CHAPTER-I

INTRODUCTION

A teacher is the key figure in the building of a nation. The task of a teacher is transaction of knowledge imparting the skill and inculcation of values. The role of a teacher is very important for the development of the child. Unless the country has persons of proper temperament and ability as teachers, it cannot have citizens of great vision and character. God creates human being the shape of her image, the teacher fashions child in the shape of his/her own image.

Since ages, the teacher’s role is regarded as an important one not only in molding the personality of the child but also in shaping the society. At the same time it is important to realize that an incompetent teacher is much more dangerous to the nation. According to Patanker (1999) teachers shape the destiny of the nation in the classroom. They develop societies, indicate path of progress to the nation, and sustain the human aspects of existence. They nurture and cultivate humanistic, ethical and moral values among pupils. Due to technological progress and new visits of knowledge resulting from scientific innovations, the role of teacher is assuming new dimensions. According to Mathuri Shah (1994) “The teacher has an important, vital role to play in efforts to relate education to national development and social change. It is the responsibly of the teacher to guide and inspire students, to enrich his discipline, to inculcate values, which are in consonance with our cultural heritage and our social objectives.

The importance of the quality of teachers should be overemphasized because the strength and success of an educational system depends on them whether they teach in schools, colleges or universities. Actually the quality of a nation depends on the quality of its citizens, quality of citizens depends on the quality of their education and quality of education depends on the quality of their teachers.

Quality depends on a large number of factors. It is on the vision and leadership of the head of the institutions along with his committed team of teachers that the quality mainly depends. A teacher should have thorough understanding about the
latest techniques and methods of transaction. He should constantly renew his knowledge, methodology and techniques.

The personal and professional qualities of a teacher influence their professional efficiency. More competent and committed teachers are required in the classroom because the best curriculum and the most perfect syllabus remain ineffective in the absence of a good teacher. The teaching profession inherently certain well-known self-obvious and implicit obligations, commitments and expectations from its members.

Teacher education programmes prepare future teachers for lifelong learning and professionalism. To be professionals, teachers require a foundation of professional knowledge upon which to base instructional decisions. As professionals, teachers must base decisions on systematic knowledge foster enquiry and the discovery of new knowledge. Providing teachers with professional skills consisting of education (knowledge of) and training (skill in) called as education of teachers.

A teacher education programmes prepare a teacher as more mature and confident to perform his task more efficiently. Proper education to the teacher enables him to have knowledge of how children grow, develop and learn, how they can be taught effectively and how their inner potentialities can be brought and developed.

Dictionary of education C.V.Good (1973), defines teacher education as “All formal and in-formal activities and experience that help to qualify a person to assume the responsibility as a member of the educational profession or to discharge his responsibilities most effectively”.

It is true that the nation is built by its citizens, citizens are moulded by teachers and teachers are made by teacher educators. Teacher educators play an inevitable role not as a mere transmitter of knowledge and culture but as a change agent also. They prepare the next generations, and it is the level of their commitment, devotion and dedication that determines the future society.

The National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE) came into being as a statutory organization in 1993 with a mandate to regulate teacher education in the country. Initial training of teachers (pre-service teacher training) is organized at the
three levels, i.e. pre-primary teacher education, elementary education and secondary teacher education.

Pre primary teacher education is organized to prepare teachers for teaching pre-primary classes, i.e. Nursery and kindergarten. The minimum qualification for admission into the pre-primary teacher education programme is senior secondary examination, i.e., 12 yrs schooling. The duration of the course is one to two years. Pre- primary teacher training institutions are mostly unaided and private institutions.

Elementary teacher education is organized to train teachers mainly for primary classes from 1 to 5; DIET’s have been set up in all the states to prepare elementary level teachers. An important feature of these is DIETS not only providing pre-service teacher education, they also provide in-service education to teachers. Apart from DIET’s some other teacher educational institutions e.g. CTES are offering pre-service teacher education at this level.

Colleges of Education prepare teachers to teach at secondary level and senior secondary level of education. Some university departments also offer this course. At this level, we have Government financing institutions of Education and self-financing colleges of education affiliated to the respective universities.

Teacher educators are like a burning lamp having burning oil for lighting the mind and hearts of pupil-teachers. To provide quality teacher education at the elementary and secondary level, teacher-educators have to maintain a high level of academic and professional competence so as to prepare the best teachers for our country’s schools. Unless, teacher educators are in a position to provide worthwhile experiences to our pupil teachers for realizing the stipulated teacher education objectives related to a particular type of teacher education course, the talk of any worthwhile quality teacher education would be futile by all means.

At this juncture of time, where unprecedented changes of knowledge and action manifest in all the diversions of worldly life, the role of teacher educators needs to take a positive direction. In other words, the need is to have quality teacher educators that mean, to have competent committed and willing to perform teacher educators.
PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT

“A person’s belief in and acceptance of the values of his or her chosen occupation or line of work, and a willingness to maintain membership in that occupation”

----Vandenberg and Scarpello (1994)

As regards the literary conception of the term commitment, the Cambridge International Dictionary of English says “Commitment” means to promise or give your loyalty or money to particular principle, person or plan of action. Commitment depicts the firm and not changing orientation in support of one’s belief in his/her principles.

The label “professional” has implications for an individual at the organizational and occupational level. A level of behaviour is expected by the organizational employing like professional, as well as by the external peer group that makes up the profession [Harrell, Chewing, and Taylor, 1986]. The extent to which individuals behave in the expected manner can be reflected in their commitment to the organization and profession.

Commitment can be defined as: (i) a belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of the profession; (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the profession, (iii) a desire to maintain membership in the profession.

According to Lodahl and Kejner (1965), “Professional commitment is the degree to which a person’s work performance affects his self-esteem”.

Salancki (1977) pointed out that “the concept of commitment is attitudinal in nature. It reflects how much closeness an individual feels with his organization or relationship.”

According to Morrow and Goetz (1988), “The extent to which one identifies with one’s profession and accepts its values”.

According to Morrow and Wirth (1989), “Professional commitment is an appropriate concept for representing at least part of the career focus dimension of work commitment.”
According to O'Reilly (1991) “Commitment is typically conceived of as an individual’s psychological bond to the organization including a sense of job-involvement, loyalty and belief in the values of the organization.”

Dave (1998) conceptualized that “Well-trained and effective teachers are those who are both competent as well as committed professional practitioners.” He elaborated the following five commitment areas of a teacher, (i) Commitment to the learner, (ii) Commitment to the society, (iii) Commitment to the profession. (iv) Commitment to achieve excellence, (v) Commitment to basic human values.

Mariados (2000) stated that “Commitment is a deep and profound value of emotional intelligence. It means aligning with the goals of a group or organization and applying oneself completely for a cause.”

Commitment refers to “Socio-psychological bonding of an individual to his group or organization, its goals and values or to his occupation and profession.”

The professional commitment can be explained by three distinct component measures. The multidimensional understanding of professional commitment could have important implications for understanding the psychological bond between a professional and their particular profession. Meyer et al. (1993) defined three distinct components of professional commitment. These components are called affective professional commitment (APC). Continuance professional commitment (CPC) and normative professional commitment (NPC) Affective Professional Commitment (APC) refers to identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the profession. Thus, employees with strong affective professional commitment remain members of their profession because. They want to do so. For example, professionals with a strong sense of affective commitment to their profession will keep up with developments in their profession subscribe to trade journals, attend professional meetings, and participate in their professional association.

Continuance professional Commitment (CPC) refers to commitment based on the employee’s recognition of the costs associated with leaving their profession employees with strong continence. Commitment remains with their profession because they realize that they have much to lose by not doing so. For example
professionals with high levels of continuance commitments might be less inclined to involve themselves in professional activities other than those required to retain membership of their profession (Meyer et al., 1993). Normative professional Commitment refers to commitment based on a sense of obligation to the professional. Employees with strong normative professional commitment remain members of their profession because they feel they ought to do so. Normative professional commitment may develop because of effective professional socialization or scarifies involved in becoming a member of a particular profession.

All three components of professional commitment have implications for an employee’s staying with (or leaving) their profession. Common to these three components it is understandable that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employees’ relationship with their profession and (b) has implications for the employee’s decision to continue or discontinue membership of their profession.

Three Dimensional View of Professional Commitment
Mayer, Allen and Smith (1993) gave three dimensional view of professional commitment. These forms are:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Forms of Commitment</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Affective Commitment</td>
<td>Refers to a psychological attachment to the organizations (i.e., individuals stay with the organizations because they want to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Continuance Commitment</td>
<td>Refers to the lost associated with leaving the organization (i.e., individuals stay with the organization because they need to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Normative Commitment</td>
<td>Refers to the perceived obligations to remain with the organization (i.e., individuals stay with the organization because they feel they should).</td>
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**Affective Commitment (AC)**

It has been considered to be that type of commitment based on the individual’s identification with the involvement in the organization. It is an emotional commitment where people that are in a great deal affectively connected to an organization stay within it because they want to.

**Continuance Commitment (CC)**

It is based upon the material and psychological costs involved by one’s leaving the organizations, people with such kind of commitment remaining within it because they are compelled to do so. The denomination has been attributed by Meyer and Allen that have started from the “side-bet” theory, created in 1960 by Becker. Side-bets represent investment in values of any kind, made both by the employees and the organization that are not connected through work, but serve to ensuring a certain continuity within the organization.
The benefits offered by the organization usually refer to health insurance or certain systems of promotion or retirement, which benefits reduce the attractiveness of other employment opportunities. Actually, Becker referred to this type of commitment as “the individual’s tendency to commit to a consistent line of activity”. We may notice the commitment becomes more and more accountable, reflecting a cumulus of interests of the employees, accepted and fulfilled by the organization. That “binds”. The individual to the organization leading therefore to a sort of exchange or informal contract.

**Normative Commitment (NC)**

Normative commitment is based upon an ideology or a sense of obligation towards the organization on the individual’s moral belief that is right and moral to continue within the organization, because they think they should. This feeling of obligation is the result of internationalizing the norms a exerted on the norms extorted on the individual before of following his admission into the organization, through the process of family or cultural socialization and, accordingly, organizational socialization.

Professional commitment is referred to as the psychological link between an individual and his occupation that is based on an affective reaction to that occupation. A person with higher occupational commitment strongly identifies and has positive feelings towards his profession. Professional commitment has become an increasingly important construct for researchers. Due to recent change in educational situations including uncertainties in the future, job rotation, organizational restructuring, employee resizing job insecurity perceptions, and contingency workforce growth.

According to earlier studies, professional commitment refers to a person’s belief in and acceptance of the values of his or her chose profession or like of work and a willingness to maintain membership in that occupation/ profession (Morrow and Writh, 1989; Ritzer and Trice, 1969; Soreson and Sorenson, 1974). The prior research has defined professional commitment as the “psychological link between an individual and his/her profession that is based on an affective reaction to that profession.” (Lee, Carswell and Allen, 2000). An individual with higher professional
commitment would strongly identify with his profession and have positive feeling towards it (Blau, 1985).

**PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT IN TEACHERS**

The quality of teaching depends a great deal on the level of teachers involvement in relation to the professional exerted, to the organization. One is part of and the professional satisfaction that one feels. One the one side, the relation the nature of the teaching activity and the work carried on in the professional community, the relations with peers, superiors, students’ parent’s leads to professional achievement and indirectly, it reflects into the achievements of one’s students.

We may say that the teacher’s reaction during teaching activity represents a complex pattern, including specific attitudes and behaviour. A multitude a individual characteristics may affect their work reaction, aspirations, reasons, needs, perceptions, personality, ability to learn, creativity, as well as organizational characteristics, including working conditions, benefits, colleagues, leading style, company’s policy, promotion opportunities etc. These factors are inter-related and influence employees in what concern attitudes and behaviour.

The commitment of the teacher can be identified in the six different forms. These six categories represent different ways that teachers perceive, understand and conceptualize the phenomenon of commitment of the teachers. The six identified categories are:

1. **Teacher commitment as a ‘passion’**. This conception sees teacher commitment as a passion or a positive emotional attachment to the work involved in teaching generally, or a specific aspect of teaching

2. **Teacher commitment as an investment of time** outside of contact hours with students. This conception identified teacher commitment as an investment of extra time outside of expected contact hours with students. This extra time is discussed as either visible time invested at the school site or invisible time invested off the school site.
3. **Teacher committed as a focus on the individual needs of the student.** This conception considers teacher commitment to be a sharp focus on the needs of the student. Student needs are discussed as either emotional and/or academic.

4. **Teacher commitment as a responsibility to impart knowledge, attitudes, values and beliefs.** This conception considers teacher commitment as taking responsibility for imparting a body of knowledge and/or certain attitudes, values and beliefs. Teachers who hold this conception place great value on the role that they play in preparing students for the future and take responsibility for passing on core set of skills, understandings and values.

5. **Teacher commitment as ‘maintaining professional knowledge’.** This conception views teacher commitment as the maintenance of professional knowledge and on-going professional learning. Within this conceptualization is the notion that committed teachers are proactive in their professional development and in many cases are willing to share with and learn from their colleagues.

6. **Teacher commitment as engagement with the school community.** This conception considers teacher commitment to be the willingness to engage with the school and the school’s community. Within this conceptualization is the belief that teachers have a professional responsibility that reaches out beyond the four walls of the classroom and perhaps even extends beyond the boundary of the school.

**Organizational Commitment and Professional Commitment concept Delimitations**

Organizational commitment is made up of more factors, such as faith and acceptance of the organisation’s sit of values and objectives, the employee’s wish to strive for the organization and a strong will to keep working within it.

The efficiency of an educational organization depends on more details, one of the most important is the interaction between the administrator, the teacher and the students, who are permanent items of the learning and teaching processes. Within this interaction, the school manager is the headmaster and the manager of the class is the
teacher. From this perspective, teacher takes to the teaching tasks and activities, to their students, occupation and colleagues; in other words, the teachers’ attitude may have positive influence on the efficiency of the school they are part of.

The shapes of professional commitment and, accordingly, organizational commitment represents behavioural predictors of work achievements, absenteeism, fluctuation, but also of the professional satisfaction.

The concept of professional commitment of signifies an attitude reflecting the strength of the bound between an employee and an organization. Most of the authors defines this concept as “the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in an organization (Morrow, 1993, Wang, 1999) or the “psychological attachment felt by an individual within an organization and reflecting the degree to which an individual has interiorized and adopted the organization's characteristics or perspective”

Professional commitment is “the degree to which a person’s work performance affects his self-esteem” (Ladahl and Kejner, 1965). For a person who is professionally committed, work is a vital part of life. This means that both the work itself and the coworkers are very meaningful to the employee, in addition to the importance s/he attaches to the organization as a whole. Active participation in decision-making increase involvement and professional commitment, which result in a higher level of acceptance and satisfaction.

Quality of education is directly linked with quality of teachers. Up to 1950 there was no serious discussion on the quality of education and in those days it was commonly believed that teachers are committed to their profession.

Commitment is involvement and dedication; it is a teacher’s mental and physical effort. Commitment is the word used to distinguish those who are ‘caring’, ‘dedicated’ and who take the job seriously from those who put their own interest first. Commitment is a part of teacher’s affective or emotional reaction to their experience in an educational setting. It can be seen as a part of a learned behaviour or attitude associated with the professional behaviour of teacher. Professional growth and professional ethics should be the sole criteria for selection of career improvement of
teachers. The success of teacher education program solely depends upon teacher educators. Three aspects are necessary for the capacity building of teachers they are: a.) commitment b.) confidence c.) Competence.

Commitment can be measured from the following aspects:

- love for learning and learners
- Impact of teachers work on changing society
- Professional ethics
- Excellence inside and outside the class, social/ institutions and outside the institution
- Human values- honesty, loyalty to nation and objectivity.

A professional committed teacher gives equal chance and importance to all students at the right time to ensure optimum level of achievement. A committed teacher acts as an active school-classroom manager, leader and organizer of the group activities, builder of pupil’s character and is often expected to undertake and promote learner activities. It is the urge of a teacher to update, strengthen and sharpen his professional competencies and to develop understanding and insight in different aspects of a profession, punctuality, positive attitudes towards co-workers, enthusiasm, co-operation, honesty etc. can be viewed as the examples of commitment to basic human values.

THINKING STYLE OF TEACHERS

During the last few decades, there has been a radical change in every field on account of scientific inventions and technological advancement. To meet the challenges and requirements of this fast developing society, young people need to grow in the ability to think rationally and to express their thoughts clearly. Independent thinking, careful analysis and objective assessment contribute to the success in any field.

Thinking is one of the important aspects of one’s cognitive behaviour. Most often the comments like “think before you act” or “think before you feel” indicates
that thinking provides the base on which not only our cognitive but also affective and conative behaviour depends.

According to Garrett,” Thinking behaviour which is often implicit and hidden and in which symbols like images, ideas, concepts are ordinarily employed.

Thinking has a definite end or purpose. It is initiated to solve some difficulty or problem and ends in its solution. In the solution of the problems it does not resort to motor exploration but there is a mental manipulation of the objects, activities and experiences.

Sternberg stated that individuals did not have a style but a profile of styles and to be successful one’s preferred styles, abilities and environmental demands needs to match. Since the essence is the true match between styles, abilities and environmental demands, individuals could arrange the tasks they face or transform the style they prefer. In other words, styles can be modified or the efficient style can be adopted for the specific situation (Sternberg, 2009). This modification is also proven by research; Zhang (2001) stated that thinking styles are at variance due to age, gender and socioeconomic status and added number of hobbies, job, travel and leadership experience as other factors affecting thinking styles.

Thinking style refers to the way an individual prefers to process and manage the intellect and knowledge (Zhang & Sternberg, 2000). Sternberg (2009) defined 5 dimensions, which are functions, forms, levels, scopes and leanings, and 13 thinking styles grouped under these dimensions in the theory of mental self-government. Functions refer to the individual preference of initiating new ideas and practice, setting regulations or evaluating. Legislative, executive and judicial thinking styles are included in this dimension. The second dimension, which is forms, includes monarchic, hierarchic, oligarchic and anarchic styles and refers to how individuals prefer to approach the life events. Levels, including global and local thinking styles, identify the individuals focusing on abstract and large issues or the individuals paying attention to concrete issues and details. The forth dimension is scopes, which embrace internal and external styles, and refers to preference of individuals to be introverts or extraverts. Leanings, which include liberal and conservative thinking styles, is the
fifth dimension defined by Sternberg and associated with the flexibility of individuals about transcending existing rules or adherence to the rules. Besides the dimensions of the theory, Zhang and Sternberg (2006) classified intellectual styles, which encompass thinking styles, into three types. Type I styles are perceived more positive and adaptive whereas Type II styles are more negative and less adaptive. The styles categorized under Type I or Type II are considered as being value-laden as they are evaluated as being more or less adaptive and positive or negative. Whereas Type III styles are value differentiated since they are neither positive nor negative but adaptability depends on the requirements of a task and situation. Based on this general classification researchers grouped thinking styles; Type I thinking styles include the legislative, judicial, hierarchical, global, and liberal styles, Type II thinking styles include the executive, local, monarchic, and conservative styles, and Type III styles include the anarchic, oligarchic, internal, and external styles. Type I thinking styles are defined as more creativity-generating, Type II are characterized by a norm-favouring tendency, while depending on the demands of the specific task Type III may reveal the characteristics of both Types I and II styles.

Global thinking style is characterized by concentrating on the big picture, ignoring details, preferring abstractness, enjoying generalization, conceptualizing and thinking (Sternberg, 2009; Zhang & Sternberg, 2001). Whereas local style identify focusing on details, preferring concreteness, avoiding conceptual analysis and experiencing difficulty in distinguishing important from unimportant (Fer, 2005; Sternberg, 2009).

The studies on thinking styles can be clustered under three approaches. First group of studies focus on the relationship between thinking styles and personal variables, such as socioeconomic status, birth-order and age, and environmental characteristics, exemplified with learning settings, parental thinking styles and preferred extracurricular activities. The second group explores the role of thinking styles on different aspects, such as academic achievement, cognitive and psychosocial development of student development and learning. The third group investigates how thinking styles correspond to other style constructs, for instance Biggs’ learning approaches and Holland’s career personality types (Zhang & Sternberg, 2006).
Before widening the concept of thinking styles and the approaches, style itself needs to be explained. The concept of style is emerged to be able to explain personal differences which cannot be understood only by personality and ability differences, and cognitive styles were the first type of style studied to bridge the cognition and personality (Zhang & Sternberg, 2006). As seen style is neither cognition not personality but the connection between them. Similarly, Zhang and Sternberg (2000) underlined that style is not the intellect itself but the way it is used. In other words, style is the bridge between skill and personality.

Thinking styles are encompassed by intellectual styles which also embrace cognitive styles, learning styles and problem-solving styles (Zhang & Sternberg, 2006). Intellectual style refers to an individual’s propensity to process information and deal with life events. Zhang and Sternberg (2006), depending on prior studies of Sternberg, perceive thinking styles a wider concept than learning and cognitive styles since they can be applied to both academic and non-academic settings. On the other hand it is stated that cognitive, learning and thinking styles are overlapping as they are used to process the same information; cognitive style is the ways an individual prefers to conceive information, learning style is how the individual prefers to learn that information whereas thinking style is the preference of the individual how to think about the information both during and after learning process.

Thinking styles frequently studied in educational concepts since thinking is the core of education and considered as being one of the components which shape the learning environment. In addition, in literature there are recent research which focused on thinking styles and technology usage (Kao, Lei, & Sun, 2007). But in psychology this concept did not attract much attention, although the way individuals think leads to thoughts which is one of the three main aspects of human beings as stated by Cloninger (2008). Thinking styles are cognitive preferences, which affect how an individual behaves and feels, and selected as a cognition representative for this study.

Generally, researchers preferred to consider thinking styles as a whole and study 13 styles together since they constitute a profile for an individual’s thinking preferences (Zhang, 2000). When the results of thinking style studies are examined,
the differences between global and local thinking styles and how they affect individuals can be identified. For example, teachers’ preferences between global and local thinking changes according to their profession (Zhang, 2008a), male students prefer global thinking more than females do (Zhang & Sternberg, 2006) and global thinking style is positively related with the ability to deal with emotions (Zhang, 2008c).

Zhang and Sternberg (2006) considered three types of thinking styles as the ground they based the nature of intellectual styles and related Type I styles with autonomy while researchers defined Type II styles with authority. Zhang and Sternberg (2006) also stated that teachers preferring Type I thinking styles tend to demonstrate positive perceptions about job environment and participate in positive experiences like attending training or extra-curricular activities.

Moreover, studies on levels-of-focus introduced relations among global and local focus, similar concepts with global and local thinking, and feelings. Gasper and Clore (2002) concluded that individuals who are feeling happier tend to focus on the big picture more than details of the picture compared to sadder individuals. Similarly, Derryberry and Reed (1998) stated that high anxious individuals attend to details more than low anxious ones. Likewise, Basso and his colleagues (1996) found that positive mood and optimism are positively related to global focus and negatively related to local focus, whereas depression and anxiety are positively related with the local focus. In the light of these findings, focusing on the forest or on the trees, in thinking style terms global or local thinking, seems to be related with happiness, optimism and psychological well-being.

In conceptualizing the thinking styles literature, there are four studies remarkable; which are Curry’s onion model (1983), Miller’s cognitive styles (1987), Riding and Cheema’s two dimensional style and learning strategies (1991) and Sternberg’s theory of mental self-government (1997) (Buluş, 2005). This study focuses on the last theory, Sternberg’s theory of mental self-government, which introduces the thinking levels as a dimension of thinking styles.
Theory of Mental Self-Government

The theory presented here, that of mental self-government (Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1995; Sternberg & Zhang, 2001), holds that styles can be understood in terms of constructs from human notions of government. On this view, the kinds of governments in the world are not merely coincidental, but rather are external reflections of ways people can organize or govern themselves. According to this theory, people can be understood in terms of the functions, forms, levels, scopes, and leanings of government. The theory of styles applies to education, but also to other domains of personal and professional life.

Functions

There are three functions of government in the theory: legislative, executive, and judicial.

Legislative. The legislative student has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that require creation, formulation, planning of ideas, strategies, etc. This kind of student likes to decide what to do and how to do it, rather than to be told. Three examples of assignments that would appeal to legislatively oriented children would be writing a creative story in an English lesson, inventing a new mathematical operation in a mathematics lesson, and writing an anticipated “future history”—predicted description of events to come—in a history class.

Executive. The executive student has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that provide structure, procedures, or rules to work with, and can serve as guidelines to measure progress. The executive student often prefers to be told what to do, and will then give it his or her best shot at doing it well. Three examples of assignments that would appeal to primarily executively oriented children would be memorizing capitals of states in the United States in a geography class, learning number facts in an arithmetic class, and learning the names of rocks in an earth science class.

Traditional teaching generally rewards the executive type. Good students are often seen as those who do what they are told, and do it well. Legislative students may have the same abilities, but the abilities may not manifest themselves, and such students may actually be viewed as “pains in the neck.” The student with an executive
orientation will take naturally to memorizing given material, taking multiple-choice or short-answer tests, and doing assignments in ways that teachers expect. Legislative students would probably rather do work on projects than take exams. They may therefore be penalized by conventional instruction and assessments, because of their preference for a creative way of thinking.

**Judicial.** The judicial student has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that require evaluation, analysis, comparison—contrast, and judgment of existing ideas, strategies, projects, etc. The judicial person tends to like evaluative essays, commenting on other people’s ideas, and assessing others’ strengths and weaknesses. Three examples of assignments that would appeal to judicially oriented students would be analyzing how different nations have different conceptions of democracy for a government class, evaluating the validity of a theory on the extinction of dinosaurs in a biology class, and comparing and contrasting two characters from a novel in a literature class.

**Forms**

There are four different forms of mental self-government in the theory: monarchic, hierarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic.

**Monarchic.** The monarchic pupil has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that allow focusing fully on one thing or aspect at a time, and staying with that thing until it is complete. Examples of monarchically oriented students would be one who devotes very large chunks of time to using the Internet, one who loves mathematics to the exclusion of all other subjects, or one who is dedicated to tennis and spends as much time as possible playing it. A monarchic teacher might be one who has a preferred way of doing things, and who does not much like to do things in other ways.

**Hierarchic.** The hierarchic pupil has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that allow creation of a hierarchy of goals to fulfill. These students will often make lists, and sometimes even lists of lists. Examples of hierarchically oriented students would be one who allocates time for homework assignments that are due sooner rather than later, another student who allocates time on a test to the sections the teacher has said will count more toward the grade, and one who carefully allocates
time to practice different pieces for an piano audition in terms of how likely she thinks it is that she will be asked to play them. A hierarchic teacher might be one who carefully sets priorities and then sticks to them.

**Oligarchic.** The oligarchic pupil has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that allow working with competing approaches, with multiple aspects or goals that are equally important. This student likes to do multiple things within a given time frame, but has trouble setting priorities. The oligarchic student adapts well if the competing demands are of equally equal importance, but has more trouble if the things are of different importance. Examples of oligarchically oriented students are one who cannot decide how much time to spend on different test items so he spends roughly equal time on them, although they do not count the same; one who does homework haphazardly without regard to when assignments are due and finds herself finishing some assignments well ahead of schedule and others well behind schedule; and one who fails to set priorities for her personal versus her school life and has trouble keeping up in school because she spends so much time going out with fellow students. An oligarchic teacher might be one who does not easily allocate class time so that the most important things receive the most coverage.

**Anarchic.** The anarchic student has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that lend themselves to great flexibility of approaches, and to trying anything when, where, and how he or she pleases. This type of student tends to be asystematic or even antisystematic. The anarchic pupil may have good potential for creativity, because the individual draws ideas from so many places, but the pupil usually needs to discipline him- or herself. Teachers can assist anarchic students by helping them be organized and channel their creativity constructively. Examples of anarchically oriented students are one who does not keep track of assignments and rarely gets them in on time, one who cannot get organized to study for tests, and one who is potentially very creative but fails to learn the material beyond what is needed to have new ideas. An anarchic teacher might be one who is very disorganized in his teaching style, but who nevertheless is very creative and sparks creative ideas in his students.

**Levels**
There are two levels of mental self-government: local and global.

**Local.** The student with a local style has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that require engagement with specific, concrete details. Students with this style tend to enjoy tasks that require them to keep track of details and to focus on concrete specifics of a situation. Examples of students with a local orientation are the one who learns many details when studying for tests but does not understand how they interrelate to each other, one who writes papers that show a great knowledge of facts but have no clear organizing superstructure, and one who, when giving talks, concentrates on specifics without any overview of the topic. A local teacher tends to be very detail-oriented in lecturing.

**Global.** The global pupil has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that require engagement with large, global, abstract ideas. This person likes to deal with big ideas, but sometimes can lose touch with the details. Examples of globally oriented students are one who, when writing papers, makes many global assertions but fails to support them with specific evidence; one who does very well in comprehending main ideas of passages but poorly in comprehending details; and one who, in playing music, shows very good musicality and interpretation but makes many mistakes in intonation. A global teacher tends to be very general in her teaching and to concentrate on the big picture rather than the details.

**Scopes**

There are two scopes of mental self-government: internal and external.

**Internal.** The internal student has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that allow him or her to work independently of others. This individual is typically introverted and often uncomfortable in groups. Examples of internally oriented students are one who likes to study for tests only by himself; another who routinely turns down invitations to go to student parties because she feels uncomfortable interacting with others; and one who, in groups, does not speak out because she is reluctant to interact with the others. An internal teacher may eschew team teaching and prefer to teach on his own.
External. The external student has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that require activities that allow working with others in a group or interacting with others at different stages of progress. Indeed, this student might not enjoy working or even being alone. Notice, then, that methods of teaching that lead some students to feel quite comfortable can lead other students to feel very uncomfortable. Examples of externally oriented students are one who strongly prefers working in groups to working individually; one who hates to spend time by himself and constantly needs to be with others; and one who is effective studying with others but not by herself. An external teacher would probably welcome team teaching or other opportunities to collaborate with fellow teachers.

Leanings

There are two leanings of mental self-government: liberal and conservative.

Liberal. The student with a liberal style has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that involve unfamiliarity, going beyond existing rules or procedures, and maximization of change. Sometimes the individual may prefer change simply for the sake of change, even when it is not ideal. Students with a liberal style like new challenges and thrive on ambiguity. Examples of liberally oriented students are one who resents having to do things in traditional ways, almost without regard to what the things are; one who is constantly seeking alternative and non-obvious ways of solving physics problems; and one who loves writing poetry that is unusual in both style and content. A liberal teacher likes to teach in new ways and to try new teaching techniques.

Conservative. The conservative pupil has a predilection for tasks, projects, and situations that require adherence to and observance of existing rules and procedures. This individual likes to minimize change and avoid ambiguity. Examples of conservative students are one who frequently asks the teacher exactly what is expected of him, one who takes his lead from other students as to how to do assignments, and one who feels very anxious when expected to do a project in an art class using new media for creating artistic works. A conservative teacher likes to teach in traditional ways and may be hesitant to try new ways of teaching. We have
used several converging operations to measure thinking styles. These are described elsewhere (Grigorenko & Sternberg, 1992; Sternberg, Wagner, & Zhang, 2003).

**Dimensions of the Theory of Mental Self-Government**

The theory of mental self-government defines 5 dimensions, which are functions, forms, levels, scopes and leanings, and 13 thinking styles grouped under these dimensions (Fer, 2005; Kao et al., 2007; Sternberg, 2009; Zhang, 2000; Zhang & Sternberg, 2006).

First dimension, which is functions, refer to the individual preference of creating and assessing ideas, and performing rules. Functions include legislative, executive and judicial styles (Kao et al., 2007; Sternberg, 2009). An individual preferring legislative style is characterized by being creative, innovative and planned as well as enjoying to follow own way and generate new alternative solutions to traditional ones (Buluş, 2005; Fer, 2005; Sternberg, 2009). The next style of this dimension is executive style. This style is distinguished by the preference to follow given instructions and rules, need for clear guidelines and be organized (Buluş, 2005; Fer, 2005). The last style included in functions dimension is judicial style. Individuals who choose judicial style focus on evaluating others, analyzing others’ products and compare work, product or ideas of others (Fer, 2005; Sternberg, 2009).

The second dimension of mental self-government theory is forms which defines the styles in terms of goal-setting and self-management (Kao et al., 2007). One of four style grouped under forms is monarchic. Monarchic style is characterized by focusing on one task at a time, matching each problem with a certain solution while ignoring other possible ways and being perfectionist (Fer, 2005; Saracaloğlu et al., 2008; Sternberg, 2009). The other style of this dimension is hierarchical style which refers to preference to prioritize tasks, assign attention accordingly and be systematic problem-solvers with prosperous time management skills (Buluş, 2005; Sternberg, 2009). Oligarchic style is the third style included in forms dimension. Individuals who prefer oligarchic style usually have trouble with time management since they prefer to pay attention among non-prioritized tasks at the same time (Fer, 2005; Sternberg, 2009). Anarchic style is the forth style associated with forms
dimension and anarchic style is distinguished by preferring to focus on tasks without any systematic approach, in other words randomly selecting the task to work on, avoid rules and instructions as well as desire to have flexibility (Fer, 2005; Sarı & Sünbül, 2004).

Levels are considered as the third dimension of mental self-government theory and classify the preference of individuals to deal with problems in detail or as a whole. Global style is characterized by concentrating on the big picture, ignoring details, preferring abstractness, enjoying conceptualizing, generalization and thinking (Sternberg, 2009; Zhang & Sternberg, 2001). Whereas local style identify focusing on details, preferring concreteness, avoiding conceptual analysis and experiencing difficulty in distinguishing important from unimportant (Fer, 2005; Sternberg, 2009).

The other dimension is scopes referring to the preference of being alone or belonging to a group (Kao et al., 2007). Individuals with internal style prefer working independently, being goal-oriented and introverted, whereas individuals preferring external style are distinguished by feeling more comfortable when working with a group, developing interpersonal relationships, being extroverted and interdependent (Buluş, 2005; Fer, 2005; Sternberg, 2009; Zhang & Sternberg, 2001).

The fifth dimension defined in theory of mental self-government is leanings dealing with the individual preferences of requirement of originality and need for existing rules. Leanings include liberal and conservative styles. Liberal style is identified by appreciating novelty and ambiguity, tracing new alternatives while disregarding instructions (Buluş, 2005; Zhang & Sternberg, 2001). On the other hand conservative style is characterized by adherence of existing rules and procedures, avoiding ambiguity and resistance to novelty (Buluş, 2005; Zhang & Sternberg, 2001).

Besides the dimensions of the theory, Zhang and Sternberg (2006) classified intellectual styles, which encompass thinking styles, into three types. Type I styles are perceived more positive and adaptive whereas Type II styles are more negative and less adaptive. The styles categorized under Type I or Type II are considered as being
value-laden as they are evaluated as being more or less adaptive and positive or negative. Whereas Type III styles are value differentiated since they are neither positive nor negative but adaptability depends on the requirements of a task and situation. Based on this general classification researchers grouped thinking styles; Type I thinking styles include the legislative, judicial, hierarchical, global, and liberal styles, Type II thinking styles include the executive, local, monarchical, and conservative styles, and Type III styles include the anarchic, oligarchic, internal, and external styles. Type I thinking styles are defined as more creativity-generating, Type II are characterized by a norm-favouring tendency, while depending on the demands of the specific task Type III may reveal the characteristics of both Types I and II styles.

Table 1.1: Dimensions of Thinking Styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Thinking Styles</th>
<th>Properties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Legislative</td>
<td>enjoys being engaged in tasks that require self-instruction and self direction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Executive</td>
<td>finds more satisfaction in the implementation of tasks with clear instructions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Judicial</td>
<td>focuses attention on evaluating the products of activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Monarchic</th>
<th>enjoys being engaged in tasks that allow full concentration on one thing at a time.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hierarchic</td>
<td>prefers to allocate attention to several prioritized tasks within the same period of time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oligarchic</td>
<td>likes to work toward achieving multiple goals within the same time frame but may be reluctant to set priorities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anarchic</td>
<td>enjoys working on tasks that would allow extreme flexibility as to what, where, when, and how the task is fulfilled.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Level    | Global         | tends to direct attention to global and abstract ideas. |
Local | tends to enjoy being engaged in tasks that allow work with concrete details.  
Scope  
Internal | enjoys being engaged in tasks that allow him or her to work independently.  
External | prefers being engaged in tasks that allow him or her to work with and cooperate with other people.  
Leaning  
Liberal | enjoys engaging in tasks that involve substantial novelty  
Conservative | prefers to adhere to established rules and procedures in performing tasks.  

**Styles of Thinking in Instruction and Assessment**

For those who teach and assess students at any level—young children, adolescents, or adults—the theory of mental self-government implies modes of rendering teaching more effective through style differentiated instruction. The key principle is that for students to benefit the most from instruction and assessment, at least some part of the instruction and assessment should match their styles of thinking. We would not advocate a perfect match all the time: Students need to learn, as does everyone, that the world does not always provide people with a perfect match to their preferred ways of doing things. Flexibility is as important for students as it is for teachers. But if we want students to show what they truly can do, a match of instruction and assessment to styles is key.

The following is a list of the various methods of instruction and the styles that are most compatible with these methods. If a teacher wants to reach and truly interact with a student, he or she needs the flexibility to teach to different styles of thinking, which means varying teaching styles to suit different styles of thought on the part of students.

- Lecture with executive/hierarchical
- Thought-based questioning with judicial/legislative
- Cooperative learning with external
- Problem solving of given problems with executive
• Projects with legislative
• Small-group recitation with external/executive
• Small-group discussion with external/judicial
• Reading with internal/hierarchical
• Reading for details with local/executive
• Reading for main ideas with global/executive
• Reading for analysis with judicial
• Memorization with executive/local/conservative

Table 1.2 shows various methods of assessment and the styles with which they are most compatible. Note that different methods of assessment tend to benefit different styles of thought. For example, multiple-choice testing is very much oriented toward executive and local thinkers, and projects tend to be oriented more toward legislative and judicial thinkers as well as global ones. Note also the importance not only of the method of assessment used, but also the way the assessment is scored. An essay can be scored for recall (memory), which benefits executive students; or for analysis, which benefits judicial students; or for creativity, which benefits legislative students. It is not the essay, per se, but how it is evaluated, that determines who benefits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Main Skills Most</th>
<th>Compatible Style(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short answer/multiple choice</td>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>Executive/local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Judicial/local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time allocation</td>
<td>Hierarchical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Working by self</td>
<td>Internal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>Executive/local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Macroanalysis</td>
<td>Judicial/global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Microanalysis</td>
<td>Judicial/global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Legislative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Hierarchical</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Project/portfolio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time allocation</th>
<th>Hierarchical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance of teacher viewpoint</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working by self</td>
<td>Internal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Judicial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>Legislative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork</td>
<td>External</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working by self</td>
<td>Hierarchical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Monarchic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High commitment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## JOB VALUES OF TEACHERS

Value means something that has a price, something precious and dear. These are endeavours that satisfy need psychological as well as physiological. A job has the ability and power to redefine the value concept. A job has both intrinsic and extrinsic values. Intrinsic values are internal to the work, intrinsic rewards are like interesting work, sense of accomplishment and allows work to develop skills. Interesting work, feelings of accomplishment and opportunities to learn are key components of what is valued in a job. Extrinsic values are those which have no utility of their own but are valuable only as long as we can use them to buy objects. The extrinsic rewards are pay, benefits, security and opportunity for advancement, recognition in social group. Job value depends on some aspects like psychological attachment i.e. employer commitment, employee commitment and respect.

Values are commonly considered as concepts or beliefs about longed-for purposes of human existence; they are ordered according to their relative importance, which transcends specific situations and guides the selection and evaluation of behaviours and events. Values are concepts or beliefs that determine how we live in our life. At work, they are major influences on how individuals approach to work. Values drive our decisions and cause us to summon up energy to preserve what we believe in or what we want to defend. As such, they can be principal determinants of
behaviour and will influence our views about people, situations or events. When team members share the same values, the team will have the energy to deliver outstanding performance. Where individual values clash, conflict will occur and teams are unlikely to reach their full potential. Job related demands appear in literature on the subject as job values. These can be readily characterized as relatively time-resistant and comprehensive interpretation patterns regarding work per se. Job values represent our personal relation to what we want to achieve through our work and career (S’Verko 1999). They are acquired early in the process of socialization and are relatively stable in the personal system of values of each person. There has been growing interest, in recent years, in the analysis of human values in general (Levy 1990; and Shwartz and Bilsky 1990) and of work values specifically (Elizur et al. 1991). Job values can be defined as generalized beliefs about the desirability of certain attributes of work (e.g. pay, autonomy, working conditions), and work-related outcomes (e.g. accomplishment, fulfilment, prestige). Like general values, work values act as the criteria that an individual uses in selecting appropriate work-related behaviours and goals. The match between teachers’ work values and supplies offered by the schools is important for teacher’s outcomes like job involvement, work motivation, and turnover intentions. Values related to work have received considerable scholarly attention for many decades (Hofstede 1980). Job values are linked to motivation and job satisfaction, and others have demonstrated a strong link between having a high achievement value and being aggressiveness in and showing initiative in one’s work. Job values have also been related to organizational commitment (Elizur and Koslowsky 2001), vocational choice (Super 1970), ethical decision making (Shafer et al. 2001) and cross-cultural management (Mellahi 2001).

Tarnai (1995) indicated that various authors have presented theoretical drafts of work value structures. Rosenberg distinguishes a further construct termed social oriented, people oriented and value complex and categorizes work values using three components. The social oriented value complex represents the need for contact with others and activities benefiting society. Classifications of work (job) values structurally similar to Rosenberg’s have been produced by Elizur (1984) and others. Alderfer introduces the three needs - existence, growth and relatedness, whereas
Elizur distinguishes material or instrumental, cognitive and affective job values. Pawlowsky differentiates between acquisitive, non-acquisitive and social oriented dimensions. The concepts developed by Rosenberg, Alderfer, Elizur and Pawlowsky differ more in semantics and less in structure.
As shown in Fig., the total value structure is organized into two sets of opposing higher order value types, arrayed on two bipolar dimensions. These higher order types will be used to link basic values to job values. The first dimensions – openness to change versus conservation – opposes values that emphasize own independent thought and action and favour change (self-direction and stimulation) to values that emphasize submissive self-restriction, preservation of traditional practises, and protection of stability (security, conformity and tradition). The second dimension – self-transcendence verses self-enhancement - opposes values that emphasize acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare (universalism and benevolence) to values that emphasize the pursuit of one’s relative success and dominance over others (power and achievement). Hedonism includes elements of both openness to change and self enhancement.

Like basic values, work values are beliefs pertaining to desirable end-states (e.g. high pay) or behaviour (e.g. working with people). The different work goals are ordered by their importance as guiding principles for evaluating work outcomes and settings, and for choosing among different work alternatives. Because work values refer only to goals in the work setting, they are more specific than basic individual values. But the work values usually studied are still quite broad: they refer to what a person wants out of work in general rather than to the narrowly defined outcomes of particular jobs. Finally, work values like basic values, are verbal representations of individual, group and interaction requirements. Work value researchers have assumed that a limited number of broad orientations towards work underlie people's ideas of what is important to them when making occupational choices. Researchers have therefore sought to identify a set of general types of work values. Viewing work values as specific expressions of basic values in the work setting implies that there higher-order basic types of individual values. Moreover, these four types of work values should form two dimensions that parallel the self-enhancement versus self-transcendence and the openness to change versus conservation dimensions of basic individual values. Despite a plethora of different labels, most work researchers appear to identify the same two or three types of work values: (1) intrinsic or self-actualisation values, (2) extrinsic or security or material values, (3) social or relational
values (e.g. Alderfer, 1972; Borg, 1990; Crites, 1961; Mottaz, 1985; Pryor, 1987; Rosenberg, 1957). Elizur (1984) arrived at a related trichotomous classification of work values by considering the modality of their outcomes: instrumental outcomes such as work conditions and benefits; cognitive outcomes such as interest and achievement; affective outcomes such as relations with associates.

![Diagram](image_url)

**Fig. 1.2: Three Types of Values**

This classification largely overlaps extrinsic, intrinsic, and social, respectively. These three types of work values can be viewed as conceptually parallel to three of the higher-order basic human values: intrinsic work values directly express openness to change values—the pursuit of autonomy, interest, growth, and creativity in work. Extrinsic work values express conservation values; job security and income provide workers with the requirements needed for general security and maintenance of order in their lives. Social or interpersonal work values express the pursuit of self-transcendence values; work is seen as a vehicle for positive social relations and contribution to society. The theory of basic individual values suggests that there should be a fourth distinctive type of work values, one that parallels the basic self-
enhancement higher-order value type. This type of work values, like self-enhancement, should be concerned with prestige or power. Items that refer to prestige, authority, influence, power, and achievement in work are common in empirical research on work. These values have usually been classified as extrinsic (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrod, & Herma, 1951; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Rosenberg, 1957) or intrinsic (Borg, 1990; Crites, 1961; Elizur, 1984). Few theorists have recognised a distinctive prestige or power type (O’Connor & Kinnane, 1961; Pryor, 1987). Re-examination of many past studies reveals that there is empirical evidence for a fourth, prestige type even in data that the researchers interpreted as revealing three types.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Job Values</th>
<th>Basic Human Values</th>
<th>Attributes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Intrinsic Job Values</td>
<td>Openness to Change Values</td>
<td>Interest growth, Creativity in Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Extrinsic Job Values</td>
<td>Conservation Values</td>
<td>Job Security, Income General Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Social Values</td>
<td>Self-Transcendence Values</td>
<td>Social relations and Contribution to Society</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig. 1.3 : Parallel Structure of Job Value and Higher Order Basic Human Values**

Work values are goals that one seeks to attain to satisfy a need; they may be satisfied by more than one kind of activity or occupation. Theory of work values includes three categories, instrumental, affective and cognitive (Elizur 1999, p. 77; Elizur and Kowslowsky 2000, p. 594). In order to analyse work values systematically, two basic facts of the domain were distinguished: modality of outcome, and system
performance contingency (Elizur 1984). Modality of outcome includes various values. Instrumental (material) values have some material return or outcome, such as pay and benefits. These values are more salient than other values and are associated with Maslow’s physiological/safety/security needs. Various work outcomes are of material or instrumental nature. This class of outcome can be defined as material, or instrumental, in a sense that they are concrete and of practical use. Affective values deal with interpersonal relationships, which are less salient than the instrumental needs, and relate to Maslow’s interpersonal need categories of belongingness, love, and esteem. Most studies include items that ask about relations, and others. These items relate to social relations, and they are affective outcomes rather than material. Cognitive values include items that deal with contribution to society, achievement, personal growth, responsibility, independence, interest, and use some of the same descriptive words and concepts as Maslow’s levels. These items represent psychological rather than social or material outcomes. In today’s world, the efficiency of a country’s system represents the most important standard of assessment and comparison for societies.

TEACHER AND TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

The Concept of Teacher

“The only true teacher is he who can immediately come down to the level of students and transfer his soul to the student’s soul and see through the student’s eyes and hear through his ears and understand through his mind.”

The team ‘teacher’ is generally reserved for the persons whose primary profession and occupational function is to help others, learn and develop new ways. While in education, learning and teaching can, and do, take place in many different settings, most societies realize that education is too important to be left to a mere chance, Consequently, they establish schools to facilitate learning and to help people live a better and happier life, Schools are created to provide a certain type of educational experience, which can be called the curriculum. Teacher; are trained and hired by society to help facilitate the intellectual, personal and social development of those members of society who attend schools.
Needless to say that the image of the teacher has changed considerably over the years. Today, teachers are better educated, earn more money and are respectable members of the society. Increase in the educational level of teachers is in recognition of the fact that if teacher’s are to facilitate the intellectual, personal and social development of their students, they must be better educated than ever before (Myron Beton 1970).

Dictionary of Education (Good 1973) defines a teacher as “A person who has completed a professional curriculum in a teacher education institution and whose training has been organised by the award of appropriate teaching certificate and a person who instructs others”.

The teacher’s task is related to our perception of education. The process of education keeps on changing according to the contemporary demands and needs of the society. Therefore, the present teacher has to play different roles, and has to be a competent professional, a skilled teacher; always expected to be an effective communicator, a designer and user of learning resources, a learning facilitator and an active participant in community life. A teacher in our society today is called upon to do a variety of things viz. -

- Organise learning resources;
- Conduct interactive classroom teaching; Cater to special needs of disabled children;
- Organise and guide a variety of co-curricular activities;
- Train students in problem-solving, develop in them qualities of democratic citizenship and promote environmental consciousness; and
- Organise and participate in programmes of community service and development.

Contrary to the ancient times, the role of the teacher at present is not only to train and discipline the child’s mind but also to create a classroom environment conducive for a smooth and successful teaching-learning process. Whereas in the past children used to attend the school with the major objective of acquiring knowledge in different subjects, the modern era demands, as much as possible, practical uses of the
gained knowledge. Therefore, the quality of education today is largely based on the application of ability to transfer the acquired knowledge to cope with problems. Masses are attending regular schools and hence, large-sized classrooms are increasing day by day, together with advanced educational and instructional technology as well as improved teaching strategies.

- According to Barr (1952), it is customary to think of the teacher as
  - A director of learning;
  - A friend or counsellor of pupils;
  - A member of a group of professional workers; and
  - A citizen participating in various community activities - Local, State, National and International.

Education Commission (1964-66) thus aptly remarked, “Of all the different factors which influence the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the quality, competence and character of the teachers are undoubtedly the most significant. Nothing is more important than securing a sufficient supply of high quality recruits to the teaching profession, providing them with the best possible professional preparation and creating satisfactory conditions at work in which they can be fully effective.” In the entire teaching learning process, the teacher is a “powerful agent who can inculcate the democratic ideas of nationhood in children, the ‘further citizens of the nation. High achievements of the students, better school performance, moulding of children into better citizens and exposing them in the arena of growing competition are some of the major issues lying at the hands of the teacher. A skilful management of the teaching learning process can only bring about success in justifying these issues, for which the teachers have to become master as well as skill technicians, particularly in the wake of the fast growing intervention of the information and communication technologies as inputs in the education process, despite their pressures and perils vis-à-vis the traditional practice of schooling. That apart, though present day teachers are themselves conscious of what is expected of them as teachers in the new social order, they are also concerned with innumerable pressures, tensions and worries about their own status in today’s society and proper working conditions in their school environments that often divert and distract them
from their real aim as teaching. As a result, by and large, they tend to work mechanically just to receive their salaries as a mere labour force their dissatisfaction with the working condition in schools in particular has significant impairing on the quality of their teaching and in turn on the student’s performance. This cannot as such so deemed as the hallmark of an effective teacher.

**An Effective Teacher**

According to Southern (1974), an effective teacher is the one who has a sense of humour, ability to explain things clearly so that students can easily understand what is being taught, ability to make any subject interesting to learn, ability to control the class, ability to be ready and willing to help students when they need and ability to be as fair as possible in dealing with students.

The acronym used by Pritam Singh (1998) for the teacher spells out certain attributes of an effective teacher such as: T for Temperance; E for Empathy; A for Academic Aristocracy; C for Commitment; H for Humour, E for Ethics; R for Reflection. Although this acronym does suggest some characteristic of a good teacher, it is not comprehensive enough to enliven the teacher to his ground level task of teaching in the classroom.

In the words of Anderson (1991), “An effective teacher is the one who quite consistently achieves goals, which either directly or indirectly, focuses on the learning of their students”.

Fullan (1990) wanted to understand what it is about such teachers that make them effective. The knowledge and skills being taught to teachers are linked with what they already know and can do, teachers are encouraged to apply what they have learnt from their in-service experiences in their own classroom; actually, teachers should be encouraged to “try, evaluate, modify, try again.”

The National Policy on Education (1986) has also rightly stressed the significant role that teachers need play in the improvement of the educational system and in the development and growth of education.

The teacher’s role is viewed in terms of a mediator, a facilitator and a director of learning, a helper and controller of the learning behaviour of the learner; a
dispenser of knowledge; a counsellor, an evaluator of the learner’s performance in the academic field; an expert in class management activities; and a link between school, parents, community and society. In fact, this policy perspective gives a very comprehensive operational definition of the role performance of teachers vis-à-vis what really makes them effective teachers in the context of the new emerging social order and the building of a learning society in this age of global communication and software technology in education and teaching.

The Profession of Teaching

Teaching is the most arduous and complex profession in our society, and also an important job. Yet teachers are often overworked, underpaid and underappreciated. There is a common bond which unites all teachers, i.e. the desire to help students reach their maximum potentials as human beings. When we achieve this goal, when we see students grow as a result of our teaching, we know that all the training and hard work have been worth the effort.

Thus, teaching is a behaviour, an organised set of cognitive acts or operations of teaching, both overt and covert, organised logically and meaningfully. It has a configuration, which can be analysed, reasoned out, described, explained and changed for improvement. These behaviours can be systematically and hierarchically arranged in categories called taxonomy. The effectiveness of teaching is the competence of a teacher, the attributes of instructional process and the teacher impact on pupil behaviour. The growth of all these dimensions of this broad and diverse discipline of , teacher education is, like any other discipline, extensive and research savvy, in search of what really contributes to effective teaching.

Effective Teaching

It is very difficult to define good teaching. This term is so value-laden that what appears to be good teaching by one person may be considered poor teaching by another, because each one values differently on the process of teaching - its techniques, outcomes or methods. One teacher may run the classroom in an organised, highly structured manner, emphasizing the intellectual content of academic discipline, while another may manage it in a less structured environment, allowing the students much more freedom to choose subject matter and activities that interested them.
personally. One observer, because of one’s personal values in favour of more intellectual attainment as the end of teaching, may identify the first teacher as a good teacher, while criticizing the second teacher for running “too loose a ship” sheerly to cater for individual interests in the name of education Another observer may come to the opposite conclusion with respect of which teacher is better again, because of a different set of values that govern one’s choice.

While it remains difficult to agree on what constitutes “good” teaching, “effective” teaching can nearly be demonstrated in terms of what is really intended as the outcome of teaching? An effective teacher is able to bring about intended learning outcomes, though the nature of learning is still more important. The two different teachers, as in the example above, may strive for and achieve different outcomes and both be judged effective. The two critical dimensions of effective teaching are intent and achievement. Without intent, student achievement becomes random and accidental. However, intent is not enough by itself. If students do not achieve their intended learning goals, the teacher cannot be truly effective. Thus, effective teachers may be defined as those who can demonstrate the ability to bring about intended learning outcomes that enable them to achieve the desired results for their students. This, once again, refers to the role performance of teachers via the making of good and effective teachers.

Ryans (1960), puts it in this way: “Teaching can be effective to the extent the teacher acts in ways that are favourable to the development of basic skills, understanding, work habits, desirable attitude, value judgement and adequate personal adjustment of the pupils”. But such a definition is very general and abstract because a teacher’s role may vary in relation to the characteristics of the pupils, to grade level, and to the field of learning, that is, of the subject matter. For example, an aloof academic teacher might be liked by students who are bright and academically minded. But such a teacher is not suited to teach those students who need sympathy and understanding about everything else. Therefore, according to Ryans (1960) effective teaching should be relative to three major sets of conditions:
i) The social or cultural group in which the teacher operates, involves social values which frequently differ from person to person, community to community, culture to culture and time to time;

ii) The grade level and subject matter taught; and

iii) Intellectual and personal characteristics of the pupils taught.

Teacher’ Effectiveness

Teacher’s effectiveness is the ability and the interaction between the physical, intellectual and psychological interest of the students, content matters, ability of the teachers and the evaluative procedures. Teachers have the greatest potential to influence children’s education. Evidence from teacher’s effectiveness studies indicates that student engagement in learning is to be valued above curriculum plans and materials. Researches on teacher’s effectiveness have yielded a wealth of understanding about impact that teacher ability has on student growth. Students achieve more when teachers employ systematic teaching procedures. Effective teachers are those who spend more time on small groups of pupils and use systematic feedback with students about their performance. Teacher’s effectiveness can be defined as on “act of faith”. The most accepted criteria for measuring good teaching is the amount of student learning that occurs. A teacher’s effectiveness is about student learning. Teachers can present content and skills that will enhance the opportunities for students to learn.

Teachers also have limited control over many of the most important factors that impact students’ learning, including students' attitudes, background knowledge of the course content, study and learning skills, time students will spend on their learning, their emotional readiness to learn, and on and on. Since there is clearly a shared responsibility between the teacher and the student as to what that student learns, and because many students are able to learn in spite of the teacher, while others fail despite all of the best efforts of a skilled practitioner, the definition of “teacher’s effectiveness” appears to be, as Derek Bok put it, “an act of faith” on the part of students and teachers to do their best.
“Good teachers show a balance of qualities continuous growth for excellence, readiness for guidance; set high value standards so that they can equip the children wisely and effectively; they are purposeful whose energies and values are organized and focused on their teaching work; they are thinkers and constructive workers with intellectual bent for achievements; they warm up the students, appreciate their efforts and encourage them to work harder; they have a hunger for vividness, for wholeness and completeness in their ideas; they are sensitive and responsive, they have a conscience, are patient and persistently curious”. (Sheela Mangla, 2001).

**Concept of Teacher Effectiveness**

The term “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. One implication of this definition is that teacher effectiveness must be defined, not behaviours of teachers. For this reason, and because the amount that pupils learning is strongly affected by factors not under the teacher’s control, teacher effectiveness will be regarded not as a stable characteristic of the teacher as an individual but as a product of the interaction between certain teacher characteristics and other factors that vary according to the situation in which teacher works.

Many times, the terms teacher performance and teacher effectiveness are used synonymously. Medley (1982) made an attempt to clear the distinction between teacher performance and teacher effectiveness, saying that teacher performance implies what a teacher does on the job, the ability to apply his competence to his task, at any given point of time and teacher effectiveness includes both teacher performance and its effect on pupils while on the job Teacher effectiveness concerns only those outcomes that reflect the agency of the teacher and the objectives of education. The most intransigent of difficulties has been to establish teacher effectiveness criteria shown to be related to the teacher personality. In this review, Lomax (1973) concluded that “even if past studies are given credit for helping to clear a little of the ground for future researchers, it must be recognized that very little is known about the relationship between personality characteristics and teacher effectiveness.”
The most frequent criterion of teacher effectiveness studies has been the rating made by a variety of judges such as supervisory teachers, principals, trained raters, experimenters, teachers’ themselves and so on.

1.1.5.2 Teachers’ Effective Behaviours

Ryans (1960) gives a list of effective and ineffective behaviours of a teacher as follows:-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>An effective Teacher</th>
<th>An ineffective teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Is alert, appears enthusiastic</td>
<td>Is apathetic, dull, bored</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Appears interested in pupils and classroom activities</td>
<td>Appears uninterested in pupils and classroom activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Is cheerful, optimistic</td>
<td>Is depressed, pessimistic, appears unhappy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Is self-controlled, not easily upset</td>
<td>Loses temper, is easily upset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Likes fun, has a sense of humour</td>
<td>Is overly serious, too occupied for humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Recognizes and admits own mistakes</td>
<td>Is unaware of, or fails to admit own mistake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Is fair, impartial and objective in treatment of pupils.</td>
<td>In unfair or partial in dealing with pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Is patient</td>
<td>Is impatient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Shows understanding and sympathy in working with pupils</td>
<td>Is short with pupils, uses sarcastic remarks, or in other ways shows lack of sympathy with pupil.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Is friendly and courteous in relation with pupils</td>
<td>Is aloof and removed in relation with pupils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Helps pupils with personal as well as educational problems.</td>
<td>Seems unaware of pupil’s personal needs and problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Commands effort and gives praise for work well done.</td>
<td>Does not commend pupils, is an approving hypercritical.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Accepts pupil’s efforts as sincere</td>
<td>Is suspicious of pupil motives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Anticipates reactions of others in social situation</td>
<td>Does not anticipate reaction of others in social situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Encourage pupils to try to do their best.</td>
<td>Makes no effort to encourage pupils to try to do their best.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. His classroom procedure is planned and well-organised</td>
<td>Procedure is without plan, is disorganized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. His classroom procedure is flexible with in over-all plan</td>
<td>Shows extreme rigidity of procedure, inability to depart from plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Anticipates individual needs</td>
<td>Fails to provide for individual differences and for pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Stimulates pupils through interesting and original materials and techniques</td>
<td>Uninteresting materials and teaching techniques used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Conducts clear practical demonstrations and explanations</td>
<td>Demonstrations and explanations are not clear and are poorly conducted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Is clear and thorough in giving directions</td>
<td>Directions are incomplete, vague.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Encourage pupils to work through their own problems and evaluate their accomplishment</td>
<td>Fails to give pupils opportunity to work out their own problems or evaluate their own work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Disciplines in a quite, dignified and positive manner.</td>
<td>Reprimands at length, ridicules, resorts to cruel or meaningless form of correlation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Gives help willingly</td>
<td>Fails to give help or gives it grudgingly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Foresees and attempts to resolve potential difficulties</td>
<td>Is unable to foresee and resolve potential difficulties.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teacher’s other Competencies

Besides, these effective behaviours, a teacher should have mastery over the subject matter which he teaches; possess communication skills; possess good academic record; and have knowledge of the developmental process that takes place in a student. A teacher who has these qualities and exhibits such effective behaviour is likely to exhibit an effective teacher performance.

Teacher’s Personal Traits

Ryan (1960) has given list of personal qualities of a teacher also which appear to distinguish teachers selected to be “High” and “Low” with respect to over-all classroom behaviour. These traits are stated as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>“High” group teachers more frequently (than “low”)</th>
<th>“Low” group teachers more frequently (than “high”)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Manifest extreme generosity in appraisals of the behaviour and motives of other persons; express friendly feeling for others.</td>
<td>Are from older age group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Indicate strong interest in reading and in literary matters.</td>
<td>Are restricted and critical in appraisals of the behaviour and motives of other persons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Indicate interest in music, painting and arts in general</td>
<td>Indicate performance for teacher directed learning situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Report participation in high school and college social groups.</td>
<td>Value exactness and “Practical” things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Judge selves high in ambition and imitative</td>
<td>Indicate preference for activities which do not involve close contacts with people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Report teaching experience of 4-9 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Report teaching type activities during childhood and adolescence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Indicate preference for student centered learning situations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Manifest independent, though not aggressiveness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“High” group (compared with “low” group) : “Low” group (compared with “High” group)

1. Indicates greater enjoyment of pupil relationships (i.e. more favourable pupils opinions). : Is less favourable in expressed opinions of pupils.

2. Indicates greater preference for on-directive classroom procedures : Is less high with regard to verbal intelligence

3. Is superior in verbal intelligence : Is less satisfactory with regard to emotional adjustment.

4. Is more satisfactory with regard to emotional adjustment.

On the basis of the preceding discussion for the purpose of the present study, teacher effectiveness has been defined operationally as the extent of teaching skills, relationship with pupils fellow teachers, principals and parents, personality characteristics, co-curricular activities and classroom management.

**Factors Influencing Teacher Effectiveness**

Some of the factors that could have great influence on teacher’s effectiveness apparently would be:

- Psycho-social Maturity
- Locus of Control,
- Organizational conflict
- Intelligence
- Academic background;
- Attitude towards teaching profession;
- Socio-economic status
- Adjustment;
- Age;
- Teaching experience;
- Professional training;
- Gender;
- Level of aspiration
- School climate
- Job-satisfaction
The 21st century will be an era of acute modernization and both teacher and students will have to cope with the changes and challenges. The information society requires a higher level of skill and knowledge of all individuals than did the industrial economy, geared to factory production. Environmental changes are inevitable and therefore a teacher is effective if he/she can adapt to and improve his/her environment. Teacher must be able to increase conceptual understanding and analytical ability among students through the use of diverse media. Teacher effectiveness can be judged through many factors through their competency and their performance in classroom. The act of teaching along with their competency and performance results in effectiveness in the classroom. Besides, due to the availability of modern technology, the advance media have to be incorporated in the teaching learning process. A perusal of research studies reveals that teacher effectiveness is related to work/job satisfaction and influences media utilization, attitude towards media and acceptance of new communication technologies in education by teachers.

**SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY:**

There is clear and categorical recognition of the vital role that the teacher educators have to play in preparing school teachers in terms of professional competencies and commitments on their part. The progress of a country depends upon the quality of its teachers and for this reason, teaching is the noblest among all professions and the teachers are called the nation builders. But, a teacher cannot perform his or her multifarious tasks and responsibilities until he or she is not updated professionally and personally. So, like various other professions, teacher education has assumed special significance. Teacher education is not only meant for teaching the teacher, how to teach but also to kindle his initiative to keep it alive to minimise evils of the “Hit and Miss” process and to save time, energy and money of the teachers and the taught. It would help the teacher to minimize his/her trouble and to discharge his/her responsibilities with efficiency and effectiveness. Teacher education is no longer a training process but an education strategy for enabling teachers to teach and concern for their well-being. NCTE (1998) has pointed out that teacher education programmes shall focus on competencies and commitment in much greater
magnitude. It calls for bringing out a transformation in teacher preparation strategies as well as in behavioural challenges in pupils under their charge. A sound programme for professional education of teachers is essential for the qualitative improvement of education. To improve the quality of teacher education, we should not only see that what type of students are selected but it is of vital importance that competent and committed teacher educators are given due place for this pious task of preparing future teachers. It is of vital importance that teacher educators should internalise their changing role and make themselves ready for this change. It is the role of teacher educators to prepare future teachers to be life long learners and educational workers to create a learning society. But, teacher educators can play such type of role effectively only if their own education is better and is imparted in a proper manner. Since the role of teacher educators is of prime importance for effective implementation of teacher education curriculum, they need to be given suitable in-service and orientation education.

Presently, India is having a large system of teacher education with more than 2,500 elementary teacher education institutions, colleges of teacher education and departments of education wherein more than 30,000 teacher educators are engaged in the preparation of school teachers. The NCERT organizes various professional development programmes for teacher educators in areas like student teaching, micro-teaching, research and evaluation activities, upgradation of teacher education curricula and so on. The UGC also implements various teacher education programmes and offers financial support for conducting seminars, workshops and research projects for teacher educators. Despite all these efforts, there has not been any substantial improvement in this field. While there is clear and categorical recognition of the vital role that the teacher educators have to play in preparing school teachers in terms of professional competencies and commitments on their part, surprisingly, in the total enterprise of teachers, the most neglected group is the teacher educators themselves. In fact, there is little information about who these people are, what are their motivations to enter the field, their perceptions of the area of their work, their social origins and their world view. In this regard, Kohli (2005b) rightly remarked that the study of teacher educators remained an area that was neglected by researchers.
Further, Raina (1998) strongly advocated that the research on teaching teachers stands in sharp contrast to research on teaching youngsters.

In the total enterprise of teachers the most neglected groups is the teacher educators themselves. Professional commitment in education in the modern sense is a recent arrival. Most of the teachers and lecturers lack in their dedications towards the profession which actually they should possess in order to which actually they should possess in order to comply with their commitment to the profession. A teacher should be professionally committed. The study of teacher educators in this context has remained neglected by researchers. Teaching is carried out in elementary and secondary schools and teachers are considered too important to be overlooked. But teachers of teachers – what they are like, what they think – are typically overlooked in studies of teacher education.

Very few research studies have been conducted on teacher educators and their characteristics. A brief account of these studies is provided here. Goyal (1980) indicated that a large majority of teacher educators were favourably inclined towards their profession, satisfied in their job but not well adjusted as well as had low professional interest. Baugh & Roberts (1994) studied professional and organizational commitment among engineers in relation to job performance and satisfaction and revealed that individuals high on both forms of commitment were also high on level of satisfaction and performance. Hung & Liu (1999) depicted that stay-back is the factor which is most highly and significantly related to commitment. Apart from this, the other factors like marital status, age and tenure were also found to be significantly related to commitment. Bogler & Somech (2004) examined the distinctive relationship of teachers’ professional and organizational commitment with participation in decision making and with organizational citizenship behaviour. It was inferred that participation in managerial domain was positively associated with both the professional and organizational commitment, whereas; participation in the technical domain was positively related with only teachers’ professional commitment. Choudhury (2007) indicated that no significant relationship exists between professional awareness and job satisfaction of college teachers. The factors like type of institution and educational qualification of teachers at higher level did not seem to
have any bearing on relationship between professional awareness and job satisfaction. Usha & Sasikumar (2007) revealed that teacher commitment is the best predictor of job satisfaction among school teachers. Shukla (2009) demonstrated a high positive relation between professional commitment and job satisfaction but the relation between teaching competence and job satisfaction came to be positively very low for most of the dimensions and for some of the dimensions, negative relation was observed. Sylvester (2010) held that the factors like gender, location of institute, educational qualification and years of teaching experience of teacher educators have no impact on their attitude towards teaching profession as well as level of job satisfaction. From the aforesaid discussion, it is clear that there is acute shortage of studies related to professional commitment of teacher educators while studies on attitude towards teaching, job satisfaction level and other socio-psychological characteristics are abundant in number both in India and abroad but most of such studies have been carried out either on secondary school teachers or college teachers. None of the studies have been carried out on professional commitment of teachers of teachers. Hence, the present study was undertaken to find out different factors that influence professional commitment of teacher educators. Commitment was presumed to be a natural ingredient of teaching from its very beginning. NCTE (1998) emphasised the need for quality teacher education in terms of competency based and commitment oriented teacher education. It is presumed that if teachers acquire professional competencies and commitment, it will result in sound teacher performance. In the functional sense, professional commitment on the part of teacher-educators essentially consists not only in doing their best for introducing teacher-trainees to the competencies that they would need as teachers in school, but also practically inspiring them to inculcate values of the teaching profession. A normative view of commitment puts commitment as value-based and normative evaluation of organization related behaviours. It mainly depends on the teacher characteristics such as knowledge base, sense of responsibility, the student 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 class room phenomena such as environment/climate and
organization/management. If the teachers take care of these factors, they can enhance their commitment level to the optimum. The professional accountability or responsibility of teacher educators includes instructional and non-instructional responsibilities. It was suggested that no single technique or method should be used for their appraisal; rather a combination of students’ ratings, administrator and peer ratings, systematic observations and performance tests should be employed for evaluating teacher educators functioning.

Effective school education anticipates effective teacher education. In making teacher education truly effective and functional, the role of teacher educators is most crucial. It is universally recognized that the onus of the quality of education of teachers rests squarely on the teacher educators. From the available literature on professional commitment of teachers and of teacher-educators, nothing is clear how teacher-educators stand in terms of their commitments as teachers. No verified knowledge comes to hand on the actual nature of professional commitment of the teacher educators from the study of said kind of literature. The need for the improvement and enhancement of professional commitment of teacher-educators is now universally emphasised and highlighted in educational circles and forums. How to effect its improvement to the optimum desirable degree is the formidable problem which teachers and educationists face. Hence, the present study was undertaken to assess the level of professional commitment of teacher educators and identify the factors responsible for declined commitment and dedication among teacher educators that consequently result in undesirable role played by them in teacher training institutions.

From the available literature on professional commitment of teachers and of teacher and educators nothing is clear how teacher educators stand in terms of their commitment as teachers no verified knowledge comes to hand an the actual nature of professional commitment of the teacher educators from the study of said kind of literature virtually little is known, how the commitment of teacher – educators stands related to their cognitive, affective and conative characteristics and to their values and ideals of life. Since the majority of research studies of professional commitment have been done with technical and professional personnel in occupational settings other
than education, so it is important for the benefit of the education that some fruitful researches should be done in this area of research.

Nothing is available to us in from the verified knowledge about the relationship of professional commitment of teacher educators to the thinking style, job value and teacher’s effectiveness of teacher educators. In recent years it has been felt that there is dire need of professional commitment in teacher educators. The need for the improvement and enhancement of the professional commitment of teachers and teacher educators is now universally emphasized and highlighted in educational desirable degree is the formidable problem which teachers and educationists face in our country. Hence, the investigator attempts to study the professional commitment of teacher educators in relation to their thinking style, job values and teacher’s effectiveness. In this research researcher also attempt to compare the professional commitment of teachers working in self-financing and Government financing teacher training institutions of Haryana.

TEACHER EDUCATORS

Teacher educators are the key players in the Endeavour to improve the quality of teacher education. They are role models. From them many teachers acquire the competences (knowledge, skills and values) that they deploy in the classroom. By modeling effective teaching strategies, teacher educators potentially play a key role both in maintaining and in improving the quality of the education system( through their impact on student teachers and serving teachers) and in developing it (through their role as developers and mediators of knowledge about education, and as educational innovators.)

So teacher educators are all those who actively facilitate the (formal) learning of student teachers and teachers. This includes those involved in the continuing professional development of teachers as well as those involved in the initial teacher education.

The three characteristics are necessity for the teacher educators they are:

1. Commitment
2. Confidence
3. Competence
1) **Commitment**: commitment of the teacher is reflected by the following factors
- Love for learning and learners
- Impact of teachers' work on changing society
- Professional ethics
- Excellence inside and outside the class, institutions and outside the institution
- Human value - honesty, loyalty to nation and objectivity

2) **Confidence**: confidence building is very crucial for a successful teacher. “can do” and “will do” spirit makes teachers more confident. So a high aspiration with strong zeal makes the teacher a good achiever. What teachers know and can do is the most important influence on what students learn. A teacher with high level of confidence can bring excellence to his career. At present most of the teachers have no confidence in them and in their performance? The pathways for confidence building are-
- Interest to learn
- To be member of learning society
- Exposures to changes and innovations
- Adaptability
- Self assessment
- Onward looking principles
- A mission, further vision and goals realization

3) **Competencies**: a teacher must be proficient and efficient. These competencies are required for a successful teacher. As an educator competencies in the following areas are required.
- Contextual
- Conceptual (curricular, content and learning)
- Transactional
- Competency in teaching-learning material
- Competency in ICT, technology and industry resources
- Evaluation
- Management
- Societal or community contact
All these aspects help in the capacity building of teacher-educators.

**Teacher Educator and Commitment**

Many different kinds of people share responsibility for educating teachers, but it cannot be taken for granted that they share the same levels of commitment to Teacher Education, the same ideas about quality in teaching or a common system of professional value.

It is remarked that teacher education institutions are isolated from the community. The teachers that we find can be categorized under four heads as:

- Competent and committed teachers
- Competent and not committed teachers
- Forced teachers
- Teachers by chance but not by choice

The first category of teachers is the ideal that one should strive for. The second category of teachers has competencies but they do not have aptitude towards teaching; so they cannot do justice to their jobs. The third category of teachers in India is either rehabilitated or has been forced to be teachers without competencies and commitments. The fourth category of teachers is teachers by chance. It is there last resort. So they never do justice to the profession at all.

The basic need of the day is to have a dynamic teacher. Teacher education should focus on the preparation of teachers who could facilitate the students to acquire knowledge, skills and competencies, which would help them to be agents of social change and transformation. So a teacher should play a proactive role in progress and development activities of the community.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:**

“**A STUDY OF PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT IN RELATION TO THINKING STYLE, JOB VALUES AND TEACHER’S EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHERS WORKING IN TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS OF HARYANA**”
OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS:

(i) Professional commitment:

Professional commitment is the urge of a teacher to update, strengthen and sharpen his professional competencies and to develop understanding and insight in different aspects of a profession.

(ii) Job Values:

Job value is something that satisfies psychological as well as physiological needs. It consists both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

(iii) Thinking style:

Thinking style is one which is often implicit and hidden and in which symbols like images, ideas and concepts are ordinary employed.

Thinking has a definite and or purpose. It is initiated to solve difficulty or problem and ends in its solution.

(iv) Teacher Effectiveness:

Teacher’s effectiveness is defined as the sum of all activities, both formal or informal, carried out by the individual or system to promote student growth and renewal.

(v) Teacher:

A person employed in an official capacity for a purpose of guiding and directing the learning experiences of pupils in an educational institutions whether Government or private. (Dictionary of Education, Carter V. Good, 1973).

(vi) Teacher Training Institutions

Teacher training institution means an institute of higher learning which provides the development of proficiency in skill and method of teaching to the member of teaching profession for professional preparation. An institute organizes extension work, offer diploma, courses and act as a cultural and training centre.

Teacher training institutes are categories in two ways :-

(vii) Self-Financing Teacher Training Institutions:

The Educational Institutes, which are controlled and managed by the self governing bodies. They do not get financial support from the government and are affiliated to University of the state and recognised by NCTE.
(viii) **Government Financing Teacher Training Institutions:**

The Educational Institutes, which are partially / fully controlled and managed by Govt. bodies. They get financial support from the government. The Government financing institutions are those colleges which receive financial support from the government in the form of 95 percent grant-in-aid and have partial control of Government and partial control of private management. They are also affiliated to University of the state and recognised by the NCTE. Government financing institutions of Education are those colleges which are run by Higher Education Department of the State in all respect (Financial and Administrative).

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

O\(_1\) To find the professional commitment of the teacher educators.

O\(_2\) To study professional commitment of teachers working in self-financing teacher training institutions.

O\(_3\) To study professional commitment of teachers working in Government financing teacher training institutions.

O\(_4\) To find the relationship in professional commitment and teacher’s effectiveness of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

O\(_5\) To find the relationship in professional commitment and job values of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

O\(_6\) To find the relationship in professional commitment and thinking style of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

O\(_7\) To compare the professional commitment of teachers working in self-financing and Government financing teacher training institutions.

O\(_8\) To compare the professional commitment of male teachers working in self-financing and Government financing teacher training institutions.

O\(_9\) To compare the professional commitment of female teachers working in self-financing and Government financing teacher training institutions.

O\(_{10}\) To compare the professional commitment of male and female teachers working in self-financing teacher training institutions.
O11 To compare the professional commitment of male and female teachers working in government financing teacher training institutions.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

Relation Between Professional Commitment And other Variables

H1 There are no significant relationships between professional commitment and teacher’s effectiveness of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

H2 There is no significant relationship between professional commitment and job values of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

H3 There is no significant relationship between professional commitment and thinking style of teachers working in teacher training institutions.

H4 There is no significant difference between professional commitment of teachers working in self-financing and Government financing teacher training institutions.

H5 There is no significant difference between professional commitment of male teachers working in self-financing and Government financing teacher training institutions.

H6 There is no significant difference between professional commitment of female teachers working in self-financing and Government financing teacher training institutions.

H7 There is no significance difference between professional commitment of male and female teachers working in self-financing teacher training institutions.

H8 There is no significance difference between professional commitment of male and female teachers working in government financing teacher training institutions.

DELIMITATIONS

(1) The present study will be restricted to teacher’s working in self-financing and Government financing teacher training institutes.

(2) The present study will be delimited to the teacher training institutes of Haryana affiliated by K.U.K and M.D.U and institute of J.B.T./N.T.T. affiliated by SCERT of Haryana.
(3) The present study will be confined to professional commitment of teacher educators as dependent variable.

(4) The study will be delimited to comparing and finding relationship of professional commitment with job values, thinking style and teacher’s effectiveness.

(5) The study will be confined to gender of the teacher educators and nature of the institution as demographic variables.