic variables or criteria as given by Mitzel (1960). Later Rosenshine and Furst (1971) tried to distinguish effective teachers from ineffective ones on the basis of 10 variables: 1) Clarity of teacher’s presentation. 2) Enthusiasm of the teachers. 3) Variety of activities during the lesson. 4) Task oriented and business like behaviour in the classroom. 5) Content covered by the class. 6) The teachers’ acknowledgement and encouragement of students’ ideas during discussion. 7) Criticism of the student (negatively related to achievement). 8) Use of structuring comments at the start and during the lesson. 9) Use of various types of questions. 10) Probing of students’ responses by the teacher. Similarly Marsh (1983) identified nine factors related to teacher effectiveness: learning / value, instructor enthusiasm, organization clarity, group interaction, individual rapport, breadth of coverage, examinations / grading, assignments / readings, and workload.
difficulty. However, Vogt (1984) related effective teaching to the ability to provide instruction to different students of different abilities while incorporating instructional objectives and assessing the effective learning mode of the students. Teaching effectiveness generally includes teachers’ classroom behaviour, teachers’ subject knowledge and style of instruction, and teachers’ beliefs on pupil learning (Borich, 2000; Wray, Medwell, Fox & Poulson , 2000; Sullivan, 2001; Yates & Yates, 1990; Wong & Wong, 2010).

The idea of effective teacher varies from person to person and as a result there are different strategies for assessing the effectiveness of teachers. Some of the common strategies used for assessing teaching effectiveness include students’ ratings, classroom observations, principals’ ratings, self evaluation, instructional artifacts, value added models, portfolios and sometimes peer ratings; each having its own advantages and disadvantages. Assessment of teachers’ effectiveness is an important approach for determining the characteristics of effective teachers on one hand and providing feedback useful for the improvement of teaching practice. In discussing the attributes of effective teachers, level of degrees, type of certification, years of experience, completion of specific coursework, quality of preparation program, and teachers’ own test scores have been researched thoroughly and are found to effect teacher effectiveness in some sources but not in others (Rice, 2003; Wayne & Youngs, 2003; Goldhaber & Anthony, 2004). All these are easily measurable attributes and are not complete enough in predicting the teaching effectiveness of teachers. Performance of teachers is also contingent upon the intangibles i.e. positive personality traits. Some of the intangibles studied are caring, respect, motivation, perseverance, enthusiasm, leadership and dedication (Goldhaber, 2002; Brown, Morehead & Smith, 2008; Farr, 2010; Goodwin, 2010). Intangibles are the positive personality traits. Becky Meyers in her research brief studied grit, optimistic disposition, and life satisfaction and leadership intangibles as positive predictors of teacher effectiveness. Teachers’ performance is known to be related to teachers’ effectiveness (Medly & Shannon, 1994) and is dependent on the way a teacher behaves in the classroom. Teacher’s behaviour is guided by their personality structure and their personal traits and as a result it has been observed by many research evidences that personality and personal traits are chief effective teacher qualities. According to Kyriacou (2005, p.5) five most important qualities of a good teacher
most frequently reported were: 1) personality and will, 2) intelligence, 3) sympathy and tact, 4) open mindedness and 5) a sense of humour. Further Rubio (2009) corroborated that an effective teacher has been considered, sometimes, as a perfectionist, encouraging, approachable and caring, other times as intelligent, but above all, as enthusiastic, funny, clever, affective and understanding, open, and with a relaxed style while teaching.

Definitions of the good teacher have evolved over more than half a century from the initial trait paradigm toward behaviourism and cognitivism (Waxman & Walberg, 1991; Lowyck, 1994; Calderhead, 1996; Shulman, 2004). On the basis of these, there were two views of quality teaching; one is the personality view including personal human qualities such as: intelligence, self-confidence, fairness, respect, caring, sensitivity, flexibility, enjoyment of students, open-mindedness, friendliness, providing individual attention, kindness, enthusiasm, having a good sense of humour, making learning interesting, being serious, being hospitable towards students, teaching style, trust, credibility, and even teacher attractiveness and height (Walsh & Maffei in Smith et al., 1994; Beishuizen et al., 2001). And the other is ability view according to which teaching effectiveness can be defined in terms of a surfeit of skills and behaviours (efficient, reflective, insightful), knowledge (content, pedagogical, social, tacit knowledge), and experience of good teachers (House, 1991; Shulman in Sternberg & Horvath, 1995; Wubbels et al., 1997; Hay McBer, 2000; Beishuizen et al., 2001). Following the personality / ability view, Raymond (2008) concluded on the basis of his study that certain personality and ability traits are critical to effective teaching with personality traits appearing to be the more important of the two. Early evidences for this contention was found from Sherman and Blackburn (as cited in Lipka & Brinhaupt, 1999, p.124) who have observed “It is the personal qualities which the instructor as an individual brings to the educational setting that spell the difference between success and failure as a teacher.” Therefore it can be said that personal qualities have a high potential to influence the performance of teachers. This notion draws support from Christopher Day (2004) who emphasized that the inner qualities of the teacher are the primary and effective factors in good teaching. It has been also expected that the affective characteristics also do contribute in influencing the teaching performance of teachers as cited by Stronge (2007, p.22) in his book “Qualities of effective teachers”, he advocated that many interview and survey
responses about effective teaching emphasize the teachers’ affective characteristics, or social and emotional behaviours, more than pedagogical practice. More recently, Chaudhary (2012) emphasized that along with content and pedagogy there is a need to integrate emotional competencies (such as self awareness, self management, and social sensitivity) and life skills (such as empathy, interpersonal relationship, effective communication, critical thinking, decision making, coping with emotions and stress) with teaching and learning. Owing to the importance of teacher’s personality in his/her performance, the present study tries to explore the effect of some personality variables pertaining to affective domain on the teaching effectiveness of school teachers.

1.3) Emotional Maturity
One of the dimensions of personal experience is the emotional or affective dimension. Emotions are broadly defined as systems of interacting processes including emotional feelings, cognitive appraisals, physiological processes, expressive behaviour and motivational tendencies. Emotions control behaviours. One outcome of healthy emotional development is increasing “Emotional Maturity”. Emotional maturity includes the ability to deal constructively with reality (Menninger, 1999). Chamberlain (1960) said that an ‘emotionally matured’ person is one whose emotional life is well under control. On the other hand the emotionally immature usually are moody and have not learned to control the Emotional Moods, the first cousin of Emotions. The concept of mature emotional behaviour of any level is that which reflects the fruits of normal emotional development.

Emotional maturity is the emotional pattern of an adult who has progressed through the inferior emotional stages characteristic of infancy, childhood and adolescence and is now fitted to deal successfully with reality and to participate in adult relationships without undue emotional strain. In the opinions of Allport (1961), Heckman Coats and Blanchard Fields (2008), emotional maturity is characterised by the ability to integrate multiple emotional perspectives to form flexible and differentiated representations of oneself, others and situations. Emotional maturity is not something that necessarily grows with chronological age, i.e. you do not get more emotionally mature when you get older. Some adults are very emotionally immature; some have never matured emotionally. Emotional maturity means, in essence,
controlling your emotions rather than allowing your emotions to control you. The truly emotionally mature controls and guides emotions with right kind of knowledge and wisdom. Emotional maturity has been defined as an array of capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to cope with environmental demands (Ashkanasy, Hartel & Zerbe, 2000). Emotional maturity is a requirement for starting and maintaining relationship. It is a prerequisite for long term happiness. Emotional immaturity on the other hand is associated with entanglements, transferences and unsatisfying shallow relationships. Emotional maturity like personality maturity in general, has often been investigated by referring to individuals’ self conceptions (Campbell, Assanand & Di Paula, 2003). Brad Hambrick (2013) recently proposes another definition of emotional maturity in terms of two features; according to him, “emotional maturity is (a) the ability to differentiate and properly identify one’s emotions while (b) granting yourself the freedom to experience whatever emotion is appropriate to a given situation.”

Emotional maturity and emotional intelligence are the terms which are often used interchangeably but emotional maturity is not identical to emotional intelligence. M. Beard (2012) in his blog states that emotional maturity is a broader general category for someone’s emotional life whereas emotional intelligence is the whole science of quantifyingly studying and understanding human emotions both individually and relationally. In other words emotional intelligence is the understanding of emotions and emotional maturity is the appropriate application of that knowledge. Dalip Singh (2001) has also clarified the relation between the two. He viewed emotional maturity as one of the dimensions of emotional intelligence besides emotional competency and emotional sensitivity.

Mature emotional behaviour can be judged on the basis of the following criteria as given by Bernard (1984):

1) Inhibition of direct expression of negative emotions.
2) Cultivation of positive, up building emotions.
3) Developing higher tolerance for disagreeable circumstances.
4) Increasing satisfaction from socially approved responses.
5) Increasing dependence of actions.
6) Ability to make a choice.
7) Freedom from unreasonable fear.
8) Understanding and action in accordance with limitations.
9) Awareness of the ability and achievement of others.
10) Ability to err without feeling disgraced.
11) Ability to carry victory with prestige and grace.
12) Ability to delay the gratification of impulses.
13) The enjoyment of daily living.

Emotionally mature individuals generally evaluate, handle, control and use emotions quickly. On the other hand those less mature often are inefficient, slow to analyze and often do not use their emotions constructively that results in depleted self motivation. Therefore to be emotionally mature means to signify the capacity to react emotionally in terms of the requirements that a situation poses. It has been considered that emotional maturity is a significant predictor of the level of success that an individual will achieve in their lifetime that includes all the domains of one’s life pertaining to happiness, self confidence, success in relationship, the level of well being in terms of emotional and physical health and the degree of leadership and responsibility taken in one’s community and the world as a whole. Most of the empirical researches on traits of emotional maturity show that key components of emotional maturity are associated with managerial effectiveness and advancements (Bass, 1990).

1.4) Emotional Maturity and Teaching Effectiveness

The teaching role traditionally has been one of nurturing and developing student’s potential. However in the present day world teacher’s work comprises of a complex role of various factors besides teaching and learning. These include imbibing new information and skills keeping abreast of technological innovations and dealing with students, parents, and community. All these are demanding roles and so there is a demanding concern about the teacher well being and emotional quotient.

As such emotions permeate educational contexts and affect everyone in the schooling process. Researchers suggest that emotions tend to be pervasive within the service of teaching (Meyer & Turner, 2007). Teaching, similar to other professions require a positive work relationship with public and teachers must juggle their own emotions while trying to contend with their students’ needs and attend to other administrative duties. Lazarus, Kanner and Folkman (1980) suggested that positive emotions have three functions: 1) they can provide a ‘breather’, through humour, 2)
they can ‘sustain’, helping individuals feel effective and valued, 3) they can be ‘restorative’, helping individuals feel connected and cared for. As such teaching is an emotionally charged situation and if not regulated appropriately may lead to anxiety, depression, and anger or simply burned out in teaching. Early retirement rates of teachers in a number of countries around the world have been linked to unpleasant affective states such as anger, stress, anxiety and burnout (Wisniewski & Gargiulo, 1997; Wilhelm et al. in Schutz et al., 2010, p.64). Thus understanding the nature of emotion in educational settings may be a key to successful educational experiences for students, teachers and parents. Fineman (1993), Nias (1996), Day (1998) emphasized that emotions are central in teaching work. A significant and ongoing part of being a teacher is the experiencing of strong contrasting emotions and a teacher should be capable enough of outweighing the negative emotions with positive ones. Day (2004, p.45) in focussing upon the role of emotions in teaching, point out the following assumptions:

1. Emotional intelligence is at the heart of good professional practice.
2. Emotions are indispensable to rational decision making.
3. Emotional health is crucial to effective teaching over a career.
4. Emotional and cognitive healths are affected by personal biography, career, social context and external factors.

Researchers who foreground teacher emotions in educational contexts have tended to focus on issues related to teachers’ efforts to cope with unpleasant difficult emotional experiences and related topics of emotional rules and emotional labour. According to Hochschild (1983, p.7) “teaching involves immense amounts of emotional labour.... This kind of labour calls for a coordination of mind and feelings and it sometimes draws on a source of self that we honour as deep and integral to our personality.” The idea that teachers are expected to display different emotions in particular ways has been associated with the idea of emotional labour (Hochschild, 1990; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Hargreaves, 2001; Zembylas, 2007). Emotional labour under some circumstances has been associated with emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction and adverse health symptoms (Hochschild, 1990; Morris & Feldman, 1996) thereby demonstrating again the importance of understanding nature of emotional experiences in the classroom. For teachers, emotional labour involves showing or exaggerating particular emotions when interact with students which is accomplished only when the
teacher is sufficient enough to control his/her emotions i.e. when the teacher is truly emotionally mature. Higher the EQ, higher is the emotional maturity. A teacher’s level of EQ (emotional quotient) is by far the single most important variable in creating a classroom where emotional intelligence can develop healthily. And the single most important variable in teacher’s EQ is how they handle their own emotions, especially their negative emotions. Those who have developed high EQ know how to regulate their emotions, such as anger or anxiety, in a way that enhances job (Jain, 2005, p.80). An effective, successful teacher is largely one who can handle his or her negative feelings in an authentic, real and healthy way.

A teacher’s emotional competency, sensitivity and maturity besides the subject knowledge to develop the learning skills may potentially strengthen a student’s overall development by channelizing his or her hidden resources. Indeed teachers believe that the ability to regulate emotions helps them to be more effective in achieving academic goals, building quality social relationships, and maintaining good classroom management and discipline practices (Sutton, 2004). It is evident that feeling, expressing and regulating emotions is a key component of teachers’ beliefs and major determinant in the way teachers teach. A sense of personal and professional, intellectual, social and emotional identity is at the core of being an effective teacher.

1.5) Hardiness

During the last few years, some personality variables have attracted the attention of researchers in the correlates of job stress and burnout. Researchers have described an array of protective personality characteristics they term hardiness that accounts why some persons actually seem to thrive on stress instead of letting the stress wear them down. Such persons are called hardy personality, a term first coined by Kobasa (1979). A high degree of hardiness reduces the negative effects of stressful events which came into light by a series of studies carried by Kobasa (1979; 1982a; 1982b; 1984). Kobasa, Maddi, Kahn and Hoover (1982) explored the concept of “Personality Hardiness” as a resistance resource that mediates the negative consequences of high level stress.

The construct of hardiness was proposed in a 12-year longitudinal study of managers at Illinois Bell Telephone from 1975 to 1986, conducted by Maddi and
Kobasa with colleagues. Among middle- and upper-level executives with high levels of stress, individuals demonstrating hardy attitudes were more likely to remain healthy and continue to thrive. Ongoing research has indicated that hardiness enhances resiliency and buffers stress-illness relation in studies using retrospective and prospective designs. The hardiness construct with its roots in existential theory e.g. Kierkegaard, 1849/1954; Frankl, 1959; Gendlin, 1966 (as cited in M. Sheard, 2013, p.58) emerged from individual differences research on stress reactions. Hardiness defined as an operationalization of existential courage, aids the individual in pursuing the future despite its uncertainty (Maddi, 2004). Although hardiness is regarded as a ubiquitous, essential feature for effective performance, conduct and health under stress, it is not synonymous with other features that facilitate this fullness of life (Hersen & Thomas, 2006, p.310).

As a personality trait predictive of health, performance, and conduct outcomes, hardiness consists of three dimensions termed the three Cs of commitment (rather than alienation), control (rather than powerlessness), and challenge (rather than threat) (Santrock, 2006). This concept of hardiness focuses on the persons who remain relatively healthy after experiencing many stressful life events. Thus hardiness is a personality style, which is characterised by a sense of commitment and of control and a perception of problems as challenges. These hardy attitudes as shown in Figure 1.4 are discussed below:

![Figure 1.4: 3Cs of Hardiness.](image)

**Components of Hardiness:** Hardiness has been composed of three important characteristics:
1) The first is a sense of **commitment** or the tendency to involve oneself in whatever one encounters. Hardy people have a deep sense of commitment to their values, beliefs, sense of identity, work and family life (Ciccarelli and Meyer, 2006).

2) The second is the belief in **control**, the sense that one causes the events that happen in one’s life and that one can influence one’s environment. Thus hardy people feel that they are in control of their lives and what happens.

3) The third component is **challenge** that is a readiness to undertake change and control new activities that represent opportunities for growth. Thus hardy people interpret events in primary appraisal differently than people who are not hardy. When things go wrong and events become unpredictable, they don’t see a frightening problem to be avoided but instead a challenge to be met and answered. Hardy people are healthier, because of their sense of commitment, control and challenge; they may appraise potentially stressful live events in a more favourable way in comparison to those who are not so hardy. Bartone considers hardiness as a broad personality style or generalized mode of functioning that includes cognitive, emotional, and behavioural qualities. This generalized style of functioning, which incorporates commitment, control, and challenge, is believed to affect how one views oneself and interacts with the world around. Hardiness is often considered an important factor in psychological resilience or an individual-level pathway leading to resilient outcomes. The manner in which hardiness confers resiliency appears to be a combination of cognitive, behavioural mechanisms, and biophysical processes. The hardiness theory asserts that individuals possess higher levels of hardiness sense greater feelings of involvement and control in their work (Maddi & Kobasa, 1984). Hardiness is expected to be positively associated with active coping and negatively associated with regressive coping (Kobasa, 1982; Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983; Gentry & Kobasa, 1984). Active, or transformational coping means transforming high stress environments into benign experiences, such as engaging in problem-focus coping. On the other hand, regressive coping strategies include cognitive and behavioural withdrawal and denial, such as avoiding or ignoring the stressor, blaming others, and emotion-focused coping. High hardy individuals engage in approach or problem-focused coping strategies whereas low hardy persons engage in avoidance or emotion-focused coping strategies (Williams, Wiebe & Smith, 1992; Florian et al., 1995).
1.6) Hardiness and Teaching Effectiveness

Teachers are the most valued assets of any country. They impart knowledge and skills to the students, who after completion of their studies, join the different sectors of country and start contributing towards the development of country’s economy. As the new innovations are emanating day by day, there are high expectations from teachers by the society that they will inculcate all the desired skills and train their wards wholly for a better career and teach them to walk hand in hand with fast growing innovations in all spheres. Owing to this, teachers are under immense pressure and often they may be stressed and strained. While most research aims at exploring the problems with teachers work and how to restrict its influence on the formation of distress, the resilience or hardiness perspective focuses more on what factors lead to greater levels of teacher engagement and a host of other positive workplace outcomes (Howard & Johnson, 2004). The effects of teachers’ stress on the performance have widely been recognized. Research studies like (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Akhlaq et al., 2010; Tahir, 2011; Shah et al., 2012 ) shows that the stress has very negative effects in shape of low morale, absenteeism, poor teaching quality, less students satisfaction, and turn over on the overall performance of teachers.

The typical consequences of teacher stress include, less morale, job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, negative health effect, lower productivity and job turnover, etc (McCormick, 1997; Winefield et al., 2003). Research studies with a variety of occupational groups have found that hardiness functions as a significant moderator or buffer in the stress-health relation (Kobasa, Maddi & Kahn, 1982; Maddi & Kobasa, 1984; Contrada, 1989; Roth, Wiebe, Fillingim & Shay, 1989; Wiebe, 1991). As such, hardiness is particularly relevant to stressful settings, such as teaching (Maddi, 2007). Hardiness and self esteem tend to have negative and significant correlations with role overload, role ambiguity, low status and strenuous working conditions (Subramanian & Vinothkumar, 2009). It acts as a mediator in life stress (Heather & Gail, 1988), and contributes to an individual’s ability to appraise and adapt to stressful situations and respond more effectively (Brooks, 2001). As stated earlier, hardiness is defined in terms of more specific dimensions of commitment, control and challenge characteristics that may influence both cognitive appraisal and behaviour in response to stressful events. Commitment encompasses the need to be involved with and contribute to familial and school endeavours and reflects
a capacity to feel a responsibility to assist others (Weissberg et al., 1991). From an existential point of view, commitment dimension represents a fundamental sense of one’s worth, purpose, and accountability, which protects against weakness while under adversity (Bigbee, 1985; Pollock, 1989; Sullivan, 1993). A competent and committed teacher is in demand for today’s revolutionary era. Teacher commitment has been identified as one of the most crucial factors for the success of the education and schools. Teacher’s commitment is closely associated with their work performance. Control refers to the belief that one can control or influence occurrences in one’s life, that personal efforts can modify stressors so as to reduce them into a more manageable state (Maddi & Kobasa, 1984; Bigbee, 1985; Pollock, 1989; Wagnild & Young, 1991; Tartasky, 1993; Huang, 1995). Teachers who have higher control of situations may become more efficient in tackling the severe situations encountered in teaching learning endeavor thereby instilling in students a sense of optimism as it is positively correlated with perceived control in 10 to 13 years old (Whalen et al., 1994).

Challenge reflects the belief that change is not a threat to personal security, but an opportunity for personal development and growth (Maddi & Kobasa, 1984; Bigbee, 1985; Pollock, 1989; Wagnild & Young, 1991; Tartasky, 1993; Huang, 1995). Individuals strong in challenge believe that change is constant in one’s life and recognize that experiencing both positive and negative life changes leads to personal growth (Orr & Westman, 1990; Koshaba & Maddi, 1999). Teaching nowadays is a very challenging profession especially for teachers, so teachers who are highly challenged anticipate change as affording them an opportunity for further development and creates an environment that reinforces within the child the belief that not only are mistakes and failure are to be expected, they are acceptable and provide an opportunity for learning and growth (Brooks, 1994).

In terms of total hardiness, teachers who are hardy are better able to successfully cope with stressful situations (Galla et al, 1994). Moreover, such teachers are more purposeful (Brooks, 2001). Teachers with high scores in this personal characteristic (hardiness) have been shown to be less vulnerable to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001; Chan, 2003; Moreno, Arcenillas, Morante, & Garrosa, 2005); have lower alienation scores (Thomson & Wendt, 1995) and lower emotional exhaustion (Chan, 2003; Azeem, 2010). Hardiness is a meaningful construct
predicting the perceptions of primary school teachers on organizational commitment (Sezgin, 2009). Overall hardiness in teachers is important if teachers are expected to function in a stressful environment, and deal with new and ongoing problems. Moreover being in control of their circumstances promotes the attitude among teachers that what they are doing is important, and they recognize that accepting challenge is necessary for personal and professional growth.

1.7) **Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction as the term itself implies means the satisfaction of a person with his job or work. Hoppock defined job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say I am satisfied with my job (Hoppock, 1935). According to Webster’s Dictionary (1986), job satisfaction refers to how well a job provides fulfilment of a need or want, or how well it serves as a source or means of enjoyment. Smith et al. (1969) defined job satisfaction as the feeling an individual has about his or her job. Locke (1969) suggested that job satisfaction was a positive or pleasurable reaction resulting from the appraisal of one’s job, job achievement, or job experiences. Vroom (1982) defined job satisfaction as workers’ emotional orientation toward their current job roles. Similarly, Schultz (1982) stated that job satisfaction is essentially the psychological disposition of people toward their work. Dawes (2004) defined job satisfaction as having two components: a cognitive component (the perception that one’s needs are being fulfilled), and an affective component (the feeling that accompanies the cognition).

Job satisfaction is the favourable or unfavourable subjective feeling with which employees view their work. It expresses the extent of match between employee’s expectation of the job and the reward that the job provides. This notion is supported by Kreitner & Kinicki (1998). They defined job satisfaction as an affective or emotional response towards various facets of one’s job. There are numerous theories attempting to explain job satisfaction, but three conceptual frameworks seem to be more prominent in the literature. The first is content theories (Maslow, 1954; Herzberg, at al., 1959), which suggests that job satisfaction occurs when one’s need for growth and self-actualization is met by the individual’s job. It may be important to distinguish between positive and negative aspects of job satisfaction. Herzberg et al.
(1959) stated that (positive) satisfaction is due to good experiences, and that these are due to 'motivators'-achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and advancement. Dissatisfaction is due to bad experiences caused by 'hygiene' factors—supervisors, fellow workers, company policy, working conditions, and personal life (Herzberg et al., 1959). The second conceptual framework is often referred to as process theories (Adams, 1965; Vroom, 1982), which attempts to explain job satisfaction by looking at how well the job meets one's expectations and values. The third conceptual group includes situational theories (Quarstein, McAfee & Glassman, 1992), which proposes that job satisfaction is a product of how well an individual's personal characteristics interact or mesh with the organizational characteristics.

In totality it was agreed that Job satisfaction is quite highly correlated with overall happiness, and can be looked at as one of its main components. As we know that the happier the individual is with his / her job the better he/she is in accomplishing its tasks. Therefore job satisfaction is expected to be positively related to job performance. However job satisfaction is dynamic; it can decline even more quickly than it developed and may have contrary effects also as it was found that if employees are completely satisfied with their profession, they will not be inspired to work harder or better. Researchers have reported a variety of factors that determine the job satisfaction. Most important among these are the nature of work (Khaleque & Chaudhary, 1984; Sharma & Bhaskar, 1991), pay and financial rewards (Luthans, 1998; Lambert, Hogan, Barton & Lubbock, 2001), quality of supervision (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994; Robbins, 1998; Aamodt, 1999), promotion (Larwood, 1984; Vecchio, 1988; Landy, 1989; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992; Tolbert & Moen, 1998), co-worker interactions (Wharton & Baron, 1991; Mowday & Sutton, 1993; Morris, 2004), working conditions (Luthans, 1992; Moorhead & Griffen, 1992), tenure revealing employees with longer tenure have a greater propensity to be satisfied with their jobs than employees with shorter tenure (Vecchio, 1988; Staw, 1995; Jinnett & Alexander, 1999; Jones Johnson & Johnson, 2000).

Similar to professionals in other occupations, job satisfaction in teachers has been related to a number of factors. Evans (1998, p.11) distinguishes two factors that contribute to job satisfaction among primary school teachers: 1) Job comfort: extent to which teachers are satisfied with the conditions and circumstances in which they
work. 2) Job fulfilment: a state of mind encompassing all the feelings determined by
the extent of the personal achievement that teachers attribute to their performance of
those aspects of their job which they value. Researchers have linked job satisfaction to
teacher attrition (Bobbitt, Leich, Whitener & Lynch, 1994; Russ, Chiang, Rylance &
Bongers, 2001), demographic variables including age, education and gender (Peterson
& Custer, 1994; Ganser & Wham, 1998; Castillo, Conklin & Cano, 1999; Eichinger,
2000), practice related variables such as salaries, credentialing, opportunities for
promotion, supervision, recognition, student behaviour, working conditions, and sense
of autonomy (Evans, 1998; Prelip, 2001).

1.8) Job Satisfaction and Teaching Effectiveness

In view of teaching job satisfaction amongst teachers is a multifaceted construct and
is related to working conditions and level of professionalism and thus is a key factor
in successfully recruiting and retaining teachers (Stansbury & Zimmerman, 2000). The
concept of teacher job satisfaction is defined as “teacher’s affective relation to his or
her teaching role and is a function of the perceived relationship between what one
wants from teaching and what one perceives it is offering to a teacher” (Zembylas &
satisfaction among teachers can be expressed as their willingness and preparedness to
stay in the teaching profession irrespective of the discomfort and the desire to leave
teaching for a better job. Kim and Loadman (1994) list seven predictors of job
satisfaction, namely: interaction with students, interaction with colleagues, professional challenges, and professional autonomy, working conditions, salary and
opportunity for advancement. Teachers who experience more positive affect while
instructing students report greater job satisfaction (Weiss & Weiss, 1999) and less
burnout (Rudow, 1999). Positive affect helps individuals to combat negative
emotions, increase well-being, fuel resilience, and build durable personal resources
(Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). Teacher satisfaction is a combination of intrinsic and
extrinsic factors. Research has shown evidence that school administrators are
effective factors on teachers’ satisfaction and motivation.

According to Shan (2001), teacher job satisfaction is a predictor of teacher
retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn a contributor to school
effectiveness. The extent to which job satisfaction is achieved is from the employers’
perspective, likely to affect retention, and from the individual teachers’ perspective continuing commitment to their work (Hall, Pearso & Carroll, 1992). It has also been found that job satisfaction is correlated to enhanced job performance, positive work values, high levels of employee motivation, and lower rates of absenteeism, turnover and burnout (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Tharenou, 1993). A professionally satisfied teacher has a friendly attitude, high enthusiasm and zeal towards duties and a good value pattern. Such a teacher contributes immensely towards the educational advancements of the students. On the other hand dissatisfied teacher is generally found to be irritable, depressed, hostile and even neurotic in his attitude. Therefore the quality of instruction given to the students may be affected by the teacher’s satisfaction with his / her job.

Although performance may be contingent upon a multitude of factors, one of the important factors affecting performance arguably is the motivation to perform well on the job which is directly related to the satisfaction with the job. Teacher motivation is important for the satisfaction and fulfilment of the teachers themselves and is also important in making teachers happy, dedicated, committed besides providing satisfaction. Beyond issues of well being such feelings of satisfaction are consistently associated with lower levels of organizational absenteeism and turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973; Jesus & Conboy, 2001). In addition highly satisfied teachers are less likely to change schools or to leave the teaching profession altogether than those who are dissatisfied with many areas of their work life (Choy et al., 1993). According to National Centre for Education Statistics (NCES) report (1997), approximately 20 percent of public school teachers and 28 percent of private school teachers left because they wanted to pursue other career opportunities, they were dissatisfied with the profession. It is likely that where teachers cannot satisfy their emotional and intellectual needs in their teaching their efforts to teach well and their ability to contribute to raising of standards will be hindered and it has been highly stressed by Education Commission (1964-66) that dissatisfaction among workers is undesirable and dangerous in any profession and it is suicidal if it occurs in the teaching profession.
1.9) Statement of the Problem

In the light of discussion given above, the investigator has taken up the problem to investigate the impact of emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness of school teachers. The problem is formally stated as below:

“Impact of Emotional Maturity, Hardiness and Job Satisfaction on Teaching Effectiveness of School Teachers.”

1.10) Rationale of the Study

One of the UN Millennium Development Goals is ‘achievement of Universal Primary Education’ (UN Millennium development Goals report, 2007). To achieve this goal education in general and school education in particular plays the central and foremost role. School education is the foundation upon which the future of a student is to be constructed; so school education should be quality oriented so as to make people useful, productive and prudent. In order to make school education quality oriented, school requires quality teachers who are well qualified, fully professional, knowledgeable, skilled and effective. There are three things which are most useful in a classroom condition i.e., teacher, effectiveness and learning. Among these three terms, teacher and learning are very important; only one thing that combines teacher with learning and efficiency is effectiveness. It has been reported by Ryan and Cooper (1995) on the basis of reviews of many studies that the most efficient teachers can engage their students about 30 minutes a day longer than the average teacher highlighting the vitality of effective teachers in quality and productive education.

To be effective in teaching requires some personal qualities also besides being certified and well trained. Therefore any research exploring the personal qualities which affect teachers’ effectiveness is worthy of pursuit. Also C. A. Decker and J. R. Decker (2001) noted that the research towards personal characteristics and effectiveness in teaching should be conducted more, because teaching is so complicated and multifaceted. Over several decades, number of studies had been conducted with teacher effectiveness as the criterion variable; and there is a vast literature in the journals and research studies dealing with the teaching effectiveness. Mitzel (1957) recommended four types of classification of information that is
necessary for the investigator who seeks knowledge in the area of teacher effectiveness:

1) **Type - I Variables (Prediction Sources):** Human characteristics on which teacher differs and which can be hypothesized to account for differences in teacher effectiveness.

2) **Type - II Variables (Contingency factors):** Contingency factors are those which modify and influence the whole complex of behaviour that enters into the educational process.

3) **Type - III Variables (classroom behaviours):** These variables corresponds to the classroom behaviour of teachers as well as pupils.

4) **Type - IV Variables (Criteria of effectiveness or Intermediate educational goals):** These include criteria or standards consisting of intermediate educational goals i.e. the measurable outcomes at the end of a period of instruction as distinguished from the ultimate criterion which might be phrased as “a better world in which to live”.

Another classification includes three categories of variables viz. a) Presage which included pre-existing teacher characteristics, teacher training variables and teacher competence, b) Process criteria including teacher performance and pupil learning experiences, and (c) Product criteria which included pupil learning outcomes. A good account of researches was found on process-product variables rather than presage one.

The importance of teaching effectiveness has raised several questions for educational researchers like which factors promote teaching effectiveness? How much is the effect of presage factors on teaching effectiveness? Therefore many factors have been hypothesized and researched upon and researchers have come out with different results, at times complimenting each other but at times contradicting each other.

The most expected factors to be considered into account are the teacher training and their qualification. Several studies revealed that trained teachers are professionally more efficient than untrained teachers (Islahi, 2010). In the light of this it was expected that teachers who are qualified, and trained and work in similar type of atmosphere of the school should be more or less equally effective in teaching. But it is not the real picture as proved by the students’ achievements which are markedly different though being taught by the teachers who are equally qualified, trained and matched in terms of school parameters. Here some questions are again felt by the
investigator like why do teachers’ performance varied so differently? Which factors are responsible for bringing out their best in teaching? To get the answers of these questions the investigator makes a review of some of the studies done earlier in the area of teacher effectiveness by other researchers to identify and examine the factors that are related to teaching effectiveness. Among these is locale, gender (Singh, 1987; Islahi, 2010; Khatoon, 2010; Sharma, 2010), attitude towards teaching (Samantharoy, 1971; Bhasin, 1988; Maurya, 1990; Shah, 1991; Saxena, 1995; Vasanthi & Anandi, 1997; Pandey & Maikhuri, 1999; Yadagiri, 2000; Jain, 2007), qualification and experience (Wali, 1985; Kagathala, 2002; Talboot, 2005; Mohalik, 2008; Harris & Routledge, 2010), work motivation (Anand, 1998; Raj, 2002; Jayaramanna, 2001; Islahi, 2010), organizational climate (Prakasham, 1988; Biswas & De, 1995), adjustment (Chaya, 1974; Singh, 1976; Saxena, 1995), job satisfaction and commitment (Atreya, 1989; Shah, 1991; Abraham, 1994; Saxena, 1995; Tyler, 2002), scholastic competence (Wangoo, 1984), courage and life satisfaction (Duckworth et al., 2009), attitude towards IT (Newa, 2007; Islahi, 2010), work values (Weiner, 1988), work orientation and stress (Indira, 1995).

Though the role of personal characteristics in promoting or reducing teaching effectiveness has been explored in teaching effectiveness literature, but still more studies are needed in this area on account of its potentially crucial effect on classroom instruction. Murray, Ruston and Pounomen (1990) showed that specific personality traits make differential contributions to teaching effectiveness in different types of courses and concluded that university teachers tend to be differentially suited to different types of courses rather than uniformly effective or ineffective in all courses and that teachers’ compatibility with courses is determined in part by personality characteristics. Studies to measure personality of teachers produced a wide range of variables which may be determinants of teaching effectiveness and which substantiated Vernon’s comment “teachers are as diverse in their psychological traits as any other occupational group” and that it is fallacious to talk of teaching personality as something distinct and consistent. There have been researches which reveal that the teachers’ traits, teachers’ behaviours, teachers’ environment and institutional variables affect teaching effectiveness. There have been a number of reviews of what constitutes effective teaching and the characteristics of effective teachers (Brophy & Good, 1986; Creemers, 1994; Tabberer, 1994; Joyce, Calhoun &
Hopkins, 1997). In view of teachers’ personality, some of the variables studied so far include teaching aptitude (More, 1998), intelligence (Grewal, 1976; Singh, 1987; More, 1988; Singh, 1991; Lowmann, 1995), creativity (Singh, 1991; Rao, 1995), good sense of humour and playfulness (Lowmann, 1995; Day, 2004), self efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986), enthusiasm for the topic (Dunne & Wragg, 1994; Robertson, 1996; Borich, 2000; Hay McBer, 2000; Day, 2004), smiling (Harrington, 1955), emotional intelligence (Dash & Behera, 2004; Fei-Fei, 2007; David & Roy, 2010), communication style (Roberts & Becker, 1976; Norton, 1977) etc. Yet a complete and comprehensive picture of teaching effectiveness still seems to eluding the researchers. The search therefore continues and educational researchers all over the world are still seeking the breakthrough in elucidating this phenomenon. However, there has been hardly any serious attempt to study the emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction as impacting factors of teaching effectiveness of school teachers. The investigator is more convinced that teacher emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction need no longer be neglected in research efforts directed towards a study of exploring factors affecting teaching effectiveness of school teachers. The reason is obvious, conceptually they appear to influence the teaching effectiveness but their influence has not yet been empirically studied adequately. This being another reason, the investigator undertook the present study which attempts to investigate the impact of emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness of school teachers.

1.11) Significance of the Study
Quality education is the most important and debatable topic these days and teacher performance is the most crucial input in education. A number of studies have concluded that effective teachers can produce significantly greater student learning gains than less effective teachers. Teacher compensation accounts for a larger share of total investment in education in developing countries, about 70% compared to around 64% in Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries (Rogers & Vegas, 2010, p.243.). It has been proposed by Glenn (2001) that teacher quality is the most important factor for school effectiveness. Hence it may be inferred that good teacher policies can pay larger dividends in developing countries than in developed nations because quality teaching is vital for making schools effective that
ultimately guarantee productive and efficient learners. This research therefore may guide the critical decisions as whom to hire, retain or promote and also provide help in professional development of teachers by making them realize the significance of their behaviours and to further improve upon these and move forward on the path of effectiveness since unless teachers change the way they teach, students cannot become effective learners. At their best teachers display, through who they are and how they act. It is therefore of immense significance to identify and discover some factors which have a potential to facilitate or inhibit effective teaching. In this study the investigator makes an attempt to sort out some of the personality factors which may affect teaching performance in either positive aspect or negative aspect and in turn can help policy makers, teachers themselves and administrators in understanding the role of some of the teacher personality traits in making the teaching more effective.

Teaching is primarily deemed as a rational, rhetorical and relational communication process in which teachers strategically use messages and relational cues to influence students and their behaviours. However teaching is also an emotional process in which teachers can manage, monitor and regulate their emotions to achieve teaching effectiveness and to create a positive learning environment. Ideal teachers are known to emote feelings of enthusiasm, happiness, confidence, self assurance and passion about teaching. So whatever we want to achieve emotionally should already be present in the teachers. A part of the significance of this study is helpful in understanding the degree of influence of emotional maturity on teaching effectiveness and thereby the results of the study could help the school administration to improve the school environment for a free emotional expression by the teachers which may in turn may contributes towards healthy emotional development of the students.

Compared to the teachers of the nineteenth and much of the twentieth century, today’s teachers are better educated, earn more money and are more highly respected members of the society than their earlier counterparts. On the other hand IT revolution and knowledge explosion increase the workload and stress on the part of the teachers. To manage and effectively coping with the work stress without impacting the teaching performance is a huge issue of greater concern. Hardiness pertains to the ability of an individual to thrive on stress and to cope effectively with strenuous life events.
findings of this study may provide information about the relationship between individuals’ coping ability and their work performance and in a way help in understanding how much is the role of hardiness in making teaching effective or ineffective and in a way may provide assistance in correlating hardiness or resilience of a teacher to his performance and thereby may help in teacher recruitment and task allocations.

Organizational setup in different schools and compatibility with the job is a chief factor in controlling teachers’ actions thereby to adjust in their working environment and the contentment or satisfaction with the job by adapting themselves in a changing scenario is a challenging task for the teachers which may affect their performance also. This study may be helpful in providing the link between job satisfaction and teaching effectiveness. Further it may also help the schools in realising the importance of job satisfaction thereby providing directions for providing a congenial working atmosphere for teachers.

To be precise, this research into teaching effectiveness addresses the questions that are of immediate relevance and significance to the practitioners, it has the capacity to impact on practice in important and may be in unexpected ways. It gives information and thereby helps in enhancing the performance of the processes that teachers are engaged with. Moreover it provides a good insight for the improvement of the practice and thereby enhancing school effectiveness. In addition, this study also provides a rationale for change and possible directions for achieving the increased effectiveness of teaching. With clear and strong understanding of the effects of emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness, future researches may be directed towards other personality factors so as to further enlighten the role of personality of teachers in improving teaching learning process for better students’ achievement and increased school effectiveness for a better education.

It is said that happier workers are the efficient workers. With regard to this the interesting idea of Abhijit Bhaduri (2012) of measuring the ‘happiness quotient’ of employees working in high stress environment having support systems catering the psychological well being is very effective as it provides the index of happiness of the employees. All the three variables i.e. emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction are contributing directly or indirectly in the personal and psychological well being of the teachers and thus are important in helping them to remain happy in
their working environment that will increase their happiness index at workplace which has been the recent emerging issue of great concern contributing in improving the productivity. Further the results may be helpful in unfolding the role of gender, marital status and teaching experience which aids in understanding the role of demographic variables in teaching effectiveness.

1.12) Definitions of the key terms

a) Teaching
In the words of Good (1973) teaching may be defined as: “Broadly management by an instructor of the teaching-learning situations including (a) direct interaction between the teacher and the learner, (b) the preactive decision making process of planning, designing and preparing the materials for the teaching learning conditions, and (c) post active redirection (evaluation, redesign, and dissemination).” Greenwood Dictionary of Education (2003) defines teaching as “actions by which one person intends that another person learn a certain content of knowledge.” According to Maqbool Ahmed’s Comprehensive Dictionary of Education (2008) “Teaching is a process of helping student acquire knowledge, skills, attitudes and appreciations by means of a systematic method of instruction.”

b) Effectiveness
Effectiveness means the quality of being effective. It may be taken as one’s hold on the circumstances as well as on himself, befitting the best of his total adjustment. In operational terms, “effectiveness is known to be spontaneously accepted prevalence (dominance) of one’s personality by his co-workers, subordinates and all that which falls within the net of his life space.” The New International Webster’s Comprehensive Dictionary defines effectiveness as “quality of producing or adapted to produce an effect.”

c) Teaching Effectiveness
An overview of the literature on teaching effectiveness reveals no standard commonly agreed upon definition of effective teaching qualities. The evaluation seems to focus on providing feedback to, and evaluating the performance of individual teachers. In addition to providing such feedback, the information from the evaluations could be used to evaluate teaching effectiveness in the curriculum. For the purpose of this study and in keeping with the correct practice, the terms ‘teaching effectiveness’ and
'teacher effectiveness' were used synonymously. Barr (1952) defines teacher effectiveness as a relationship between teachers, pupils and other persons concerned with the educational setting. In the words of Good (1973) “Teacher effectiveness is the ability of a teacher to create a meeting and an interaction between the physical, intellectual, and psychological interests of the students and some given subject matter content; the ability of a teacher to relate the learning activities to the developmental process of the learners and to their current and immediate interests and needs.” According to Dickson (1980) “teaching effectiveness is a demonstrated repertoire of competencies involved with (1) teaching plans and materials, (2) classroom procedures, (3) interpersonal skills and (4) learners’ reinforcement involvement reflected in teacher behaviour.”

Encyclopaedia of Educational Research by Mitzel (1982) says ‘teacher effectiveness will be used to refer to the results a teacher gets or to the amount of progress the pupils make towards some specified goal of education.’ According to the ‘The Greenwood Dictionary of Education (2003, p.350)’ and ‘Global Dictionary of Education’ by Rita Raj (2009, p.434) teaching effectiveness is defined as “The presentation, dissemination and appraisal of subject matter to be learned in training, teaching, educating or developing knowledge, competence, or understanding; the guidance and directions given to learners under conditions of supervised practice.” To Campbell et al., (2004) teacher effectiveness is “The power to realize socially valued objectives agreed for teachers’ work, especially, but not exclusively, the work concerned with enabling students to learn.” A more comprehensive definition was proposed by D. B. Rao and D. N. Kumar (2004) as “Teaching effectiveness is the effective linkage of teacher competence with teacher performance with the accomplishment of teacher goals. It mainly depends on the teacher characteristics such as knowledge base, sense of responsibility and inquisitiveness; the students’ characteristics such as opportunity to learn and academic work; the teaching factors such as lesson structure and communication; the learning aspects such as involvement and success; and the classroom phenomena such as environment and climate and organisation and management.”

On the basis of definitions cited above, it is concluded that the amount that pupils learn is strongly affected by factors not under the teacher’s control, teacher effectiveness will be regarded not as a stable characteristics of the teacher as an
individual but as a stable characteristic of the teacher as a product of the interaction between certain teacher characteristics and other factors that vary according to the situation in which the teacher works. The definition of teaching effectiveness or teacher effectiveness appears to be governed by the tools used by the investigator, which are not identical. For the present study teacher effectiveness has been defined in operational terms as:

“The Teacher Effectiveness in this study has been taken as the total marks secured by the teacher in Teacher Effectiveness Scale developed by Dr. Pramod Kumar and Dr. D. N. Mutha (1999).”

d) Emotional Maturity

Good (1973) defines emotional maturity as “The emotional pattern of an adult who has progressed through the inferior emotional stages characteristics of infancy, childhood and adolescence and participate in adult love relationships without undue emotional strain.”
In the words of Walter D. Smitson (1974), “Emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both intra-psychically and intra-personally.” Dictionary of Psychology by Chaplin, J. P. (1975) says “Emotional maturity is a state or condition of having reached an adult level of emotional development and therefore no longer displaying emotional patterns appropriate to children.”

Skinner (2001) defined emotional maturity as “the degree to which the person has realized his potential for richness of living and has developed his capacity to enjoy things, to relate him to others, to love and to laugh, and his capacity for whole heartedness.” In the present investigation, Emotional maturity has been defined operationally as:

“The ability to integrate multiple emotional perspectives to form flexible and differentiated representations of oneself, others and situations and is determined by the total marks secured by the teacher in the five dimensions of the Emotional Maturity Scale, developed by Dr. Yashvir Singh and Dr. Mahesh Bhargava (2010).”
e) Hardiness
According to researchers Suzanne Kobasa and Salvatore Maddi, individual differences in personal control provide only part of the reason why some people who are under stress get sick whereas others do not. They have proposed that a broader array of personality characteristics called hardiness—differenciates people who do and who do not get sick under stress (Kobasa, 1979, 1986; Kobasa and Maddi, 1977).

In the words of Santrock (2006) “Hardiness is a personality style, which is characterised by a sense of commitment (rather than alienation), and of control (rather than powerlessness) and a perception of problems as challenges (rather than threats).” Maqbool Ahmad (2008, p.251) in ‘Comprehensive Dictionary of Education’ defines hardiness as, “A personality style that minimizes stress responses by means of challenge, commitment and control. A set of positive attitude in response to stress that enable a person who has been exposed to life threatening situations to carry on with a sense of fortitude, control and commitment.”

A more illustrative meaning is “Hardiness is defined as an operationalisation of existential courage emphasizing the attitude of commitment, control and challenge is conceptualised as a personality disposition with the emphasis on individual differences in it as they affect performance, conduct and health.” (Maddi, 2006). Operationally hardiness is defined as: “Psychological Hardiness refers to being tolerant and accepting others, effectively, handling stress, good in management of moods, even tempered, self-sufficient, self-reliant and feeling good about oneself.”

For the present study, hardiness is defined as the total scores obtained by the teacher in all the statements encompassing the three components of hardiness viz; commitment, control and challenge of the psychological Hardiness Scale developed by Dr. Arun Kumar Singh (2008).

f) Job Satisfaction
Good (’1973) defines job satisfaction as “the quality, state, or level of satisfaction which is a result of various interests and attitudes of a person towards his job.”

Similar definition is given by Rita Raj (2009, p.241) in Global Dictionary of Education. Camp (1994) defines job satisfaction with reference to the needs and values of individuals and the extent to which these needs and values are satisfied in the workplace. In conjunction with this, Robbins (1998, p. 25) surmises that job
satisfaction is based on “the difference between the amount of rewards workers receive and the amount they believe they should receive.” According to Roy and Paira (2009) “Job Satisfaction occurs when a teacher feels he/she has accomplished something having importance and value worthy of recognition and of sense of joy.” Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2006) defined job satisfaction of teachers as “teacher’s affective relation to his or her teaching role and is a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from teaching and what one perceives it is offering to a teacher”.

Operationally, job satisfaction in the present study is defined as “the degree to which teachers have a favourable attitude and contentment with teaching job.” In the present study, “Job Satisfaction is the total marks obtained by the teacher in job satisfaction scale developed by Dr. Amar Singh and Dr. T. R. Sharma (2009).”

g) School

“The place in which formal instruction is given.”

In the present study school is considered as, “The place which is affiliated to Central Board of Secondary education and in which formal instruction is given.”

h) Teacher

“One who teaches”

Operationally, it may be defined as, “A person employed in CBSE affiliated school who instruct others for the purpose of guiding and directing the learning experiences of pupils and students.”

1.13) Objectives of the study

Every research work must have some objectives to achieve without which no research can be conducted. The entire research process is guided by objectives which have been explicitly and presently spelled out by the investigator in advance. The present study is aimed at achieving the following objectives:

1. To investigate the impact of emotional maturity on teaching effectiveness of school teachers.
2. To examine the impact of hardiness on teaching effectiveness of school teachers.
3. To explore the impact of job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness of school teachers.
4. To investigate whether or not any interactional effects exist between two or more than two independent variables on teaching effectiveness of school teachers.
5. To study the combined and individual effects of selected independent variables viz. emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction on the teaching effectiveness of school teachers.
6. To study the effect of some demographic variables (gender, marital status and teaching experience) on teaching effectiveness of school teachers.
7. To study the combined effect of emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness of school teachers with respect to different demographic variables.

1.14) Research Questions of the study
1. Do emotional maturity and emotional immaturity have differential effect on teaching effectiveness of school teachers?
2. Do hardiness and non hardiness have differential effect on teaching effectiveness of school teachers?
3. Do job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction have differential effect on teaching effectiveness of school teachers?
4. Is there any interactional effect of emotional maturity and hardiness on teaching effectiveness of school teachers?
5. Is there any interactional effect of emotional maturity and job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness of school teachers?
6. Is there any interactional effect of hardiness and job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness of school teachers?
7. Is there any interactional effect of emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness of school teachers?
8. What is the extent of combined and individual effects of emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness of school teachers?
9. Do the demographic variables (gender, marital status and teaching experience) have significant effect on teaching effectiveness of school teachers?
10. What is the extent of combined effect of emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction on teaching effectiveness of school teachers with respect to different demographic variables (gender, marital status and teaching experience)?
1.15) Delimitations of the study

It is not possible in a single study to cover every aspect of variables associated with the problem under investigation so the study is delimited in several ways:

1. The present study was focussed on school teachers only. Therefore the results may not be generalizable to university teachers and college teachers.

2. Teachers were selected from two cities only i.e. Aligarh and New Delhi.

3. Teachers were selected from schools affiliated to Central Board of Secondary Education, New Delhi to maintain the uniformity.

4. Out of many independent variables only emotional maturity, hardiness and job satisfaction were taken into account.

5. In the present study, self reported survey has been employed to assess teaching effectiveness of school teachers although there are a variety of other techniques available for the purpose of teacher assessment.