



The differences, if any between Government Excellent, Good and Average Schools of Delhi on Emotional Intelligence, Teachers' Motivation to work, School Organizational Climate and Teacher Effectiveness

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Introduction and Review of Literature

Eight signs of an intelligence are (HOWARD GARDNER):

- Potential isolation by brain damage
- The existence of idiot savants, prodigies, and other exceptional individuals
- An identifiable core operation or set of operations
- A distinctive developmental history along with a definable set of expert 'end state' performances
- An evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility
- Support from experimental psychological tasks
- Support from psychometric findings
- Susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system

Intelligence & EI

Sternberg (1985) offers some insights into the development of the concept of intelligence by contending that intelligence is a concept that focuses on predicting individual performance and notes that critics of intelligence point to the fact that often intelligence constructs refer to tasks or abilities that are valued by a specific culture. He also argues that *the most valuable contributions in the field of intelligence are those that outline the link between mental functioning and situational performance. Sternberg's point here is that intelligence needs to be able to be applied and be useful in practical situations.* Certainly Emotional Intelligence has the potential to fit into this framework because it involves a link between cognitive activity and emotional perceptions and reactions, a process that every individual working in an organisation faces everyday.

Sternberg (1985) suggests that three criteria determine the existence of intelligence. First, he suggests that intelligence should reflect behaviour in the real world, relevant to the culture the individual lives in. Second, it should be purposive or goal directed. Third, it should involve either adaptation to the environment (fluid intelligence) or the automatization of high level processes (crystallized ability). *Thus with even the critics of the concept of Emotional Intelligence acknowledging it's potential as a crystallized ability, (Stankov 1999), it appears tenable that emotional intelligence can be considered as intelligence and could contribute to predicting performance in organisations.*

Emotions & EI

The question of a definition of emotion has been posed in a number of papers about emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Frijda (1986) points out that emotions are inextricably linked to behaviour. She notes that emotions provide an explanation for behaviour that has no other external purpose or reason. Ortony, Clore and Collins (1988) advance this position by stating that emotions are one of the most common aspects of experience that can both enrich and dramatically disrupt that experience. They consider that emotions strongly affect judgement and performance, a point that is supported by other authors (Janis & Mann 1979). Frijda (1986) and Ortony et al. (1988) suggests that emotions are produced by significant events and are therefore a result of cognitive processes.

Much of the non-functionality ascribed to emotions does not issue from emotion *per se*, but rather from concerns that underlie emotions (Frijda, 1986). *Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) argue that emotions contribute to workplace performance and provide an insight into organisational behaviour.*

While intelligence research in general has been focussed on predicting success and performance potential, emotions research has been focussed on predicting or explaining behaviour. Clearly, there is a link between individual behaviours and success in that specific behaviour will lead to success. Therefore emotional intelligence has the potential to contribute to improved performance in organisations.

The Link between Intelligence and Emotions

Forgas (1995), contends that the processes linking affect to thinking and judgements remain incompletely understood. He notes that most of the existing research has focussed on the effect of emotion on judgements. In comparison, intelligence is most commonly used to address the question of how effectively a person is behaving in relation to externally or internally defined criteria (Ford, 1994). Ford argues that there is a need for theories and constructs that link the processes of human behaviour with effectiveness criteria. In a business environment, emotional intelligence appears to have the potential to provide one of those links.

Evolution of the Concept of Emotional Intelligence

A paradigm, writes Thomas Kuhn, in his landmark work *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (1970), “is an object for further articulation and specification under new or more stringent conditions.” He adds that once a model or paradigm has been articulated, the signs of scientific vigor include “the proliferation of competing articulations, the willingness to try anything, the expression of explicit discontent, the recourse to philosophy and to debate over fundamentals.” By Kuhn’s criteria, the emotional intelligence paradigm shows signs of having reached a state of scientific maturity.

It has taken decades to reach this point. In the field of psychology the roots of EI theory go back at least to the beginning of the intelligence testing movement. E.L. Thorndike (1920), professor of educational psychology at Columbia University Teachers College, was one of the first to identify the aspect of EI he called social intelligence. In 1920 he included it in the broad spectrum of capacities that individuals possess, their “varying amounts of different intelligences.” Social Intelligence, wrote Thorndike is “the ability to understand and manage men and women and to act wisely in human relations.” It is an ability that “shows itself abundantly in the nursery, on the playground, in the barracks and factories and salesrooms, but it eludes the formal standardized conditions of the testing laboratory.” Although Thorndike did once purpose a means of evaluating social intelligence in the lab – a simple process of matching pictures of emotive faces with descriptions of emotions – he also maintained that because social intelligence manifests in social interaction, “genuine situations with real persons would be necessary” to accurately measure it.

In 1937, Robert Thorndike and Saul Stern reviewed the attempts to measure the social intelligence E.L. Thorndike had discussed, identifying three different areas “adjacent to social intelligence, perhaps related to it, and often confused with it”. The first area encompassed primarily an individual’s attitude towards society and it’s various components: politics, economics and values such as honesty. The second involved social knowledge: being well-versed in sports, contemporary issues and general “information about society”. This area seemed often conflated with the first. The third kind of social intelligence was the individual’s degree of social adjustment: introversion and extroversion were measured by individual responses to questionnaires.

But Thorndike and Stern concluded that the attempts to measure “the ability to deal with people” had more or less failed. “It may be that social intelligence is a complex of several different abilities, or a complex of an enormous number of specific social habits and attitudes”. And they added “We hope that further investigation, via situation tests, movies etc. getting closer to the actual social reaction and further from words, may throw more light on the nature of ability to manage and understand people.”

The next half century of psychology, dominated as it was by the behaviourist paradigm on one hand and IQ testing on the other, turned it’s back on the EI concept. Still even David Weschler (1952), as he continued to develop his widely used IQ test, nodded to “affective capacities” as part of the human repertoire of capabilities.

Switching our historical lens to Industrial/Organisational Psychology in the 1940’s we see that under the direction of Hemphill, the Ohio State Leadership Studies suggested that ‘consideration’ is an important aspect of effective leadership. More specifically this research suggested that leaders who are able to establish “mutual trust, respect and a certain warmth and rapport” with members of their group will be more effective. At about the same time the Office of Strategic Services developed a process of assessment based on the earlier work of Murray that included the evaluation of non-cognitive as well as cognitive abilities. The process evolved into the “assessment center”, which was first used in the private sector at AT&T in 1956. Many of the dimensions measured in assessment centers then and now involve social and emotional competencies such as communication, sensitivity, initiative and interpersonal skills.

Howard Gardner (1983) had a major hand in resurrecting EI theory in psychology. His influential model of multiple intelligence includes two varieties of personal intelligence, the interpersonal and the intra-personal intelligences. EI can be seen as elaborating on the role of emotion in these domains.

By the early 1990’s there was a long tradition of research on the role of non-cognitive factors in helping people to succeed in both life and in the workplace. The current work on emotional intelligence builds on this foundation.

Reuven Bar-One (1998) developed perhaps the first attempt to assess EI in terms of a measure of well-being. In his doctoral dissertation he used the term Emotional Quotient (EQ), long before it gained widespread popularity as a name for Emotional Intelligence. Bar-One now defines (2000a) EI in terms of an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that influence our overall ability to effectively cope with environmental demands. This array includes (1) The ability to be aware of, to understanding and to express oneself; (2) the ability to be aware of, to understand and to relate to others; (3) the ability to deal with strong emotions and control one’s impulses; and (4) the ability to adapt to change and to solve problems of a personal or social nature. The five main domains in his model are interpersonal skills, intrapersonal skills, adaptability, stress management and general mood (Bar-One, 1997b).

Bar-One offered the following rationale for his use of the term emotional intelligence:

Intelligence describes the aggregate of abilities, competencies and skills that represent a collection of *knowledge used to cope with life effectively*. The adjective *emotional* is employed to emphasize that this specific type of intelligence differs from cognitive intelligence.

Bar-One's theoretical work combines what may qualify as mental abilities (e.g. Emotional self-awareness) with other characteristics that are considered separate from mental ability, such as personal independence, self-regard and mood; this makes it a mixed model. However, it is suggested that there is no correlation between mood and intelligence (Watson, 1930, Journal of Educational Psychology).

Bar-One's model predicts success. At a broad level he believes that EQ along with IQ can provide a more balanced picture of a persons general intelligence.

Finally, in 1990, Peter Salovey at Yale and his colleague John Mayer published the seminal article "Emotional Intelligence", the most influential statement of EI theory in its current form. Salovey and Mayer's original model (1990), identified emotional intelligence as *the ability to monitor one's own and other feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action*. Citing a need to distinguish emotional intelligence abilities from social traits or talents, Salovey and Mayer evolved a model with a cognitive emphasis. It focussed on specific mental aptitudes for recognizing and marshalling emotions (for example, knowing what someone is feeling is a mental aptitude, whereas being outgoing and warm is a behaviour. It must include some measure of thinking about feeling, not simply perceiving and regulating feeling.

Their current model is decidedly cognitive in focus. In this model emotional intelligence comprises of four tiers of abilities that range from basic psychological processes to more complex processes integrating emotion and cognition. In the first tier of this "mental ability model" is the complex of skills that allow an individual to perceive, appraise and express emotions. Abilities here include identifying one's own and other emotions, expressing one's own emotions and discriminating the expression of emotions in others. The second tier abilities involve using emotions to facilitate and prioritize thinking: employing the emotions to aid in judgement, recognizing that mood swings can lead to a consideration of alternative viewpoints, and understanding that a shift in emotional state and perspective can encourage different kinds of problem solving. In the third tier are such skills as labeling and distinguishing between emotions (differentiating liking and loving, for instance), understanding complex mixtures of feelings (love and hate-ambivalence), and formulating rules about feelings: like that anger often gives way to shame and that loss is usually accompanied by sadness. The fourth tier of the model is the general ability to marshal the emotions in support of some social goal. In this more complex level of emotional intelligence are the skills that allow individuals to selectively engage in or detach from emotions and to monitor and manage emotions in themselves and in others.

Salovey and Mayer's (1997) model is developmental: the complexity of emotional skill grows from the first tier to the fourth. However, all the mental aptitudes they describe fit within the general matrix of self-other recognition or regulation.

The mental ability model of emotional intelligence predicts internal structure of the intelligence and also it's implications for a person's life. The model also predicts that emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to (a) have grown up in biologically adaptive households (i.e. have had emotionally sensitive parenting), (b) be non-defensive, (c) be able to reframe emotions effectively (i.e. be realistically optimistic and appreciative), (d) choose good emotional role models, (e) be able to communicate and

discuss feelings and (f) develop expert knowledge in a particular emotional area such as aesthetics, moral or ethical feeling, social problem solving, leadership or spiritual feeling.

**Table 1.1: Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, 1997)
Reflective Regulation of Emotions to Promote Emotional and Intellectual Growth**

Ability to stay open to feelings, both those that are pleasant and unpleasant	Ability to reflectively engage or detach from an emotion depending upon it's judged informativeness or utility.	Ability to relatively monitor emotions in relation to oneself and others, such as recognizing how clear, typical, influential or reasonable they are.	Ability to manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones, without repressing or exaggerating information they may convey.
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Methodology

This is an attempt to present the statement of the problem, its rationale, objectives, sample, tools and techniques used.

Statement of the Problem

The present research is an attempt to study the role of teacher's background variables, the organizational climate, the teachers' motivation and, the emotional intelligence on teacher effectiveness in different types of schools in Delhi.

Rationale of the Problem

It is generally agreed that the "effectiveness" of an educational programme, to a large extent, is shaped by the quality of teachers available to implement it. A school may have materials resources, equipment, building, library and other facilities alongwith a curricula appropriately adopted to suit the community need, but if the teachers are indifferent to their responsibilities, the educational outcome is likely to be ineffective and wasted. The problem of identification of effective teachers is therefore, of prime importance for realising desirable educational goals. An effective teacher may be understood as one who helps in the development of basic skills, ensure understanding, having proper work habits, having desirable attitudes, value judgment and adequate personal judgment of the students (Ryan, 1969).

The following variables were investigated in the present study:

Independent Variables

Personal factors:

- (1) Emotional Intelligence
- (2) Teacher Motivation to work
- (3) Background variables

Contextual factors:

- (1) School Organization Climate
- (2) Nature and Types of School

Dependent variables

Teacher effectiveness

Objectives of the Study

The review of research literature indicates that teacher effectiveness is a function of complex interaction of several variables and that there is hardly any study investigating the role of emotional intelligence of teacher, teacher motivation to work and school organisational climate in teacher effectiveness.

The main objectives of the study are as follow:

1. To investigate the differences if any between Government schools and public schools in Delhi on emotional intelligence, teachers' motivation to work, school organizational climate.
2. To investigate the differences, if any between public excellent, good and average schools of Delhi on emotional intelligence, teacher's motivation to work, school organizational climate and teacher effectiveness.
3. To investigate the differences, if any between government excellent, good and average schools of Delhi on emotional intelligence, teachers' motivation to work, school organizational climate and teacher effectiveness.

Sample

It is an inherent belief and assumption prevailing in the mind of Indian citizen that the e or environment of Government schools is inferior to that of public schools, inspite of the fact that there is little difference in the courses taught in both schools. It is believed the in Government schools, there is lack of discipline, and extra-curricular activities besides lack of dedication on the part of the teachers to develop and shape the cognitive and creative abilities of the children. This could be one of the reasons for the low academic performance, by and large, of students of Government schools. On other hand, it is considered that the public schools are not better managed having more discipline and extra curricular activities but they also provide children with more facilities and opportunities for learning. Children of public schools exposed to a wider array of stimula through different training methods and techniques which faster not only cognitive development but also indicate higher value of life in them.

In the present study, two stages sampling were undertaken. In stage I, Government and public senior secondary schools were selected on the basis of the performance criterion into excellent performance schools, good performance schools and average performance schools. Many investigators (Jena and Dhillon 1996, Sharma 1981, Mohan Khare 1982; Lao 1980 and Chadha 1984 and 1989) have used annual examination result of the students as the achievement criterion and they found that aggregate marks is a more reliable index of general academic performance than scores obtained on any particular achievement test.

In the present study criterion of excellent performance schools, good performance schools and average performance schools is based on their performance of the last three years in the 10th and 12th classes Central Board of Secondary Education examination (for the last three years). Class Xth and XIIth results have been used as an index of academic performance as the board results are a fair evaluation and rule out any personal biases. In this study, the pass percentage of class Xth and XIIth of the schools for the last three years were taken into account starting from 2004 to 2006.

The criterion of excellent performance schools, good performance schools and average performance schools.

- (i) Excellent performance schools: 98-100 pass percentage and 20% pass distinction (A) for three consecutive years.
- (ii) Good performance schools: 80-90 pass percentage and 5-10 percent distinction (grade 'A') for three consecutive years.

- (iii) Average performance schools: 60-70 pass percentage and 2-5 percent distinction (grade 'A') for three consecutive years.

The Government and public schools which were recognised by Delhi Administration and fulfilled the criterion were selected for the study. Total number of schools selected for the study were 13. All these thirteen schools were selected on the basis performance shown in CBSE Board Examination. Out of 13 schools 6 schools were Government schools in which two were categorised excellent performance schools, two were good performance schools, and other two were average performance schools. Similarly, 7 public senior secondary school were selected for the sample of which three were categorised as excellent performance public schools, 2 were categorised as good performance public schools and other 2 schools were categorised as average performance public schools.

In the second stage of sampling from the selected schools 360 teachers, both male and female were sampled. The detailed procedures for the selection of these 360 teachers is presented below in the Schematic diagram. For the selection of the teachers from these schools incidental sampling technique was followed, that is teachers who were present on the days the investigators visited the schools and were willing to cooperate, comprised the sample of the study.

Statistical Treatment of Data

1. Descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation skewness and kurtosis)
2. Inferential analysis (t-test)
3. Graphical representation of data
4. Correlational analysis
5. Multiple regression analysis

Descriptive statistics

To determine the central tendencies and dispersion of the distribution of the scores obtained by the subjects on all the variables included in this study the computation of the mean and standard deviation were undertaken alongwith mean and standard deviation skewness and kurtosis were also computed for the scores obtained by the subjects on all the variables included in this study.

2. Inferential statistics

This analysis included the 't-test' or computation of significant differences between mean value of different types school climates teacher motivation to work, emotional intelligence and teacher effectiveness of excellent performance, good performance and average performance schools (government and public schools) in Delhi.

3. Graphic Representation

The graphic representation provides vivid pictures a glance of a set of quantitative data. In this study bar-diagrams were drawn to graphically demonstrate the difference in mean values in different types of schools on the variables undertaken in the present study.

4. Correlational Analysis

To understand the relationship between types of the different variables included in the present study coefficients of correlation were computed.

5. Step-wise Multiple Regression Analysis

A correlation coefficient gives a quantitative determination of the degree of relationship between two variables. But multiple regression 'r' no information as to the character of the association and one cannot assume a caused sequence unless there is evidence beyond the correlation coefficient itself. A correlation is simply a measure of mutual association between two variables. One technique of finding the cause and effect relationship is regression analysis, variables $x_1, x_2 \dots x_n$ are used to predict y . Step-wise multiple

regression analysis is a method for studying the effects and magnitude of more than one independent variables on one dependent variable, using principles of correlation and regression.

Results and Interpretation

Table 1.1
Comparison between Excellent Public and Excellent Government School on teacher effectiveness
teacher motivation to work, emotional intelligence
and the school organisational climate

	Level of School (1= Excellent Pub. School, 2= Excellent Gov. School)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t Values
Teacher effectiveness	1.00	60	326.750 0	10.31639	4.632* *
	2.00	61	303.491 8	37.52449	
School Organisational Climate	1.00	60	221.633 3	31.00682	2.886* *
	2.00	61	203.426 2	37.97388	
Teacher motivation Scale	1.00	60	136.450 0	14.59559	4.232* *
	2.00	61	123.573 8	18.59880	
Teacher Motivation Test	1.00	60	133.550 0	8.76516	9.385* *
	2.00	61	106.754 1	20.33606	
Work Satisfaction	1.00	60	31.7333	3.39924	4.115* *
	2.00	61	28.0820	5.98970	
Work pressure	1.00	60	35.5000	6.32590	1.563
	2.00	61	32.9672	10.87040	
Personal Pressure	1.00	60	34.0500	4.88660	5.532* *
	2.00	61	27.2459	8.20296	
Personal Satisfaction	1.00	60	20.3667	1.51788	1.148
	2.00	61	21.2131	5.50792	
Emotional self Awareness	1.00	60	27.0000	4.87122	3.611* *
	2.00	61	22.9180	7.30136	
Emotional Experience	1.00	60	22.7000	2.65087	2.598*
	2.00	61	20.4262	6.24889	
Emotional Awareness of Others	1.00	60	27.7833	6.10388	.243
	2.00	61	28.0492	5.91446	
Resilience	1.00	60	30.5667	5.24765	3.238* *
	2.00	61	27.3443	5.68590	
Compassion	1.00	60	31.0333	3.84429	5.457*

	2.00	61	26.1475	5.79320	*
Personal Power	1.00	60	32.1333	3.46638	6.939*
	2.00	61	24.2131	8.14476	*
Integrity	1.00	60	22.7833	3.17347	5.214*
	2.00	61	18.9508	4.74491	*
Relationship Quotient	1.00	60	18.8667	2.05407	3.068*
	2.00	61	17.1967	3.69152	*
Optimal Performance	1.00	60	18.2000	2.08139	2.347*
	2.00	61	17.0984	2.99280	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 1.1 shows that there is a significant difference between excellent public schools and excellent government schools on the dimensions of teacher effectiveness, school organisational climate, teacher motivation scale, teacher motivation test, work satisfaction, work pressure, personal pressure, emotional self-awareness, resilience, compassion, personal power, integrity, and relationship quotient at .01 level of significance. It is also observed that excellent public schools differed from excellent government schools on the dimension of Emotional Experience and optimal performance at .05 level of significance.

However, no significant difference was observed between excellent public schools and excellent government schools on the dimension of work pressure and emotional awareness of others.

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