CHAPTER - 1st

INTRODUCTION
Education is regarded as a powerful instrument of social change. It has been rightly stated by Faure (1973) in the Report of International Commission on Education that "As far back as we can go in the history of education—which is admittedly is not very far it (education) emerges as a natural characteristics of human societies. It has contributed to the destiny of societies in all phases of their development" (p. 4). The change and modernization in the present century has been so rapid, particularly in the developing nations like India that education has not been able to keep pace with these changes. However, as the report of the Commonwealth Conference on Teacher Education (1974) has observed that "Among the most influential agencies is the formally constituted education system" (p. 18). If has further remarked that "the attempt to distinguish between the roles of education as an active agent of change and as a reflection of changes which have already taken place has never been concluded satisfactorily" (p. 19).

In our own country the Report of the Education Commission has amply emphasized that it is only education through which the 'change on a grand scale' in the society can be achieved without a violent revolution (p. 4). It is evident from the above that the role of education as a potential agent of social change is well recognized everywhere.

However, in India the role of education has not been recognised so well as it ought to be. In this connection, Naik (1975) has rightly
observed that "It is a pity that, in the political arena, education is still a marginal issue so that the basic educational problems do not get highlighted in the political debates" (p. 115). Perhaps one of the reasons is the difference of opinion among the politicians over the issue of planning and implementation of educational policies. Commenting on this Naik has stated:

For the planning and implementation of this great experiment (improvements in education suggested by Naik in his book), Gandhi is relevant, and so is Marx. What is needed, therefore, is a dialogue between Gandhism and Marxism which will enable us to discover and put across the most effective programmes of educational and social reconstruction suited to the unique civilization that is India (p. 115).

Thus, it is evident how important it is to strengthen the system of education in India in order to transform the society and to keep pace with the fast changing world. However, in spite of the fact that education has not been given the desired importance in the national priorities, there have been several noteworthy achievements in the field of education in India. The enrolments in all kinds and levels of institutions have increased manifold. Our system of education has produced scientists, technologists, educationists, artists and other specialists recognized all over the world. However, there remains a great for improvement in the system. Our educational system has been criticised on many counts, particularly for its
quality. In this connection, the Education Commission (1964-66) observed thus:

"It becomes evident that the present system of education, designed to meet the need of an imperial within the limitations set by a feudal and traditional society, will need radical changes if it is to meet the purpose of a modernizing democratic and socialistic society-changes in objectives, in content, in teaching methods, in programmes, in the size and composition of the student body, in the selection and professional preparation of teachers, and in organization (p. 5)."

**Teacher**

From the time immemorial, the teacher has been enjoying a high status and esteem in society. He has been termed the 'torchbearer' of the race, the one, who, by the light of his knowledge, removes the darkness of ignorance. He moulds the lives of thousands of children, and is known as the builder of the nation.

He dedicates his life to the service of other and symbolises a candle which burns to light the way for other. There is no profession so rewarding, so demanding and so rich in potentialities as the profession of teaching. Those who are in it, have an opportunity for public service which is reserved for few professions and few occupations.
Teacher is one of the most important factors contributing to the national development. Some one has rightly remarked that 'as is the teacher, so is the nation'. He is the pivot around which all the educational programmes which include curriculum, syllabus, textbooks, evaluation, etc., rotate in so far as their implementation is concerned. The best system of education may fail to achieve the desired ends owing to teachers' lack of sincerity, competence and character.

The teacher not only implements an educational programme by commensurate methods but he is its originator too. It is he who interacts with pupils of different school stages and ensures that wide ranging educational objectives are achieved. As an intellectual, he is a social critic but with special sense of responsibility to lead in a constructive direction. He is also his own teacher since he continually works at frontiers of knowledge and often faces problems and situations which are unprecedented and where past experience is of limited value. As an agent of change he himself has to be flexible and ready to change.

About teachers, the Education Commission (1996) in their report mentions.

"Of all the different factors which influence the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the quality, competence and character of 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 of work in which they can be fully effective."

The National Policy of Education - 1986 (NPE) rightly points out:

"The status of the teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of a society; it is said that no people can rise above the level of its teachers."

**Programme of Action (POA, 1986) states:**

"The status of teachers has had a direct bearing on the quality of education, and many of the ills of the letter can be ascribed to the in different manner in which society have looked upon the teacher and the manner in which many teachers have performed their functions."

Not only in India, but throughout the world, the importance of teacher in teaching-learning process and advancement of education has been very well recognised. The UNESCO-ILO Document on Status of Teacher (1967) states:

"It should be recognised that advance in education depends largely on the qualifications and ability of the teaching staff in general and on the human, pedagogical and technical qualities of the individual teachers."

In view of the immediate need to raise educational standard to the highest level and to keep teachers steadily improving their skills,
continuous efforts are required to be made to promote their academic, economic, social and professional status.

The term 'teacher' used in this study covers all those persons working at different school stages and responsible for the education of pupils. These teachers are classified into four broad categories, namely, pre-primary, elementary, secondary and higher secondary and degree class and the data are presented under these broad heads.

Role of the Teacher

Education in any society does not depend so much on any other factors as on the teacher. The teacher is the pivot of any educational system. All Committees and Commissions have emphasized the importance of the teacher's role in education. The Report of the Commonwealth Conference (1974) has stated as follows;

The teacher has a major role in educational development whether he approaches his work actively or passively. He can influence development adversely by opposing innovation or merely remaining mute in the face of a growing need for reform; on the other hand he can participate actively as an initiator himself or an interpreter of the plans devised by others (p. 231).

The role of the teacher in the educational system is recognized every where and at all levels. The education Commission (1964-66) in
India has emphasized the importance and role of the teacher in the following words:

All the different factors which influence the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the quality, competence and character of teacher 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 of work in which they can be fully effective (p. 46).

It has rightly been said in the Report of Commonwealth Conference (1974) that in order to be competent:

The teacher must have knowledge of child development, of the material to be taught and suitable methods of teaching it, of the culture of his pupils (which may not be his own) and of some interest of his own; his skills must enable him to teach, advise and guide his pupils, community and culture with which he is involved; his attitudes should be positive without being aggressive, so that his example is likely to be followed as he transmits explicitly and implicitly the national aims and ideals and moral and social values (p. 32).

Quality of the Teacher

The quality of teacher is very important for bringing about functional improvement in teaching. Adiseshiah (1978) has rightly
remarked that "those that are entrusted with the responsibility of teaching the teachers have naturally to be men and women of high calibre whose influence would prove to be the greatest asset for prospective teachers" (p. 189). Teacher in our country has to face the challenge of producing good citizen for a new society. However, in order to meet the challenge successfully, it is necessary to improve the quality of teachers. But in reality the situation is found to be very sad. It has been noted that the staff of these teacher education institutions is inadequately prepared for its task.

Another report stated that "a teacher of teachers should always be a model to his students. Unfortunately, the majority of teachers of teachers colleges of this country are not what they should be. In academic as well as in professional field, their knowledge is not upto mark" On the basis of obtained results it may be concluded without any hesitation that teacher educators at all levels are lethargic, conservative, they do not read, they do not think, they do not apply themselves to bringing about improvements, they take to the line of least resistance. It was observed that lecture is the predominant method of teaching in the collages', syllabus was revised a mere couple of times in 25 years, the teacher educators are quite satisfied with the revision. In the midst of so much satisfaction and complacency, it is no wonder that they show very little by way of latest readings or of innovative practices".
Teacher must possess the knowledge, skills and attitudes which will enable him to work with confidence. Among his other attributes are the mastery of the subjects, his specialization, skills in counselling and human relations, the power to appraise innovation critically and engender vision and foresight in his students, and a deep awareness of the responsibility with which he is entrusted. It has rightly been observed by Adiseshiah (1978) that "it is reputed teachers who have accumulated long year of teaching experience and who are noted for their mastery of subjects as well as for their teaching talent and administrative skills—a combination that is rare and in which one capability seems to exclude the other—should be employed on the staff of the training colleges" (p. 189).

It is, however, not only the knowledge of subjects and mastery of methods of teaching which are necessary for a teacher to be effective, there are other factors like his attitude towards profession of teaching, his satisfaction in the job, adjustment in the work and his interest in the profession, Faure (1973) observed in his report on education;" But the fundamental change in teacher training will be required by their changing task, which in future will be that of educating the personality, opening the way to the real world" (p. 217). Similarly Smith (1971) pointed out that any adequate programme of teacher education should provide for,

1- training in skills,

2- teaching of pedagogical concepts and principles,
3- developing relevant attitudes, and

4- teaching the various subjects matters of instruction.

A common model for classroom teaching includes presage, context, process and product variables. Among presage variables are teacher's formative experiences like the social class, sex and age, teacher training experiences like the college or university attended, courses offered, attitude of teacher educators, teaching experiences and in-service and post-graduate education; and teacher properties which consist of the measurable personality characteristics like the traits, motives, attitudes and abilities which have often been investigated for their effect on teaching. These attributes are equally important for a teacher educator. Peck and Tucker (1973) have observed that "teacher educators should practice what they preach. When teachers are treated in the same way they are supposed to treat their pupils, they are more likely to adopt the desired style of teaching behaviour" (p. 943).

However, it has been reported by Dunkin and Biddle (1974) that "educators are even more prone to measure 'pupil properties' than they are "teacher properties" 1 (p. 943). It, therefore, indicates the need for more studies to be undertaken on characteristic of teachers and more so of teacher educators. Research on presage variables of teacher educators is almost negligible.
The Need of Professionalism in Teachers

There are various factors which keep professionalism going in trained workers, such as teacher, doctors and engineers but if those factors are neglected or overlooked, both professionalism as well as normal work may be affected.

It is a matter of great concern that the spirit of professionalism either in technical or non-technical field of work is gradually disappearing in our country, more specially in teaching profession where it is at its lowest ebb since the dawn of independence. Consequently, not only quality education but education in every direction has been adversely affected. The general standard of our education in comparison to that of the developed countries is conspicuously very low, and in the last forty years after the independence, even in spite of various commissions and New Education Policies framed to improve the plight of education, our expectations for improving education have never been fulfilled.

There may be factors which would be responsible for our inadequate system in education but poor professionalism in teachers is also one of the important causes for it. What obviously appears is that in recent times an anti-professional environment has been gradually emerging out in our schools and colleges. As a result the product (student) is most seriously affected.
Without going into the details that to what extent our students have been affected and how much properly they are equipped in knowledge and social values due to lack of professionalism in teachers, let us concentrate on the causes that have affected teachers in this respect in recent times.

**Causes of Poor Professionalism**

There may be many causes which do not allow one to bloom to its full. Such causes may be rooted either in the family and or in the social environment to which one belongs to, but factors like lack of commitment towards work (job), lack of goal, lack of desire to develop academic richness, lack of identification with the institution to which one belongs to lack of desire to become a good teacher, could be some of the factors which may contribute to poor professionalism in teachers. The factors which have been indentified here above are quite self-explanatory. Besides, these are the factors which can be seen more individualistic or personal rather than family or socially oriented. Although the basic characteristics generally grow in a man out of the framework of his family and social climate, individuals differ in many respects. For example, in spite of the fact that many men might have belonged to poor family or poor social background, they grow to a height which normally cannot be scaled by men or women who hail from good family and good social backgrounds. Therefore, qualities like commitment towards a job, fulfillment of needs to
have a good mission in life or to have identification with the institution etc., could be reckoned as individualistic or personal factors which men gather by self-reflection and by transcending from lower situations.

Since the purpose of this investigation is to study work commitment and need fulfilment for men. Specially in teacher, we would rather not like to go into the qualities that whether they belong to family or individual categories.

Among all the possible resources, human resource plays a key role in turning the organisation's wheels to more. It is therefore necessary that organisation should take care of employees' well being and work related behavioural aspects like human motivation, satisfaction and the various aspects of commitment and involvement. It is also, indeed, true that continuing rapid growth and development are causing tremendous change in all aspects of life facets, especially, in the technical and information resource areas. These realities have consequently changed human needs, personal and social values and perception. In such a fast changing scenario there are viable means of developing an employee-oriented culture where employees irrespective of their legitimate hierarchy or power position may enjoy working and may feel at-home while discharging their responsibilities at work. It is imperative to stress on, that the notion of enjoyment and feeling at-home in working may not appear unless positive organisational culture exists where people have faith,
trust, cooperation, self-motivation, experience satisfaction and ultimately these may lead to heighten commitment etc. In view of these facts the present endeavour was undertaken to study Job Satisfaction, Teaching Effectiveness. Locus of control and Attitude of teachers serving in institutions running under govt. aided and non-aided schemes. The details of the meaning and concepts of the variables that were studied for this larger Ph.D. work follow.

**Job Satisfaction**

To begin a discussion on job satisfaction, one might logically begin with a definition. According to Webster's Dictionary (1986), job satisfaction refers to how well a job provides fulfillment of a need or want, or how well it serves as a source or means of enjoyment. Job satisfaction is defined more specifically in the literature, and several theorists have generated their own workable definitions. Of those researchers, Robert Hoppock is perhaps the most widely cited, although others have emerged with definitions reflecting more current theoretical underpinnings of job satisfaction. Some of the versions use the terms job attitudes, work satisfaction and job morale interchangeably, which may explain the lack of a standardized job satisfaction definition.

Within the literature, Hoppock offered one of the earliest definitions of job satisfaction when he described the construct as being any number of psychological, physiological, and environmental
circumstances which leads a person to express satisfaction with their job (Hoppock, 1935). Smith et al. (1969) defined job satisfaction as the feeling an individual has about his or her job. Locke (1969) suggested that job satisfaction was a positive or pleasurable reaction resulting from the appraisal of one's job, job achievement, or job experiences. Vroom (1982) defined job satisfaction as workers emotional orientation toward their current job roles. Similarly, Schultz (1982) stated that job satisfaction is essentially the psychological disposition of people toward their work. Siegal and Lance (1987) stated simply that job satisfaction is an emotional response defining the degree to which people like their job. Finally, Lofquist and Davis (1991), defined job satisfaction as "an individual's positive affective reaction of the target environment... as a result of the individual's appraisal of the extent to which his or her needs are fulfilled by the environment" (p. 27).

The definition of job satisfaction has visibly evolved through the decades, but most versions share the belief that job satisfaction is a work-related positive affective reaction. There seems to be less consistency when talking about the causes of job satisfaction. Wexley and Yukl (1984) stated that job satisfaction is influenced by many factors, including personal traits and characteristics of the job. To better understand these employee and job characteristics and their relationship to job satisfaction, various theories have emerged and provided the vital
framework for future job satisfaction studies. Early traditional theories suggested that a single bipolar continuum, with satisfaction on one end and dissatisfaction on the other, could be used to conceptualize job satisfaction. Later revisions of the theory included a two-continuum model that placed job satisfaction on the first scale, and job dissatisfaction on the second (Brown, 1998). These later theories focused more on the presence or absence of certain intrinsic and extrinsic job factors that could determine one's satisfaction level. Intrinsic factors are based on personal perceptions and internal feelings, and include factors such as recognition, advancement, and responsibility. These factors have been strongly linked to job satisfaction according to O'Driscoll & Randall (1999). Extrinsic factors are external job related variables that would include salary, supervision, and working conditions. The extrinsic factors have also been found to have a significant influence on job satisfaction levels according to Martin & Schinke (1998).

Determinants of Job Satisfaction

A review of literature shows that numerous variables have been investigated in their relation to job satisfaction. These variables include demographic data (e.g. age, gender, and race), intrinsic features of the job (e.g. recognition, advancement, and responsibility) and extrinsic variables (e.g. salary, supervision and working conditions).
Demographic Variables

Research has often focused on age as a factor influencing job satisfaction. Available literature is somewhat inconclusive however, with some studies showing no significant impact (Miller, 1985; Brown, 1998), some showing a graduate linear increase of satisfaction as age increases (Hulin, 1963; Weaver, 1980; Anderson, Hohenshil & Brown, 1984; Sutter, 1994), and some suggesting that satisfaction is curvilinear and changes throughout the lifespan of the employee (Hertzberg et al. 1957). Generally speaking, job satisfaction tends to increase gradually with age (Spector, 1997). Hertzberg et al. (1957) attributes this trend to the fact that job expectations tend to become more realistic as employees age and mature. This pattern may change to show a relative decline in satisfaction after age 55 (Jewel, 1990), but this may be linked to the decreased physical energy and enthusiasm that may accompany the aging process. Still, many studies fail to show this late-career job satisfaction drop-off and Quinn, Staines, and McCullough (1974) reported that older workers remain satisfied because of promotions and acquiring more desirable positions within organizations. Others justify the findings by noting that people change jobs 6-7 times in a lifetime, and as people get older, they become more aware of their needs and make better choices. This incongruence of literature is likely due to situational job variances and Zeitz (1990) supported this logic by demonstrating significant differences between
satisfaction levels of federal employees based on their positions as elite professionals, non-elite professionals, and non-professionals.

Gender has also received a great deal of attention in job satisfaction studies, but again the research is inconclusive. In 1997 Thompson and McNamara reviewed all job satisfaction studies published in the Educational Administration Quarterly over the past six years and showed no significant difference between male and female satisfaction levels. Other studies that have shown no significant difference between gender and job satisfaction levels include Barbash (1976), D'Arey, Syrotuik, & Siddique (1984), and liacqua et al. (1995). Smith, Smitz, and Hoy, (1998) arrived at similar insignificant findings until they compared the gender of the employee to the gender of the employer. They found that women were more significantly more satisfied than men in small companies with female supervision, while males were significantly more satisfied in larger companies with male supervisors. Studies suggesting that gender does affect job satisfaction are available, and data can be found to suggest that either men are more satisfied (Locke, Fitzpatrick & White, 1983; Black & Holden, 1998, Weaver, 1977) or that women are generally more satisfied (Kramen-Kahn & Hansen, 1998, Chapman & Lower, 1982). The inconsistencies, according to Gruneberg (1979), are closely linked to differences among expectations, respect, promotional prospects, salary, social interactions, and coping strategies of males and
females and the jobs they often hold. Others suggest that men are more satisfied with their jobs than women because of unequal treatments in the workplace, and that under equal work conditions, women are more satisfied with their jobs than men.

Race has also been investigated in job satisfaction studies, and once again, data is inconclusive. Brush, Moch. and Pooyan (1987) found no significant racial differences when comparing fifteen job satisfaction studies; however, Weaver (1980) reports that non-whites are consistently less satisfied than Caucasian employees. Some researchers agree that a racial difference does exist, but that whites are more satisfied with their jobs primarily because of unequal treatment in the workplace. Regardless of the specific demographic variable, be it age, gender, or race, Landy and Trumbo (1980) suggest that job satisfaction variances may exist, but they are very small (2-5 percent). Weaver (1978) agrees, and goes on to say that any differences that do exist, seem to disappear when factors such as education, salary, and status are controlled.

**Salary**

Many researchers have identified salary as a fundamental variable in the study of job satisfaction (Miller, 1985; Derlin and Schnieder, 1994; Solly and Hohenshil, 1986) Furthermore, the relationship between salary and job satisfaction has been addressed by virtually all job satisfaction studies in the last 80 years. Although the earliest research
suggested that salary was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Hoppock, 1935; Hertzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell, 1957), later studies began to suggest that salary was a factor up to a certain point in an employee's career (Hertzberg, 1966). By the 1970's, salary was being viewed as a more significant factor in job satisfaction, and in studies such as the one conducted by Dyer and Theriault (1976) salary was found to be the most significant factor in determining job satisfaction. Other researchers of the 1970's also spoke to the significant relationship between salary and satisfaction, but they argued that although low salary was a cause of dissatisfaction, high salary was not necessarily related to satisfaction (Lawler, 1971). More recent studies have generally shown a positive relationship between pay and job satisfaction (Lucas et al. 1990; Lee and Wilbur, 1985; Rhodes, 1983; Kanungo, 1982), but the relationship seems to be linked more to perceptions of equity and fairness than actual dollar amount (Hulin and Smith, 1965; Spector, 1997). Social comparison appears to be a key factor when looking at the relationship between satisfaction and salary, but employee expectations are also fundamental. According to Adams (1965), employees must feel that there is an equitable balance between the amount of work performed and the compensation received. In other words, if a worker feels that the compensation is either too large or too small for the amount of work performed, dissatisfaction may occur.
Rural Vs. Urban Work Site

In urban areas workers often have more job opportunities, better schools, more public transportation, better salary, higher prestige, and greater opportunities for spousal employment. Perhaps it is these factors that explained Arnold, Seekins, & Nelson's (1997) and Finley's (1991) findings that showed higher levels of job satisfaction in urban educational professionals when compared to those in rural settings. On the other hand, rural settings and smaller communities can provide family-oriented settings, lower crime rates, recreational access and overall enhanced "quality of life". Two of the most commonly mentioned disadvantages to rural settings have been professional isolation and lack of opportunity for professional development. However, recent advancements in telecommunications and interactive networking through the internet may decrease feelings of isolation and improve rural job satisfaction levels in the future.

Interpersonal Factors

Within the context of job satisfaction research, interpersonal relationships are the elements that make up the social and support network of the employee. These elements include the relationship with one's supervisor the social interaction with co-workers, and even the interactions with clients and/or customers. According to Brown (1998) employee
supervision and interaction have been found to be the two most significant interpersonal factors when looking at job satisfaction.

The importance of co-worker social support has been investigated for decades. As far back as the Hawthorne Studies of the 1920's, research has shown that workers who belong to a social group and have friendships on the job tend to be more satisfied (Maynard, 1986). Maynard suggests further that employees who lack social support at work experience more stress, have less coping techniques, and are generally less satisfied. Fellow employees can satisfy many social needs, and sympathetic and supportive co-workers can increase job satisfaction (Green, 2000). Co-workers are also vital for evaluating the equity and fairness of one's pay and work requirements, and social needs studies have shown that co-worker job satisfaction can influence one's own job satisfaction (Brown, 1998).

The nature of supervision provided can also have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Studies have shown that employees who have positive interactions with supervisors are generally more satisfied at work (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992; Vroom, 1982). Positive interactions tend to include constructive feedback, effective communication, and a focus on quality rather than quantity (Schroffel, 1999). Positive supervisory relationships are also those that treat the employees with respect, that promote staff cohesion but allow for individual thinking, and those that fulfill
employee's functional and interpersonal needs (Locke, 1970). Supervision is a complex variable however, and it is unrealistic to assume that job satisfaction can be guaranteed as long as supervisors interact positively with their employees. Individual personality characteristics may, for example, affect the employee's needs and management expectations. For example, Schroffel (1999) suggests that employees who have more experience desire less supervision and employees with less experience prefer more supervision. Also, studies have shown that organizational setting can affect the employee's desired supervisory relationship. In chaotic, ambiguous or otherwise unstructured job settings, employees tend to prefer more structured supervision. Conversely, in jobs where tasks are clearly defined and workers are well trained, a less structured supervisory style is preferred (House and Mitchell, 1974).

Work is unquestionably an intrinsic part of peoples' lives. "It is often our source of identity and at times our reason for being" (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992, p. 4). Aside from decent pay, economic security, and other extrinsic and tangible rewards of employment, the intrinsic aspects of work are also relevant to the study of job satisfaction. Intrinsic factors are employees' affective reactions to the job, such as their satisfaction with the freedom they have to choose their own methods of working, the recognition that they receive for good work, and the opportunity they have to use their ability. Intrinsic factors may also include perceived respect
and responsibility, task variety, and meaningful work. These personally rewarding intrinsic factors have demonstrated a significant impact on job satisfaction in many studies (Hertzberg et. al., 1957; O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999, Locke, 1976, Valentine, Valentine & Dick, 1988). Dodd-McCue and Wright (1996) found that job satisfaction is enhanced by the value placed on one's professional role and identification with that role, but negatively affected by choosing the job because rewards are extrinsic (external to the work itself, such as fellow workers, salary, or promotion opportunities).

Martinez-Ponz (1990) found that intrinsic rewards were more effective in increasing job satisfaction and commitment among teachers than were financial incentives. Similarly, Reyes, Madsen, and Taylor (1989) found that intrinsic rewards had more influence on educators than any organizational rewards.

Stewart (2000) suggested that helping to make workers feel independent had large positive effects on both performance and satisfaction outcomes. Kirkman and Rosen's (1999) work also spoke to the importance of worker autonomy and its positive relationship with job satisfaction and performance. Cappelli (2000) highlighted the importance of intrinsic rewards when participants rated interesting work, open communications, and opportunities for advancement as the top three things they desire in their jobs. Tatsapaugh (1994) suggested that the lack of advancement on the job is a frequent factor influencing resignation. When
employee's feel their work is meaningful and that they are responsible for their outcomes, Thomas & Tymon, (1997) state that workers show higher levels of effort and attention to doing tasks well.

**Teaching effectiveness**

Investment in education is essential for both personal growth and economic development. The World Declaration on Education for All, Article 5, states that primary education must be universal to ensure that the basic needs of all children are met. Basic learning needs are defined in terms of the essential learning tools and the basic learning content that people require in order to survive, to live and work with dignity, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning (UNESCO, 1996). Economically, the developing countries that have gained the most from integrating the world economy have shown impressive gains in primary education (World Bank, 2002).

Because of the demand created by expanded primary schooling and the need for an ever better educated workforce, investment in secondary education has become extremely important in developing countries. At present, however, more than 40 countries have a gross secondary enrolment rate of less than 40 per cent. There are countries whose labour force contains fewer than 20 per cent of workers who have successfully completed secondary education (Lewin and Caillods, 2001). In developing countries, secondary education produces the graduates who become
primary school teachers. Secondary education also contributes to establishing equity within these societies.

Increased access to primary and secondary education places great demands on the quality of the teaching force. During the 1990s, the increase in the school-age population outpaced the growth in the number of teachers worldwide. Even in industrialized nations, deterioration working conditions and low salaries are discouraging people from entering the teaching profession. In many of the least developed countries, the majority of primary school teachers have, at most, a lower secondary qualification, and frequently no professional training at all (2000: 1) pointed out, "enrolment rates are... up in most regions, but the quality of education has been suffering. Education for all is very well, but good quality education for all is another story".

For many years, educators and researchers have debated over which variables influence student achievement. A growing body of evidence suggests that schools can make a great difference in terms of student achievement, and a substantial portion of that difference is attributable to teachers. Specifically, differential teaching effectiveness is a strong determinant of differences in student learning, far outweighing the effect of differences in class size and class heterogeneity (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Students who are assigned to one ineffective teaching after another have significantly lower achievement and learning (that is, gains in
achievement) than those who are assigned to a sequence of several highly effective teachers (Sanders and Rivers, 1996). Thus the impact of teaching effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) seems to be additive and cumulative.

Which factors contribute to teaching effectiveness? Fortunately, there has been a conergence of the available research data pertaining to this question over the past 15 years (Brophy, 2001; Creemers, 1999; Hay McBer, 2000; Scheerens, 2003). Some of these factors fall under the general heading of 'teacher characteristics'. Teacher characteristics are relatively stable traits that are related to, and influence, the way teachers practise their profession. Table I contains a set of 12 teacher characteristics identified by Hay McBer (2000) based on a large-scale study conducted in the United Kingdom. These characteristics are organized into four 'clusters': professionalism, thinking/reasoning, expectations and leadership.
### Table-1

**Summary of characteristics associated with more effective teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Commitment to doing everything possible to fix each student and enabling all students to be successful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>Belief in one's ability to be effective and to take on challenges.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>Being consistent and fair, keeping one's word.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Respect</td>
<td>Belief that all individuals matter and deserve respect.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Thinking/reasoning</td>
<td>Analytical thinking</td>
<td>Ability to think logically, break things down, and recognize cause and effect.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conceptual thinking</td>
<td>Ability to identify patterns and connections, even when a great deal of detail is present.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Expectations</td>
<td>Drive for improvement</td>
<td>Relentless energy for setting and meeting challenging targets, for students and the school.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information seeking</td>
<td>Drive to find out more and get to the heart of things; intellectual curiosity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>Drive to act now to anticipate and pre-empt events.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>Ability and willingness to adapt to the needs of a situation and change tactics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accountability</td>
<td>Drive and ability to set clear expectations and parameters and hold others accountable for performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Passion for learning</td>
<td>Drive and ability to support students in their learning, and to help them become confident and independent learners.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Adapted from Hay McBer. 2000.*
Several of these characteristics have also been identified by other researchers. 'Commitment' and 'drive for improvement', for example, combine to form what Slavin et al. (1995) referred to as tolerance for failure. Also 'confidence' is similar to what Ashton and Webb (1986) have termed 'self-efficacy'. Despite differences in nomenclature, then, the teacher characteristics included in Table I have been found to be related to teacher effectiveness in a variety of settings by a variety of researchers.

It is important to note however, that the influence of teacher characteristics on teaching effectiveness is not direct. Rather, it is moderated or mediated by their effect on the way in which teachers organize their classrooms and operate within them. In Bloom's (1972) terms, what teachers are influences what teachers do; what teachers do, in turn, influences what, and how much, students learn.

**What is an effective teacher?**

Effective teachers are those who achieve the goals which they set for themselves or which they have set for them by others (e.g. ministries of education, legislators and other government officials, school administrators). As a consequence, those who study and attempt to improve teacher effectiveness must be cognizant of the goals imposed on teachers or the goals that teachers establish for themselves, or both.

A corollary of this definition is that effective teachers must possess the knowledge and skills needed to attain the goals, and must be
able to use that knowledge and those skills appropriately if these goals are to be achieved. In Medley's (1982) terms, the possession of knowledge and skills falls under the heading of 'teacher competence'. In contrast, the use of knowledge and skills in the classroom is referred to as 'teacher performance'. Thus, those who investigate and attempt to understand teacher effectiveness must be able to link teacher competence and teacher performance with the accomplishment of teacher goals (that is, 'teacher effectiveness').

Four major assumptions are implicit in this definition of teacher effectiveness. The first is that effective teachers tend to be aware of and actively pursue goals. These goals, in turn, guide their planning as well as their behaviours and interactions with students in the classroom. This assumption does not mean that effective teachers are always aware of goals; in fact, awareness is particularly likely to be lacking when goals have been established for teachers by others. Using current educational terminology, these 'goals established by others' are referred to as 'standards' (sometimes 'content standards' or 'curriculum standards'). That is, standards are externally imposed goals that indicate what students should know and be able to do as a result of the instruction that they receive.

This definition of teacher effectiveness does not mean that everything that teachers think about or do is (or should be) related to the attainment of some goal. Teachers, like the rest of us, often do things on
their own initiative which are independent of any motivation to fulfil a certain goal. Rather the definition lies in a second assumption; namely that teaching is an intentional and reasoned act. "Teaching is intentional because we always teach for some purpose, primarily to facilitate learning. Teaching is reasoned because what teachers teach their students is judged by them to be worthwhile" (Anderson et al., 2001:3).

A third assumption implicit in this definition of teacher effectiveness - an assumption alluded to in the previous paragraph - is that the vast majority of teachers' goals are, or should be, concerned either directly or indirectly with their students' learning. An example of direct teacher concern with learning is a teacher who states that he or she intends to help students develop the ability to differentiate facts from opinions, or reality from fantasy. An example of indirect teacher concern with learning is a teacher who sets out to decrease the level of disruptive behaviour in the classroom because he or she believes that learning cannot occur before the level of disruptive behaviour is reduced. It should be obvious that if teachers' goals are stated in terms of their students' learning, then, as Medley (1982; 1894) has asserted, "teacher effectiveness must be defined, and can only be assessed, in terms of behaviours and learning of students, not behaviours of teachers". In this regard, it is worth noting that the World Bank (1990:54) has suggested that "countries must emphasize students' learning as the key policy objective".
A fourth assumption underlying this definition of teacher effectiveness is that no teacher is effective in every aspect of their profession. For example a primary school teacher may be highly successful in teaching reading comprehension to his or her students while struggling to teach them the elements of rudimentary problem-solving in mathematics. Likewise a secondary literature teacher may be quite able to teach students an appreciation of poetry, but have some difficulty in teaching them how to interpret the symbolism in a series of novels. Thus, the degree to which a given teacher is effective depends, to a certain extent, on the goals being pursued by that teacher (Porter and Brophy, 1988).

**Locus of Control**

Locus of control is a term in psychology which refers to a person's belief about what causes the good or bad results in his or her life, either in general or in a specific area such as health or academics. Understanding of the concept was developed by Julian B. Rotter in 1954, and has since become an important aspect of personality studies.

Locus of control refers to the extent to which individuals believe that they can control events that affect them. Individuals with a high internal locus of control believe that events result primarily from their own behavior and actions. Those with a high external locus of control believe that powerful others, fate, or chance primarily determine events. Those
with a high internal locus of control have better control of their behavior, tend to exhibit more political behaviors and are more likely to attempt to influence other people than those with a high external locus of control; they are more likely to assume that their efforts will be successful. They are more active in seeking information and knowledge concerning their situation.

The full name Rotter gave the construct was Locus of Control of Reinforcement. In giving it this name, Rotter was bridging behavioural and cognitive psychology. Rotter's view was that behaviour was largely guided by "reinforcements" (rewards and punishments) and that through contingencies such as rewards and punishments, individuals come to hold beliefs about what causes their actions. These beliefs, in turn, guide what kinds of attitudes and behaviours people adopt. This understanding of Locus of Control is consistent, for example, with Philip Zimbardo (a famous psychologist):

A locus of control orientation is a belief about whether the outcomes of our actions are contingent on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events outside our personal control (external control orientation)." (Zimbardo, 1985, p. 275)

Thus, locus of control is conceptualised as referring to a unidimensional continuum, ranging from external to internal:
### History of concept

Locus of control is the framework of Rotter's (1954) social learning theory of personality. Lefcourt (1976) defined perceived locus of control as follows: "Perceived control is defined as a generalised expectancy for internal as opposed to external control of reinforcements" (Lefcourt 1976, p. 27). Early work on the topic of expectancies about control of reinforcement had, as Lefcourt explains, been performed in the 1950s by James and Phares prepared for unpublished doctoral dissertations supervised by Rotter at the Ohio State University. Attempts have been made to trace the genesis of the concept to the work of Alfred Adler, but its immediate background lies in the work of Rotter students, such as William H. James (not to be confused with William James), who studied two types of expectancy shifts:

- typical expectancy shifts, believing that a success or failure would be followed by a similar outcome; and
- atypical expectancy shifts, believing that a success or failure would be followed by a dissimilar outcome.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External Locus of Control</th>
<th>Internal Locus of Control</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual believes that his/her behaviour is guided by fate, luck, or other external circumstances</td>
<td>Individual believes that his/her behaviour is guided by his/her personal decisions and efforts.</td>
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Work in this field led psychologists to suppose that people who were more likely to display typical expectancy shifts were those who more likely to attribute their outcomes to ability, whereas those who displayed atypical expectancy would be more likely to attribute their outcomes to chance. This was interpreted as saying that people could be divided into those who attribute to ability (an internal cause) versus those who attribute to luck (an external cause). However, after 1970, Bernasd Weiner pointed out that attributions to ability versus luck also differ in than the former are an attribution to a stable cause, the latter an attribution to an unstable cause.

A revolutionary paper in this field was published in 1966, in the journal Psychological Monographs by Rotter. In it, Rotter Summarized over ten years of research by himself and his students, much of it previously unpublished. Early history of the concept can be found in Lefcourt (1976), who, early in his treatise on the topic, relates the concept to learned helplessness, Rotter (1975, 1989) has discussed problems and misconceptions in other’s use of the internal vs external control of reinforcement constructs.

Locus of control personality orientations

Rotter (1975) cautioned that internality and externality represent two ends of a continuum, not an either/or typology, Internaly tend to attribute outcomes of events to their own control. Externals attribute outcomes of events to external circumstances. For eyample, college
students with a strong internal locus of control may believe that their grades were achieved through their own abilities and efforts, whereas those with a strong external locus of control may believe that their grades are the results of good or bad luck, or to a professor who designs bad tests or grades capriciously; hence, they are less likely to expect that their own efforts will result in success and are therefore less likely to work hard for high grades, (it should not be thought however, that internality is linked exclusively with attribution to effort and externality with attribution to luck, as Weiner's work (see below) makes clear). This has obvious implications for differences between internals and externals in terms of their achievement motivation suggesting that internal locus is linked with higher levels of N-ach. Due to their locating control outside themselves externals tend to feel they have less control over their fate. People with an external locus of control tend to be more stressed and prone to clinical depression (Benassi, Sweeney & Dufor 1988, cited in Maltby, Day & Macaskill 2007).

Internals were believed by Rotter (1966) to exhibit two essential characteristics - high achievement motivation, and low outer directedness. This was the basis of the Locus of Control Scale proposed by Rotter in 1966, although this was actually based on Rotter's belief that locus of control is a unidimensional construct. Since 1970, Rotter's assumption of unidimensionality has been challenged with Levenson, for example arguing that different dimensions of locus of control, such as belief that events in
one's life are self determined, are organized by powerful others and are chance-based, must be separated. Weiner's early work in the 1970s, suggested that more or less orthogonal to the internality-externality dimension we should also consider differences between those who attribute to stable causes and there who attribute to unstable causes. This meant that unstable attributions could be to ability (an internal stable cause), effort (an internal unstable cause), task difficulty (an external stable cause) or luck (an external, cause). Such at least were how they early Weiner saw four causes, although he has been challenged as to whether people do see luck, for example, as an external cause, whether ability is always perceived as stable and whether effort is always seen as changing. Indeed, in more recent publications (e.g. Weiner, 1980) Weiner uses different terms for these four causes - such as "objective task characteristics" in place of task difficulty and "chance" in place of luck. It has also been notable how psychologists since Weiner have distinguished between stable effort and unstable effort-knowing that, in some circumstances, effort could be seen as a stable cause, especially given the presence of certain words such as "industrious" in the English language.

**Familial origins**

The development of locus of control is associated with family style and resources, cultural stability and experiences with effort leading to
reward. Many internals have grown up with families that modeled typical internal beliefs. These families emphasized effort, education, responsibility and thinking. Parents typically gave their children rewards they had promised them. In contrast, externals are typically associated with lower socioeconomic status. Societies experiencing social unrest increase the expectancy of being out-of-control, so people in such societies become more external. The research of Schneewind (1995; cited in Schultz & Schultz, 2005) suggests that "children in large single parent families headed by women are more likely to develop and external locus of control" (Schultz & Schultz, 2005, p. 439). Schultz and Schultz also point out that children who develop an internal locus tend to come from families where parents have been supportive and consistent in self-discipline. There has been some ambiguity about whether parental locus of control influences a children's locus of control, although at least one study has found that children are more likely to attribute their successes and failures to unknown causes if their parents had an external locus of control (see the first of the external links listed below).

As children grow older, they gain skills that give them more control over their environment. In support of this, psychological research has found that older children have more internal locus of control than younger children. Findings from early studies on the familial origins of locus of control were summarized by Lefcourt: "Warmth, supportiveness and
parental encouragement seem to be essential for development of an internal locus).

**Locus of control and age**

It is sometimes assumed that as people age, they will become less internal and more external, but data here have been ambiguous. Longitudinal data collected by Gatz and Karel Johnson et al., 2004 imply that internality may increase up to middle age, and thereafter decrease. Noting the ambiguity of data in this area, Aldwin and Gilmer (2004) cite Lachman's claim that locus of control is ambiguous. Indeed, there is evidence here that changes in locus of control in later life relate more visibly to increased externality, rather than reduced internality, if the two concepts are taken to be orthogonal. Evidence cited by Schultz and Schultz (2005), for example Heckhausen and Schulz (1995) or Ryckman and Malikosi, 1975 (cited in Schultz & Schultz, 2005), suggests that locus of control increases in internality up until middle age. These authors also note that attempts to control the environment become more pronounced between the age of eight and fourteen. For more on the relationship between locus of control and coping with the demands of later life, see the article on aging.

A study published in the journal Psychosomatic Medicine examined the health effect of childhood "locus of control". 7,500 British adults followed from birth who had shown an internal locus of control at the
age of 10 were less likely to be overweight at age 30. The children who had an internal locus of control also appeared to have higher levels of self-esteem.

**Gender-based differences in locus of control**

As Schultz and Schultz (2005) point out, significant differences in locus of control have not been found for adults in a U.S. population. However, these authors also note that there may be specific sex-based differences for specific categories of item to assess locus of control - for example, they cite evidence that men may have a greater internal locus for questions related to academic achievement (Strickland & Haley, 1980; cited in Schultz & Schultz, 2005).

**Cross-cultural issues in locus of control**

The question of whether people from different cultures vary in locus of control has long been of interest to social psychologists. Japanese people tend to be more external in locus of control orientation than people in the U.S., whereas differences in locus of control between different countries within Europe, and between the U.S. and Europe, tend to be small (Berry, Poortinga, Segall & Dasen, 1992). As Berry et al. (1992) point out, different ethnic groups within the United States have been compared on locus of control, with blacks in the U.S. being more external than whites, even when socio-economic status is controlled (Dyal, 1984; cited in Berry et al., 1992). Berry et al. (1992) also point out how research
on other ethnic minorities in the U.S., such as Hispanics, has been ambiguous. More on cross-cultural variations in locus of control can be found in Shiraev and Levy (2004). The research in this area indicates how locus of control has been a useful concept for researchers in cross-cultural psychology.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is another related concept, introduced by Albert Bandura. Although someone may believe that how some future event turns out is under their control, they may or may not believe that they are capable of behaving in a way that will produce the desired result. Self-efficacy has been measured by means of a psychometric scale and differs from locus of control in that whereas locus of control is generally a measure of cross-situational beliefs about control, self-efficacy is used as a concept to relate to more circumscribed situations and activities.

It is important to appreciate that differences do exist between internal locus of control and self-efficacy. Smith (1989) has argued that the Rotter scale to assess locus of control cannot be taken as a measure of self-efficacy, because "only a subset of items refer directly to the subject's capabilities" (Smith, p. 229). Smith noted, in his empirical study, that coping skills training led to increases in self-efficacy, but did not affect locus of control as measured by Rotter's (1966) scale.
Locus of control has been a concept which has certainly generated much research in psychology, in a variety of areas. Usefulness of the construct can be seen in its applicability to fields such as educational psychology, health psychology or clinical psychology. There will probably continue to be debate about whether specific or more global measures of locus of control will prove to be more useful. The importance of locus of control as a topic in psychology is likely to remain quite central for many years.

**Teacher Attitude**

In school education, the teacher's attitude is an important factor in the quality of their performance (Anand, 1998). A teacher with a favorable attitude, satisfied with the working conditions of the school, takes a keen interest in teaching and exudes inherent love for students or children. It could certainly make a difference in the quality and quantity of his performance in the schools he works (Somantroy, 1971). The favorable attitude of the teacher towards teaching is an important index of his excellence and efficiency (S.P. Anand, 1996). As the attitude, so will be the performance.

The teacher's role is manifold in a school set-up. He is supposed to play a key role in deciding the goals of education as well as in developing the curriculum. He is to decide and choose the methods of teaching suitable for transacting a topic and the materials used to strengthen
the teaching learning process. It is he who has to play the unified role of a true friend philosopher and guide to the students and in all these vital tasks, his attitudinal pattern counts a lot for the excellence of his performance.

Teachers with the right attitude know what they teach and how they teach. They are interested and want to know how teaching takes place and what motivate behaviour. They know how to appraise an individual and help him to develop in a desirable fashion and they are happy to work with small and large group of people of varying ages. They work towards making children curious, inventive and creative; They also have in them, and develop in others, values which are more satisfying to them and to the society.

The teacher's performance is influenced by a number of factors like the qualifications and training, the working environment, personality and the amount of satisfaction that the teacher enjoys in the job.

Job satisfaction is needed more in teaching profession than in many other professions. A dissatisfied teacher is harmful not only to himself/herself but also to the society to which he/she belongs. The teacher of this kind ceases to make any significant contribution to the educational development of the pupils. It has been noted that there are several factors responsible for job satisfaction of teachers. Heavy load of work, indiscipline, lack of physical facilities in the school, lack of facilities for the professional preparation of teachers, lack of good human relations between the
teachers and the administrative personnel are some of the factors that negatively affect the job satisfactions of teachers.

Teaching like any other occupations has both positive and negative aspects. Basically how an individual views his job depends upon his attitudes, interest, expectation and values. Some of the positive aspects of teaching are:

1. The teacher has the challenging role of helping and assisting young people in becoming more capable skilled and matured.

2. The teacher has intimate close and continued opportunity to observe and understand human behaviour.

3. There is certain amount of freedom and independence in the teaching profession as much of the time they are their own 'boss'.

4. The teachers have continuous opportunities to learn and improve their own performance.

5. The working condition for greater part is pleasant and interesting.

6. The teachers enjoy the company of generally intelligent and stimulating person.

The negative parts of teaching professions are as follows:

1. The teachers have to do a lot of repetitive work which makes their professional tedious and dull,
(2) Most of the time teachers are concerned with the problems of the students which make them anxious and strained.

(3) Some students are often hostile indifferent and disagreable which cause a lot of frustration and annoyance of the teacher.

(4) Inspite of all the hard labour of the teacher, students often failed to respond which causes a sense of disappointment and lowers the zeal to work.

(5) Uncalled for restrictions cause a lot of pain and feelings of being oppressed.

(6) When one has to work with dull and unresponsive and insensitive students and colleagues, the work is not at all enjoyable.

(7) The material rewards are so scanty in teaching profession that they barely fulfil the needs of the teachers.

(8) In the case of a few, the choice of a career may stem from an unwillingness or inability to meet the demands of more productive and accountable professions.

In the words of 'Bernard Shaw; "Teaching is a profession in which the cream and the scum find a place." Therefore, it will not be out of place to say that in understanding and analysing teachers attitude towards teaching as a career these points should also be considered. These points
will explain ‘why’ of the positive and negative attitudes towards teaching as a career.

Overly (1970) suggested that many of our acts take place without our conscious awareness of our own attitudes. He also suggested that attitudes towards learning determine the conditions we create for the classroom learning, the arrangement of the desks, the books to be read and the way the discussion time is managed in the classroom. Such type of educational atmosphere has an important influence on the people's learning. Teachers' attitudes, motives and perceptions influence his behaviour and therefore, transmitted to the students and thus affecting their attitudinal development.

Teaching and learning is a difficult and complex problem. Teaching covers large number of components from the make up of each child to the unique nature of a group of children to the attitude and values of adult teachers. This complexity of the components results in effective teaching and this is the place where teachers' role is of major influence. The influence may be both negative and positive. The conclusion that if students do not perform better in the classroom it is teacher's fault. The teacher, has an important role in students performance. A teacher is supposed to be competent enough to motivate the student and to extract the good from him. It is now realized that the teacher is the chief agent for the success or failure of the students in the classroom. Actually it is
disturbing to find that the teacher who is so important in entire educational process, is often not trained properly, not selected properly and not paid what is due to him. This leads us to investigate thoroughly the teacher and the teaching.

Teacher's personality is associated with the determination of goals, tactics and also in actual teaching. His family, experiences, social, educational, emotional, and health conditions as well as religion, country of origin and other experiences effect his personality and determine his motives, cognitions, perception etc. The personality of the teacher affects his behaviour which in turn affects the pupil's behaviour, system behaviour and community response in the future. The pupil's personality and other proximal environment also affects the teacher behaviour and in this way teacher-pupil interaction goes on, with changes in teacher behaviour and pupil behaviour in the course of time. the teacher gains experience from the environment, of which the pupils is the main factor, and the pupil grows from teachers behaviour. While teaching, the competent teacher leads his student to a well determined goal which makes the life of students beneficial to him and to the society. The determination of goal is complex one and requires much previous experience.

The previous experience of the teacher is very important for his any action either in words or in deeds. Whatever speciality, a person has in his life and actions, is based upon his previous experience of the world.
The situation which a person faces in his life 'presses' him for some 'needs' and he 'imagines' and expresses himself accordingly. He behaves with each other in respect of his previous experience and all the 'interpersonal relations' are determined by his experiences of the past. The person speaks with the context of the past and his language is largely affected by his previous experiences. Whatever achievement is demonstrated by him is based upon his previous experiences combined with the experiences of the present and schemes for the future. The outcome of which is significant in the life of a person and his personality.

According to Shaffers (1959) every human being has characteristics which are shown in his typical ways of reacting to common situations, they make up his personality. Personality differences are evident in every classroom.

To the psychologists, personality is neither a false appearance nor an ultimate cause since people are products of their biological structures and their environment. Personality has been regarded as the individuality the emerges from the interaction between a biological organism and a social and physical world, personality can be described only in terms of behaviour of the individual his acts, postures words and thoughts. It is therefore is an appearance, as are all phenomena of nature, but not a false appearance. In this conception the 'mask' and 'substance' views of personality are fused. Personality consists of
observable behaviour, and it is also individual and intrinsic. It may be defined as individual's typical or consistent adjustment to his environment.

Sprinthall and Sprinthall, (1964) suggested that effective teaching is related to the human qualities posses by a teacher. A teacher has his own needs, values, likes dislikes and a personality make-up. Since the early era of civilization it is thought that a teacher should have all the nobel quality and no human vices. Thus, in the personality of the teacher his attitude towards teaching has its root.

A good number of studies concerning teaching and attitudes, expectations, teachers' personality and values have been conducted. Review of researches in the area of teacher attitude clearly indicate that several investigators have investigated teacher attitude in relation to academic ranks and seniority status (kremer & Lifman 1978) feeling of insecurity and frustration, anxiety, recognition by society, housing facilities, facilities for children's education congenial home atmosphere (Sahini & Chadha 1989), sex of teacher, locale (rural and urban), management (government and private), organizational climate of the school (Biswas, Chandra, De 1995) modern approaches of teaching (Sharma & Singh 1972), characteristics of ideal female teacher (Adny & Henry 1971), teaching competence, intelligence level, academic qualification (Agrawal 1969), teacher adjustment and teaching efficiency (Samantroy 1971), teachers liking for the profession (Bose, Banerjee & Mukherjee 1972),
components of classroom (Singh 1974), social prestige (Roy 1975),
teaching effectiveness (Mahesh & Saxena 1983), type of school (Taylor &
Sayer 1983), stress related - physical problems of depression, physical
and emotional symptoms of burnout (Barner 1982), attitudinal
professionalism (Lam 1983), age (Anderson, Hohenshil & Brown 1984),
educational goals and personal values (Krampen 1979), teaching
experience (Gupta & Nish 1979), structure of teachers professional
attitude (Bickel & Christen 1977), teacher characteristics and behaviours
(Biddle 1964; Soar 1964), personal characteristics e.g. grades and SES
(Greene & Scott 1962), social background (Noll & Noll 1963), teacher
perceptions of intro-occupational status (Hansen, Borgatta & Lambert 1971),
stability of teachers (Lavingia 1974), extraversion and neuroticism (Anand
1977), work motivation (Gonsalves 1989), sex (Raisani 1988; Porwal 1980;
Muthiah 1981; Dixit 1984), teachers' prior knowledge and belief system
(Ruddell & Haris 1989), job related stress (Evans & Johnson 1990),
personality factors and attitude towards modernisation (Singh 1992),
personality traits (Srinivasan 1992), school level (Ross, Weller & Brown
1988), teacher job satisfaction (Gupta & Prakash 1995), age, qualification,
experience and place of residence (Uma Devi & Venkatramaiah 1996),
teachers' motivation and effectiveness (Anand 1996), vocational interests
(Aminabhavi & Dharanendriah 1996), type of professions (Roy 1995) and
quality of working life (QSL Paranjpe 1997) etc..
To sum up the attitude of a person which is considered to be an important determinant of his behaviour, decides not only the quantity but also the quality of his work. In a school situation his attitude determines his effectiveness in every bit of his teaching act. The favourable attitude of a teacher towards his profession makes him more motivated, effective and competent in his profession. Such motivated people influence the working climate and objectives of the institution.

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