REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Importance of the review - Section A: theoretical overview - mental health status - temperament - alienation - teacher affectiveness - Section B: Studies on teacher effectiveness.
One of the pre-conditions of any research is that the researcher must be thorough with the relevant theories in the field, the research reports, and all other related works. The progressive growth of any scientific discipline is marked explicitly by its professional literature. For any worthwhile study in any field of knowledge, the investigator needs an adequate familiarity with the research materials already available in the area.

Research is a process of exploration; it is an investigation of something new which may be hidden or unnoticed. In other words, it is the process of gathering, recording, and analysing of relevant data about the problem in a selected branch of human activity. During
this searching process, the past experience will have valuable importance. The researcher needs to acquire up-to-date information about what has been thought and done in the particular area from which he intends to take up a problem for research.

A knowledge of related research enables the investigator to define the frontiers of his field, and also to sharpen a nebulous idea. The development of a research design, and the determination of the size and scope of the problem, all depend, to a great extent, on the care and intensity with which the researcher has examined the literature related to his topic for investigation. The review also helps to sharpen and define understanding of existing knowledge in the problem area, and provides a background for the research project.

In short, the a survey of related literature helps the researcher to find what is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what methods of attack have been promising, and what problems remain to be solved. It furnishes him with indispensable suggestions about comparative data, good procedures, likely methods, and tried techniques. It also prevents repetition of research. Above all, it contributes in the general scholarship of
the investigator. As Best and Kahn (1995) observe:

A summary of the writings of recognized authorities and of previous research provides evidence that the researcher is familiar with what is already known and what is still unknown and untested. Since effective research is based upon past knowledge, this step helps to eliminate the duplication of what has been done ... 

To quote Creswell (1994): Quantitative studies include a substantial amount of literature to provide direction for research questions or hypotheses.

Thus, the search for related literature is one of the most important steps in the research process. It is a valuable guide to defining the problem, recognizing its significance, formulating hypotheses, suggesting appropriate research design, and sources of data. With these in view, the theoretical aspects and specific studies already available on variables associated with the current theme have been surveyed and brief accounts are presented below under the following major sections:

Section A: Theoretical Overview

Section B: Studies on Teaching Effectiveness

The different aspects falling under these two sections are presented below.
SECTION A
THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

1. MENTAL HEALTH STATUS

People with healthy personalities are those who are judged to be well adjusted. They are so judged because they are able to function efficiently in the world of people (Hurlock, 1994). The term 'Mental health', according to Thorpe (1960), means satisfactory adjustment or adaptation to the requirements of group life, and the experiencing by the individual of the greatest success which his abilities make possible, with a maximum sense of well-being on his own part and the highest possible benefit to society. The individual on this level is sufficiently mature emotionally to conduct himself adaptively practically under all circumstances.

Good (1945) defines mental health as a wholesomeness of mind, analogous to the wholesomeness of body implicit in physical health, extended in modern usage to include all aspects of the adequacy of individual integration. This view was accepted by Joseph (1951). For him, mental health is the result of personality integration. However, there are psychologists who assume that mental health is a state of adjustment. Menninger (1945), for example, views mental health as:
the adjustment of human beings to the world and
to each other with a maximum effectiveness and
happiness... It is the ability to maintain an
even temper, an alert intelligence, socially
considerate behaviour and a happy disposition.

Further, English and English (1948) describe
mental health as "a relatively enduring state wherein the
person is well-adjusted, has a zest for living."

The Expert Committee on Mental Health of the World
Health Organization (1973) states that:

Mental health is a condition, subject to fluctua-
tions due to biological and social factors, which
enables the individual to achieve a satisfactory
synthesis of his own potentially conflicting
instinctive drives, to form and maintain
harmonious relations with others; and to
participate in constructive changes in his social
and physical environment.

According to Hadfield (1952), mental health is:

... the full and free expression of all our native
and acquired potentialities, in harmony with one
another by being directed towards a common end or
aim of the personality as a whole.

For Lawrence (1953):

... Healthy personalities are to be viewed as
individuals who continue to grow, and mature,
accepting the requirements and develop, the opportunities of each successive stage of life from infancy through the now available years of old age and finding the fulfilsments they offer without paying too high a cost personally or socially as they participate in maintaining social order and carrying on our culture.

A list of the characteristics of optimum functioning individuals has been provided by Allport (1961) as shown below:

1. Autonomous interests
2. Large extensions of the self
3. Interest in others (low egocentricity)
4. Ability to lose oneself in work and play
5. Self-objectification.

Maslow (1970) has provided the following aspects as the most important and useful characteristics of self-actualizing people:

1. More efficient perception of reality and more comfortable relations with it
2. Acceptance (of self, others, nature)
3. Spontaneity, simplicity, naturalness
4. Problem-centeredness
5. A need for privacy - the quality of detachment
6. Autonomy, independence of culture, and environment

7. Continued freshness of appreciation - perhaps a facet of perception of reality

8. Mystic in 'peak' experience

9. A deep feeling of identification for all mankind

10. Close interpersonal relations with a few others

11. A democratic character structure

12. Strong moral and ethical standards

13. Philosophical, unhostile sense of humour

14. Creativeness

15. Resistance to enculturation.

An important issue that has come up for discussions, and is to be mentioned in this context is whether "mental health" and "mental illness" should be conceptualised on the same continuum or as different continua that cut across each other. The conventional medical view holds that mental health is the absence of mental illness, that both terms represent the extreme ends of the same continuum, and that the difference between the two states is one of degree. Another view is that mental health is quantitatively different from mental illness and that a person can be both mentally healthy and mentally ill at the same time.
However, Jahoda (1958), as an advocate of the concept of 'positive mental health', maintains that the absence of certain qualities does not imply the presence of others. For example, the absence of hallucinations does not imply the presence of accurate self-appraisal; conversely, the presence of creativity does not exclude the presence of severe anxiety.

The intrapsychic life of the individual has been focused by the psychoanalytic approach. Freud (1932) defined mental health in his statement: "Where I was, there shall ego be". Here the value is awareness of unconscious motivations and self-control based upon these insights. The interpersonal frame of reference is more concerned with the functioning of individuals in interpersonal situations.

The person's drive towards mental health has been viewed by Sullivan (1954) as those "processes which tend to improve his efficiency as a human being, his satisfaction and his success in living", and places major value on effective and efficient social functioning.

Fromm (1955) focuses on the individual's relationship with the larger social environment, as noted below:
The mentally healthy person is the productive and unalienated persons, the person who relates himself to the world lovingly and who uses his reason to grasp reality objectively, who experiences himself as a unique individual entity, and at the same time feels one with his fellow man; who is not subject to irrational authority, and accepts willingly the rational authority of conscience and reason; who is in the process of being born as long as he is alive, and considers the gift of life the most precious chance he has.

Eaton (1951) proposes the following five criteria of mental health:

1. Mental health as judged by clinical insight (including tests);
2. Mental health as an 'ideal type' personality description;
3. Mental health as a self-judgement;
4. Mental health as a group judgement (Sociocultural); and
5. Mental health as a statistical norm.

There are yet other criteria for mental health of individuals. The criteria of mental health suggested by Schneiders (1955) are:

1. Adequate contact with reality
2. Healthy attitudes
3. Control of thought and imagination
4. Mental efficiency
5. Integration of thought and conduct
6. Integration of motives and resolution of conflicts
7. Feelings of security and belonging
8. Adequate concept of self
9. Adequate ego-identification
10. A healthy emotional life.

For Lebo (1961), there are ten attributes of mental health: These are:

1. A mentally healthy person is able to face and overcome obstacles without being permanently upset. The person with good mental health is resilient.
2. A mentally healthy person is able to match desires with reality.
3. A mentally healthy person is congenial. While he is aware of the faults some others may have, he views people generally as amiable and helpful. He enjoys associating and working with his fellow humans and can sympathise with their distresses and enjoy their successes.
4. The mentally healthy person recognizes a debt to society. He realises that he has social as well as
personal obligations. Deeds in discharge of the debt to society help to promote mental health.

5. The mentally healthy person is "reliable" in his behaviour and in his emotional state. He is consistent and so can be corrected upon by others because his present actions are governed by reason instead of impulse.

6. The mentally healthy person is "adaptable". He realizes that when a disturbing situation cannot be changed, he himself can change. Good mental health implies a willingness to examine the possibilities of change in oneself.

7. Good mental health includes productivity.

8. A mentally healthy person has good time orientation, which enables him to work in the present while planning for the future.

9. A mentally healthy person is self-reliant. When confronted with the facts he can decide without undue hesitation or vacillation.

10. Willingness to be appraised is a healthy sign because he realizes that ambitions must be brought in line with attitudes in order to experience pleasure in success.
The positive indices of mental health according to Khatri (1963) are the following:

1. Positive self-image, which indicates the feeling that one is a worthy person and is a valued member of one's social group.

2. Firm sense of intensity in which one knows what one would like to be, having a clear conception of constellation of roles to be occupied in one’s social group.

3. Acceptance of one’s masculine-feminine role, feeling of sexual adequacy, acceptance of hetero-sexual partner, and also the role of being mother or father with capacity to receive and give affection.

4. Capacity to have smooth interpersonal relationships. Sufficient amount of libidinal cathexis to one’s family members, peers, etc., neither very quarrelsome nor not having paranoid feeling.

5. Optional tolerance of tensions neither masochist who actively seeks out tension nor very low threshold for aggression.

6. Moderate intra-personal conflicts.

7. Security, basic trust, feeling of safety that one is
not in danger or that we can grapple with danger if and when it comes; trust in people.

8. Absence of criminal tendencies, psychosomatic, neurotic, and psychotic symptoms.

Jahoda (1958) rules out certain criteria for defining mental health as unsuitable because they are unsatisfactory for research purposes. "Absence of disease", for instance, is rejected as a criterion, not only because of the difficulty in circumscribing disease but also because common usage of the term "mental health" now includes something more than the mere absence of a negative value. "Statistical normality" is also considered unsuitable on the grounds that the term is unspecific, bare of content, and fails to come to groups with the question. Finally, 'happiness' and 'well being' are ruled out because they involve external circumstances as well as individual functioning.

The acceptable set of criteria in current use has been formulated by Jahoda as noted below:

(a). Attitude toward the self
(b). Self-actualization
(c). Integration
(d). Autonomy
(e). Perception of Reality

(f). Environmental Mastery

These aspects of mental health are described in the next chapter, under test development.

2. TEMPERAMENT

Temperament is an important trait or component of personality. Eysenck (1953) defines 'personality' as the more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character, temperament, intellect, and physique, which determine his unique adjustment to the environment. Here the term temperament denotes a person's more or less stable and enduring system of affective behaviour ("emotion").

While describing the various dimensions of temperament, Guilford (1965) compared the term with 'aptitude' by saying that: aptitudes pertain to how well the person performs. Temperament traits have to do with the manner in which his actions occur. According to Trow (1950), temperament refers to certain characteristics of an individual, including feelings, moods, and emotional attitudes that he tends to exhibit consistently. The derivation of the long standing classification of temperaments was mentioned in connection with discussion
of the endocrines. It was Galen (A.D. 130-200) who connected the bodily fluids with the respective temperaments, sanguine, choleric, melancholic, and phlegmatic. Wilhelm Wunt (1832-1920) elaborated the meaning of these as combinations of quickness and strength. Thus, for example, the sanguine man is quick to respond, but is shifting, unsteady, lacking in force the melancholic man is slow in getting under way perhaps, but is not easily moved, and so on.

The "Temperamental" person is one with a volatile temperament, regularly showing a high degree of emotionality, that is, a tendency to respond to all situations with more emotion than is usual in the culture. It is possible to establish a kind of emotional gradient. At one extreme are the stolid, phlegmatic, "unemotional" individuals, while at the other the labile, volatile, or emotionally expressive. There is no means of comparing the actual conscious emotional experiences of such persons; but there is no reason to believe that the more stolid, less emotional types do not feel as intensely as those whose emotional states are more obvious. Their emotional attitudes are often less easy to interpret. However, whether they are pupils or teachers, they stand a better chance of being misunderstood.
Qualitative temperamental differences have yielded satisfactory classification, though from ancient times, they have influenced the delineation of character "types". Relationships between temperament and body build have often been noted - the typical "Jollyfat man", for example, and the dangerous people with the "lean and hungry look".

According to Guilford (1965), many of the analyses of temperament traits by factorial methods have been based upon responses to inventory items. Sometimes the variables correlated have been the single items and sometimes they have been scores from homogeneous lists of items. The basic information, then, comes from the person's reports about himself. These variable-item scores and inventory scores are not in the same category as self-ratings of traits, for the items usually deal with more specific habits, opinions, likes, and dislikes.

In the survey of temperament factors, an attempt has been made to organize the primary traits of temperament in a systematic manner (Guilford, 1965). The temperament factors fall into three major groups of dispositions, depending upon the spheres of behaviour in which they apply. Some of them seem to apply to many kinds of behaviour, or to behaviour in general, while others are
more restricted to emotional aspects of behaviour and still others to social behaviour. The temperament factors can therefore be listed in three columns of a matrix, with headings of General, Emotional, and Social (see Table 1).

The dimensions of temperament pertain primarily to the manner in which a person's behaviour occurs, as distinguished from what he does or how well he does it. They account for what is popularly known as an individual's "disposition". Most factors of temperament can be grouped into three broad classes, depending upon whether they refer to a person's attitudes toward his general environment, his emotional characteristics, or his inclinations in dealing with his social environment.

Within each of these three categories there exist more or less common distinctions between factors, that is, whether the person is inclined toward a positive or a negative disposition, whether he is responsive or unresponsive, active or passive, controlled or uncontrolled, and objective or egocentric. The naming of opposite directions in each case is a function of the general bipolarity of the dimensions in the domain of temperament.

Among the better-known dimensions of temperament are the factors of confidence vs. inferiority feelings,
### TABLE 1

A Matrix of Temperament Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of dimension</th>
<th>Areas of behaviour involved</th>
<th>General</th>
<th>Emotional</th>
<th>Social</th>
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<td>Positive</td>
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<td>vs. negative</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Confidence vs. inferiority</td>
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<td>Responsive</td>
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<tr>
<td>vs. unresponsive</td>
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<td>Alertness vs. inattentiveness</td>
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<td>Active</td>
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<td>vs. passive</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Impulsiveness vs. deliberateness</td>
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<td>Controlled</td>
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<td>vs. uncontrolled</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Restraint vs. rhathymia</td>
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<td>Objective</td>
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<tr>
<td>vs. egocentric</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Objectivity vs. hypersensitivity</td>
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</table>

|                   |                             |         |           |        |
|                   | Objectivity vs. hypersensitivity |       |           |        |
|                   | Poise vs. self-consciousness |         |           |        |
|                   | Tolerance vs. criticalness   |         |           |        |
restraint vs. rhathymia, objectivity vs. hypersensitivity, cheerfulness vs. depression, emotional immaturity vs. maturity, nervousness vs. composure, stability vs. cycloid disposition, ascendance vs. timidity, socialization vs. self-sufficiency, friendliness vs. hostility, and tolerance vs. criticalness (Guilford, 1965).

3. ALIENATION

The term "Alienation" means a mode of experience in which the person feels himself as an alien. The person has become estranged from himself. He does not experience himself as the centre of his world, as the creator of his own acts - but his acts and consequences have become his masters, whom he obeys. The alienated person is out of touch with himself, as he is out of touch with any other person. He is experienced as thing is experienced, with the senses and with commonsense, but at the same time without being related to oneself and to the world outside productively.

The notion of alienation is supposed to have developed in olden days to mean aloofness, apathy, turning or keeping away, indifference, cutting off and the like from something or somebody whether society, religion, administration, even the self. This concept is central to
Marxian thought, its predominance in the work place assumes an overriding importance. Mark (cited in Abraham, 1968) summarises the alienation of labour as follows:

First, the fact that labour is external to the worker, i.e., it does not affirm himself but denies himself, does not feel content but unhappy, does not develop freely his physical and mental energy but mortifies his body and ruins his mind. The worker therefore only feels himself outside his work, and in his work feels outside himself. He is at home when he is not working, and when he is working he is not at home. His labour is therefore not voluntary, but coerced: it is forced labour. It is therefore not the satisfaction of a need; it is merely a means to satisfy needs external to it. It's alien character emerges clearly in the fact that as soon as physical or other compulsion exists, labour is shunned like the plague. External labour, labour in which man alienates himself, is a labour of self-sacrifice, mortification. Lastly, the external character of labour for the worker appears in the fact that it is not his own, but someone else's, that it does not belong to him, that in it he belongs, not to himself, but to another... it is the loss of his self.

Fromm (1955) suggests that:

... a man leads an alienated life when he does not experience himself at the centre of his world, as
the creator of his own acts - but his acts and their consequences have become his masters; whom he obeys ...

According to Lang (1987), in 'alienation', the estrangement of the self from the self is stressed. There is a loss of emotions which are part of normal experience. The withdrawal of emotional interest for an external world, because it is threatening, leads to an exaggerated concern with oneself. This may express itself either in extreme sensitivity and altered feelings, or in depersonalisation and isolation of affect when the overcharged feelings are repressed or dissociated from the conscious personality.

Ziller (1969) also conforms to the general view. To her, alienation is an attitude of hopelessness resulting from an inability to structure the environment in terms of either a stable self-orientation or a stable other orientation, and a cessation in the individual's attempts to confront the social environment. Having no guidance mechanisms from self or other, a sense of meaninglessness, powerlessness, and normlessness is generated. The alienated individual does not mediate environmental stimuli through the concept of self or the concept of other. The alienated are not accepted as members within a significant sub-group and perceive themselves as unguided persons in an unchartered environment.
Shepard's (1972) dimensions of alienation include: Powerlessness; Meaninglessness; Normlessness; Instrumental work-orientation; and Self-evaluation involvement.

The variants of alienation evident in today's society as postulated by Seeman (1972) are:

1. Powerlessness
2. Meaninglessness
3. Normlessness
4. Isolation, and
5. Self-estrangement.

These five variants are selected for the present investigations as components of alienation, and are described under 'test development' in the next chapter.

Certain Theories on Alienation:

The theories in 'alienation' are basically concerned with explaining the circumstances that lead to alienation, as well as the outcomes. The origin of alienation theories can be traced back to the writings of Hegel and Marx. It is with the publication of Marx's early writing under the title 'Economic and Philosophic Manuscripts' in 1932 that the concept of alienation became a widely known affair. Later, Weber and Simmel studied man's estrangement vis-a-vis reification. Soon after,
Fromm and Marcuse came into the forefront (Swingwood, 1975).

Some of the important theories of alienation are known after the name of the author, and the theories are briefly given here:

1. Marx's Views:

From Hegel, Marx takes the idea of alienation, and he gives it a socioeconomic complexion first in his early writings. A highly philosophical concept thus came to have both normative and empirical dimensions at the hands of Marx. He was the first to point out the relationship of alienation to capitalism. He argued that private ownership of factories, specialization of labour, and technology in general produced a system in which workers were increasingly detached from the fruits of their labour. He argues that the social division of labour creates vast accumulation of capital and personal wealth at one pole of society, an increase in the value of things achieved only at the cost of progressive devaluation of man as a human species (Swingwood, 1975).

Marx observed that all major institutional spheres in capitalist society, such as religion, the state, and the political economy, were marked by a condition of
alienation. Moreover, these various aspects of alienation were interdependent.

2. Views of Fromm:

The contribution of Fromm is to have adapted Marx's conception of alienation to the contemporary situation. Fromm proceeds to apply the term in connection with virtually every sphere of contemporary life. Fromm (1962) states:

The essence of man consists in the ... contradiction inherent in his existence, namely, that he is a part of nature and yet transcends it, being endowed with reason and self-awareness.

He refers to:

man's emergence from a state of oneness with the natural world to an awareness of himself as an entity separate from surrounding nature and men, as the process of individualization (Fromm, 1941).

This process results in a loss of the "harmony" with nature which characterizes 'animal existence'. Fromm (1955) characterizes this separation from nature "transcendence" of it, as the "alienation" of man from nature. The alienation from nature is inevitable and inescapable.
3. Views of Horney:

Horney (1939) speaks of alienation from self in her first book, "New Ways in Psychoanalysis". If a person's "spontaneous individual self" has been "stunted", "warped", 'chocked', he is said to be in a condition of alienation from himself or 'alienation from self'. Horney conceives of the 'spontaneous assertion of (one's) individual initiative, feelings, wishes, opinion. The ultimate goal of psychoanalysis, in her view, is that of helping the patient to overcome his alienation from self.

But in her book, 'Our Inner Conflicts' (Horney, 1945), 'alienation from self' is construed somewhat differently. The condition so characterized here is that in which 'the person simply becomes obvious to what he really feels, likes, rejects, believes - in short, to what he really is'. Horney refers to "what he really is" as his 'real self' and one who is 'alienated from himself' is one who has 'become oblivious' to his 'real self'.

She suggested that this condition occurs when one develops an 'idealized image' of oneself so different from the way one really is that there exists a profound 'gap between his idealized image and his real self, and when one 'clings to the belief that he is his idealized image'. For under these circumstances one loses sight of one's "real self".
In Horney's (1950) last book, "Neurosis and Human Growth"; both of her earlier conceptions of "alienation from self" reappear. They are explicitly distinguished, and defined on the basis of a distinction between two types of dimensions of the "self": the "actual self" and the "real self". According to her,

The actual self is an all-inclusive term for everything that a person is at a given time ... The real self ... is the "original" force toward individual growth and fulfilment, with which we may again achieve full identification when freed for the crippling shakles or neurosis (Horney, 1950).

The "actual self" is further characterized in terms of one's "feelings, wishes, beliefs, and energies", and also "his past". The real self, on the other hand, is to be conceived as "that most alive centre of ourselves", which "engenders the spontaneity of feelings", and "is the source of spontaneous interest and energies". Horney, then introduces two types of "alienations from self": "alienation from the actual self", and "alienation from the real self".

'Alienation from the actual self' is said to consist of the "blotting out of dimming" or "all of what a person actually is or has, including even his connection
of his present life with his past. The "real self" is characterized as "that most alive centre of ourselves" which is the "source" of "spontaneous interest and energies" and the spontaneity of feelings. Horney also refers to it as "the spring of emotional forces, of constructive energies, of directive and judiciary powers", and "the original" force toward individual growth and fulfilment" (Horney, 1950).

4. Views of Weber:

Weber (1968) has sought to study the case of alienation within the broad frame work of his 'ideal type bureaucracy', contradicting the optimistic affirmation of Marx that alienation would go after the over-throw of the capitalist system. He says that with intensified technical rationalisation occurring in any organisational society, alienation would be certain to continue under the system of socialism.

Weber's theory of alienation finds place in his emphasis on the fact of bureaucratic domination that is common to both the bourgeois and socialist systems. Both systems require bureaucratic organization. Discipline and control are equally important to both, and, in this sense, some form of alienation becomes inevitable. Without bureaucracy capitalism itself would have become an
impossibility. Naturally, the development of capitalism hinges on bureaucratic rationality in as much as it creates an urgent need for "stable, strict, intensive, and calculable administration". The source of alienation should be traced in bureaucratic rationality that functions as a force external to and independent of human control.

Moreover, rationalization of the bureaucratic system "transcends its specific historical forms to become a form of domination". In Weber's definition, therefore, one may observe that rationality and technology have become reified their impact of society may be modified, but not brought under human will, and subordinated to human purposes.

4. TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

One of the most elusive factors in education concerns the human quality of the effective teacher. According to Singh (1992),

the teacher is obliged to transplant the best in him on the pupil in order to make him a better human being, who can suitably fit himself to socio-cultural milieu of the country. One who does it more usefully and forcefully can claim to be an
effective teacher ... Thus, a teacher, to claim effectiveness, must pass on the contents to the target group to see that the modus operandi passing the learning matter gets into the learner. It causes change in the overt and covert behaviour of the learner, for learning is nothing but a change in the behaviour of the pupil. The better and more manifest this change in the students, the more effective is the teacher.

The concept of teacher effectiveness has been defined differently in terms of the level of curricular achievements; the following definitions elaborate, how effectiveness covers pupils' achievement (Rammers, 1952), teachers effect in terms of realisation of some educational objectives like desired pupil behaviour, abilities, habits, or characteristics etc. (American Educational Research Association, 1952), teachers act to bring development of basic skills, understandings, work habits, desirable attitudes, value judgement, and adequate personal adjustment of pupils (Ryans, 1960), one or more abilities of a teacher to produce agreed upon educational effects of teacher's behaviour to achieve educational goals (Biddle and Ellena, 1964), and teacher's effect to bring about a set of changes in the pupil's behaviour (Gage, 1972).
Langeveld (1963) opines that:

The 'born' teacher is only nearest to the type that would do best at a given time and place. Yet an excellent teacher at all times is one who can first of all teach in such a way that the young understand his teaching well and follow his lessons with satisfaction...

Flanders and Simon (1969) point out that:

teacher effectiveness is an area of research which is concerned with relationships between the characteristics of teachers, teaching acts, and their effects on the educational outcomes of classroom teaching'.

According to Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1974), 'the teacher is the chief agent for success or failure in the classroom'. They further observe that:

One of the long-standing myths of education is that teachers should manifest all the noble issues and have no human frailties. The character of the teacher, like Caesar's wife, should be beyond reproach.

Somers and Southern (1974) have discussed teacher effectiveness in terms of certain qualities. According to them, an effective teacher is one who has a sense of
humour, ability to understand the students and their problems, 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 to students when they need, and ability to be fair as possible in dealing with students.

The important factors for effective and successful teaching, according to Mangala (1992), are: teacher's attitudes, teaching skills, social and professional adjustment, and the background and environment of the teacher.

Singh (1992), on the basis of opinions expressed by the educators and experts in the field of education, gives an operational definition of teachers' effectiveness: an effective teacher is one who has a clear concept of the subject-matter, the ability to write clear objectives for his course, the ability to organise learning materials, and the ability to communicate his knowledge to the students successfully, and to deal with classroom situations.

Methods of Evaluation of Teacher Effectiveness:

It is essential to have teachers who are capable of developing sense of responsibility in children beside
imparting knowledge to them. It is also essential to have adequate knowledge of qualities (personal, academic, and professional, etc.) which make a teacher effective and also to determine a definite procedure for identifying these qualities for the evaluation of teacher effectiveness.

Barr and Emans (1930) analysed 209 rating scales for teacher effectiveness, and found, in the opinion of supervisors and administrators, seven characteristics, viz.,

1. Classroom management
2. Instructional skill
3. Personal fitness
4. Scholarship and professional preparation
5. Effects toward self-improvement
6. Interest in work, and
7. Ability to work with others were important.

Later, Barr (1948), on the basis of several investigations, classified teaching efficiency into four categories, viz.,

1. Personal qualities
2. Competencies
3. Effect of teacher leadership, and
4. Behaviour control (i.e., knowledge, skills, interests, attitudes and ideals).
Hellfritzsch (1945), in his factorial analysis of the qualities of teachers, found six factors to be dominating. They are:

1. General knowledge and mental ability
2. Teaching rating scale factor
3. Personal and emotional adjustment
4. Eulogizing attitude towards the teaching profession
5. Teaching ability, and
6. A residual factor.

Schmid (1950), Lamke (1951), and Erickson (1954) have found six factors as correlates of teaching ability, viz.,

1. General knowledge and mental ability
2. A teacher rating scale factor
3. Personal, emotional and social adjustment
4. An eulogizing attitude towards the teaching profession
5. Some aspects of intelligence, and
6. Tendency towards research.

Attempts were also made to evaluate teacher effectiveness in terms of teacher's professional qualities. Another approach to the measurement of teacher effectiveness had been made in terms of pupils growth and
achievement. However, in general, there are three main approaches to the measurement and prediction of teacher effectiveness (Singh, 1992). There are:

1. In terms of the teachers' personality traits
2. In terms of teachers' behaviour and activities
3. In terms of the products of the teachers' efforts.

Verma (1968) has mentioned the following qualities in relation to teacher effectiveness:

1. Physical fitness composed of good health, energy, drive etc.
2. Personal fitness composed of personal qualities like attractiveness, co-operation, cheerfulness, considerateness, emotional stability, ethics, expressiveness, forcefulness, judgement, objectivity, reliability, resourcefulness, and scholastic proficiency.
3. General skills like communication, human relations, manipulative, and verbal skills needed in teaching.
5. Affective abilities like motivation, interest, attitude, and value systems related to components of teaching.
6. Professional competence including knowledges, skills, attributes, and personal characteristics as operating together in action.
The above qualities among teachers are very unevenly spread. A teacher may be high in one ability and low in another. Moreover, they are not additive deficiency in one cannot be made up by abundance of another ability.

In their study, Somers and Southern (1974) reported that the identification of the effective teachers has been approached mainly through two avenues: Subjective evaluation, and Objective evaluation. The former measures are based upon the recommendations of teachers, and upon the judgements of the members of school administration. The latter, objective evaluation, is usually concerned with the training and experience of teachers (e.g., college credits, number of years of experience, etc.).

Subjective judgements on teacher effectiveness are usually made by their immediate supervisor such as the Principal or Vice-Principal. Such ratings may be based upon one or more observations made during the academic year. Hence, sufficient care should be taken to provide adequate samples of teacher behaviour.

Since students have opportunity to form judgements about the effectiveness of instruction daily, perhaps they are in the best position to provide systematic data regarding teaching effectiveness. Student evaluation of their teachers is common at the collegiate level (Miller,
1972), and to some extent at the high school level (Patton and Desena, 1966). It has been observed that students at these levels can reliably distinguish between the 'Superior' and the 'Average' teacher. It was implicitly suggested (Bradly et al., 1964) that similar evaluations could not be done by students below the high school level.

It is noted that the attempts to identify the characteristics logically related to their effectiveness or they would ask the students to nominate effective teachers, and attempt to determine what characteristics these teachers possess as compared with non-nominated teachers (Anderson, 1969; Beck, 1967; Bishop, 1966; Henjum, 1966; Jenkins, 1967; Williamson, 1967).

The criteria of teacher effectiveness could be evolved through the following methods:

1. Pupil's achievement (objectively observed and subjectively evaluated).
2. Judgement or Ratings by Administrators, Principals, Colleagues, Self and Students.
3. Performance Test.

Howsam (1960) reviewed studies using various kinds of ratings scales and suggested four commonly used scales for evaluating teacher effectiveness. They are:
1. Self-rating; which have proved for little use because there is a consistent bias towards over rating.

2. Peer-rating by colleagues; which seem to be based on marginal evidence.

3. Students' rating; which seem to be more consistently and favourably treated in the literature than other ratings.

4. Supervisor or administrator (Principal) rating; which seem to be highly biased and subjective.

Based on the above observations and findings, the present researcher has used the method of ratings by superior/teacher educator for the evaluation of teacher effectiveness.

SECTION B

STUDIES ON TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

In this section the specific studies already available on variables associated with teacher effectiveness have been surveyed and brief accounts are presented.

Several studies have been conducted on personality variables of successful teachers. In many studies, personality characteristics have been found to be significantly related to teacher effectiveness. Langeved
(1963) stresses the importance of 'teacher's personality' in the educational process.

In an early study, Charters and Waples (1929) reported the qualities of persons essential to success in teaching. This was the main query in Common Wealth Teacher Training Study. Although it is one of the oldest studies, it is still regarded as a researchers study of information for the field workers.

The researchers were interested in making an exhaustive list of those traits which were essential for success in teaching. The subject of study consisted of a large number of experts in the field.

The main source of data gathering was through seeking judgements of experts on the traits that are thought to be important for teacher effectiveness. On the basis of experts' judgements 83 traits were identified as essential component of teachers' effectiveness. After elimination of similar traits, the size of the list was reduced to 25. The study revealed that the ten traits which are essential for success in teaching are:

1. adaptability;
2. attractiveness;
3. breadth of interest (interest in community, in profession for pupils);
4. carefulness (accuracy, definiteness, toughness;
5. considerateness (appreciativeness, courtesy, kindness, sympathy, tactfulness, unselfishness);
6. co-operation (helpfulness, loyalty);
7. dependability (consistency);
8. enthuaisam (alertness, animation, inspiration, spontaneity);
9. fluency;
10. forcefulness (courage, decisiveness, firmness, independence, purposefulness).

Dodge (1943) conducted a study to identify some of the major personality patterns of successful teachers. The study revealed that the successful teachers were more at ease in social contacts, more willing to assume responsibility, less subject to fears and worries, more sensitive to opinions of others, and slower in decision-making than the less successful teachers. Adaval (1952), on the other hand, found that the outgoing, intelligent, emotionally more stable, conscientious, venturesome, shrewd, placid, controlled, and relaxed teachers are successful.

The study conducted by Schultz and Ohlsen (1955) led to various conclusions: Most successful group of student teachers showed high social service and intellectual interests, while the least successful group showed lower interest in social service.
intellectual pursuits, but higher interests in working with things, working by themselves, working with people in manipulative capacity for purposes of personal gains.

Harris (1960) has shown that the major correlates of teacher effectiveness were: Measured intellectual abilities, achievement in college course, general culture and special subject matter knowledge, professional information, student teaching marks, emotional adjustment, attitudes favourable to students, participation in social and community affairs, and participation in the vocational activities.

Howsam (1960) and Fattu (1962) reviewed the research on predictor-criteria and teacher effectiveness, and concluded that such researches had failed to substantiate links for such characteristics as intelligence, age, experience, culture back-ground, socio-economic status, sex, marital status, scores on aptitude tests, job interest, voice quality, and special aptitudes. Low positive correlation between scholarship and teaching effectiveness was observed. Professional knowledge proved to be more successful predictor, particularly for teaching performance.
Ryans and his associates (1960) have made a very extensive study on the 'Characteristics of Teachers'. The study revealed some important findings. The superior teachers were found to be exceptional with regard to intellectual ability, personality adjustment, and social interest. They had also strong liking for children and a personal admiration for such human characteristics like friendliness, permissiveness, and fairness. Teachers rated as low in effectiveness possessed a critical attitude towards others, less interest in social relationships, and a less favourable attitude towards pupils.

Peronto's (1961) study on the patterns or clusters of characteristics which are associated with effective and ineffective teacher behaviour, has shown marked difference between the two groups of teachers in the qualities such as academic and professional knowledge, interest and proficiency in teacher-pupil relationships, physical and emotional energy, emotional stability, motivation, flexibility, and dominance. Getzels and Jackson (1963) identified intelligence and ability for making good human relationship as the two important characteristics of teacher personality.

The study by Warburton, Butcher, and Forest (1963) revealed that certain factors of sixteen PF test like
conscientiousness, tendermindedness, and control exhibited significant relationship with teaching ability.

Allen (1963) has reported a survey made by Cattel on opinions on the professional qualities of teachers. The main findings of the investigation are as follows:

(i) The qualities considered to be essential for success of young teachers were not essentially different from those expected of mature teachers.

(ii) The qualities or traits would be classified into the following groups -

(a) Nature gifts - intelligence, physical health.

(b) Character and temperament - self-control, personality, sense of humour, kindness, open-mindedness, sympathy, tact, enthusiasm for the job perseverance.

(c) General defection of sentiments - enterprise, conservation, alertness of mind, orderliness, precision, idealism, outside interest.

(d) Matters of education and acquired skill-knowledge of subjects, general culture, social fitness, knowledge of psychology and pedagogy, classroom teaching technique.

The personality traits of teachers were studied by Anand (1980), and he pointed out that male and female
teachers differed significantly in certain important variables. Male teachers were found to express stronger need for intellectualism, more emotional stability, and ego strength, whereas female teachers expressed a stronger need for dependence compared to male teachers. In a study conducted on the 'desirable behaviour of teacher', Gage (1965) arrived at five global characteristics, viz., warmth, cognitive organization, orderliness, indirectness, and problem solving ability. According to him, presence of these factors constituted effectiveness.

Solomon's (1967) study indicated that the successful student teachers possessed certain level of tenseness in personality and alertness to the needs of children. The study upheld that their academic achievement and certain personality traits were significantly associated with each other. In conclusion, the study reported that the success of a teacher in the training course depended mainly on three important factors which were stability, extraversion, and radicalism. Adaval (1968) found certain important teacher characteristics as relevant to the present culture. These qualities were: normal health and physical fitness, healthy and balanced philosophical and cultural outlook, normal general intelligence, good habits of daily life, a well developed
moral life, sociableness, emotional maturity, and stability.

Biddle (1964) and Soar (1969) independently reviewed researches on teacher effectiveness and declared that a need for agreement about the effects that the teacher was to produce in order to determine the components of teacher effectiveness. They distinguished between the research components of teacher effectiveness. They distinguished between the research components of teacher effectiveness (in which relationship between teacher characteristics and behaviours, and desired pupil outcome measures were determined) and the criteria component (which is a question of selecting the pupil output components considered to be desirable). Both specified collection of observational data as the most direct method of learning about teaching, and Biddle discussed the practical limitations of this kind of classroom observation.

The personality profiles of student teachers of high and low teaching ability were compared by Davis and Satterly (1969). The findings suggested that the poor performances were associated with factors like tendermindedness, high in security, tenseness, and a lack of conscientiousness. The popular teachers in Kaul's
(1972) factorial study distinguished themselves as more outgoing, intelligent, emotionally more stable, sober, conscientious, venturesome, tough minded, shrewd, placid, controlled and relaxed. The study also revealed that such teachers were significantly high on theoretical, social, and political values.

Mehta (1972) studied the factor patterns of teaching ability of student teachers. On analysis, male student teachers were found to be more outgoing, assertive, venturesome, shrewd and relaxed while female student teachers were tenderminded and higher in aesthetic and religious values. Mehta and Tripathi (1972) compared the personality profiles of working teachers and student teachers. The experienced teachers were found to be more conscientious, persistent, sensitive, effiminate, suspecting, jealous, sophisticated, and polished, compared to student teachers.

Gupta (1977), in his study, found success in teaching as significantly related to several personality variables as measured by sixteen PF. He also noticed that the successful and less successful teachers were different in personality characteristics, adjustment, and attitude towards teaching. He concluded that the personality
factors as a group were better indicators of teaching success than individual factors.

In a temperament survey on teachers, Samantaroy (1978) found no association between sex and radicalism, and sex and tendermindedness. In the study there were only four per cent of radical tenderminded teachers as opposed to sixty-five per cent of conservative toughminded teachers.

Singh (1981), in a noteworthy study, found his effective teachers as assertive, venturesome, controlled, critically stable, and trusting in comparison to less effective teachers. Singh concluded that emotional stability, assertiveness, venturesomeness, control, and trust were the concomitants of teaching success. He revealed that the indices of intelligence, creativity, motivation, and adjustment were directly related to teaching success. In addition, the study revealed that the successful teacher was able to induce learning, develop interests, and foster desirable attitudes in students both by his teaching and conduct in different social interactions; whereas the unsuccessful teacher contributed significantly to produce little subject learning, developing aversion to the subject, creating misunderstanding, and fostering undesirable attitudes.
The personality characteristics of special education teachers were studied by Soldan (1981). The teachers who were rated high were given EPPS. Thus a set of personality characteristics of effective teachers of the behavior disordered children emerged. These were: a strong need for dominance, introception, affiliation, achievement and succorance; and tended not to have a strong need for endurance, a change, abasement and aggression. Other important traits noticed were a strong self-concept, a relationship orientation, a balance between introversion and extraversion, and an ability to establish authority as a teacher.

Lane and May (1982) indicated in detail the effective teacher characteristics, their hypothetical constructs and their relationships to classroom performance, occupational style and introversion-extroversion. The major findings reported by them were: student teachers who were more extraverted and social service oriented received higher performance ratings than those student teachers who were less extraverted and less social service oriented. Also, the teacher characteristics individually or in combination with the social service occupational style scale or the introversion-extraversion personality orientation scale, significantly correlated
with classroom performance. The factor analysis of the fourteen teacher characteristics utilized in the study did not prove substantially to the understanding of the effectiveness of teacher classroom performance.

Singh's (1981) investigation on the relationship between teacher's personality, teaching success, and behavioural changes in students, found all categories ('high', 'average' and 'low' based on teaching ability) of teachers as introverts. The amount of introversion possessed by them had also shown a regular and linear association with teaching ability.

The study by Samantaroy (1971) found the existence of significant relationship between adjustment and teaching efficiency. He says that superior efficiency always goes with good adjustment and vice versa in terms of pupil adjustment. Verma (1972), in his investigation, found a high correlation between teaching efficiency and teachers' job adjustment. In his sample, male teachers from private schools were found to be more dissatisfied than the other groups.

The investigation on teachers' adjustment by Pandey (1973) has shown a positive relationship in all the five areas of adjustment for both male and female
teachers. The study further showed that in the case of male teachers, the two factors responsible for their adjustment were 'Institutional' and 'Physical', whereas in the case of female teachers, they were 'Physical' and 'Intellectual'.

Chhaya (1974), in his study, compared the effective and ineffective teachers with respect to personality adjustment, teaching attitude and emotional stability. The results showed that the effective teachers had significantly better personality adjustment and favourable attitude towards teaching than ineffective teachers who were emotionally stable, more authoritarian, and extravert. Malhotra (1982) observed that the well adjusted teachers expressed more pupil responsive talk, pupil initiation ratio and total use of praise than teachers who were poorly adjusted.

Anxiety and teacher effectiveness has been the subject of investigation in studies by Cole (1961), Lewis (1967), Petrusich (1967), Lakshmi (1977), and many others. These investigators have shown that low anxiety level generated better teaching. However, contradictions prevail in this area. Ringers et al. (1964), for example, did not find any relationship between anxiety and teacher behaviour, Chabtasol and Thomas (1968) found that anxiety
was not related to teaching performance in the case of women teachers, while the two were related in the case of male teachers. The studies by Parsons (1971) and Rothwell (1971) also did not find any significant relationship between anxiety and teacher competence. They find that anxiety was negatively related to teaching competence.

Singh (1972), in his study, found that the teachers in service had less anxiety than those under training. Among the student teachers, the males had greater anxiety than the females. The female teachers, both in service and under training, had almost the same level of anxiety. The male teachers in service showed less anxiety than the student teachers. The female teachers in service were found to be more anxiety-ridden than the male teachers who were in service.

Thus, anxiety can have both facilitating and debilitating effect on teacher behaviour. The studies analysed and reported, had no uniform opinion regarding its effect on teacher personality. The studies, in general, have pointed out that anxiety had some limited influence on the personality of the teacher, and that male and female teachers have different levels of anxiety.

Teacher effectiveness in relation to cognitive variables like intelligence and academic achievement has
been subjected to detailed studies. In many of the investigations, intelligence had only a small contribution, with negligible importance. For example, the studies by Pinset (1933), Pyle (1943), Jones (1946), Anderson (1954), Carlile (1954), Erickson (1954), Morsch and Wilder (1954), Cole (1961), Evans (1961), and Nair (1974) have yielded only low correlations ranging from 0.03 to 0.09, between teaching ability and intelligence.

The factor study by Grewal (1976) identified certain intellectual and personality correlates of teacher effectiveness. The main predictors of teacher effectiveness were home, health, social, emotional, and total adjustment, dominance, submission, and verbal and non-verbal intelligence.

Gupta's (1976) study has shown that high effective teachers were more intelligent, having more ego-strength, more surgent, more self-sentiment, less suspicious, less guilt prone in comparison with the general population. Low effective teachers were less intelligent, and lower self-concept control as compared to the general population. High effective teachers were significantly more intelligent, emotionally stable, assertive, conscientious, adventurous, tenderminded, higher self-concept control, and more warm hearted in comparison
to low effective teachers. The average effective teachers were more outgoing, surgent, and happy-go-lucky controlled, and socially precise in comparison to low effective teachers.

The study by Kavanagh (1979) suggested that the following may be considered among the criteria for evaluation of teacher effectiveness: teacher's expectations for students, personal qualities, affective processes, cognitive measures, product measures of pupils, interaction analysis, and students' ratings of teachers. The author questioned the use of a single instrument for measuring all factors that may have to be considered in the analysis of teacher effectiveness.

Using a group of prospective secondary school teachers, Lusk and Lewis (1980) studied the relationships among personality, teaching, role orientation, and teaching effectiveness. The following are the conclusions of the study:

1. The personality factor of group-dependent/self-sufficient may be used to predict effectiveness in student teaching. Student teachers who exhibited higher levels of group dependence are perceived as being more effective in student teaching by public
school supervisors than are students who exhibit lower levels of group dependence.

2. The personality factor of expedient/conscientious may be used to predict effectiveness in student teaching. Student teachers who exhibited higher levels of conscientiousness are perceived as being more effective in student teaching by public school supervisors than are student teachers who exhibit lower levels of conscientiousness.

3. The role orientation of advice-information giver may be used to predict effectiveness in student teaching. Student teachers who prefer the role orientation of adviser-information giver are perceived as being more effective in student teaching by public school supervisors than are student teachers who prefer other role orientation.

4. The personality factor practical/imagination may be used to predict effectiveness in student teaching. Student teachers who are more imaginative are perceived as being more effective in student teaching by university supervisors than are student teachers who are more practical.

5. The personality factor of shy/venturesome dimension may be used to predict effectiveness in student
teaching. Student teachers who are venturesome are perceived as being more effective in student teaching by university supervisors than are student teachers who are characterized as shy. According to public school and university supervisors the most effective teachers were characterized as venturesome.

Several researchers have shown that any one or more of the measured variables could be a predictor of teacher effectiveness or effective teacher behaviour. Some examples are as follows: Teaching experience, Sharma, 1971; Values of teachers and students, Strohmer, 1970; scholastic aptitude, attitude towards teaching profession, and introversion-extraversion, Patted, 1972; creativity, Milgam and Fildman, 1981; language proficiency, Grewal, 1980. In such studies the investigators have identified different variables as predictors of teacher effectiveness.

There are investigators in this field who have tried to see whether certain relevant variables can be used to predict effective teacher behaviour, but they have failed to recognize the variable as good predictor. Barton (1979), e.g., found that 'recognition of high moral stage reasoning' was not a predictor of student teaching success. Other investigators who had explored the
possibility of identifying predictor variables of teacher effectiveness include, Sherry, 1964; Tollett, 1980.

The above studies indicate that prediction and measurement of teacher effectiveness are still two complex and independent issues for the researchers in this field.

The studies on the correlates of effective teacher behaviour reported above are seen as extensive, but some of which are controversial. They also show that there is a lack of consistent pattern of relationship between criteria of teacher effectiveness and other important variables. It is relevant, however, for the present study to recall some important studies which have identified certain variables related to teacher effectiveness. With very few exceptions, various researchers were able to identify some significant correlates of effective teaching. They were factors like conscientiousness, control, practicability, tendermindedness, initiative, sympathetic attitude, sincerity, questioning skill, achievement variables, emotional stability, etc. These studies highlighted some of the important correlates of effective teacher behaviour. However, these findings have not reduced the complexity of the problem of identification of variables associated with teacher effectiveness.
Some studies have succeeded in identifying and explaining several factors which go with predictor measures of teaching competency. However, there is no definite conclusion about predictive variables related to teaching. On the whole, it is evident that much disagreement and ambiguity exist with regard to teacher personality characteristics among researchers all over the world.

It may be remembered, however, that there have been some stray attempts in the studies to draw some general conclusions regarding effective attributes of teachers. The following are some of the relevant factors or correlates of effective teacher personality which were identified by various researchers: conscientiousness, control, practicality, tendermindedness, initiative, sympathetic attitude, sincerity, questioning skill, mastery of the methods of instruction, variables related to achievement, intelligence, and measures of creativity. In this connection the researches done by Barr (1952), Ryans (1960), Harris (1960), Warburton, Butcher, and Forest (1963), Aaron (1966), Debnath (1971), Koul (1972), Mehta (1972), Lal (1974), Gupta (1977), Sethi (1985), and Donga (1987) are noteworthy. It may also be seen that these were some peculiar and contradictory findings.
While Singh (1981) found all categories of teachers ('high', 'medium' and 'low' on the basis of ability) to be introverts, Lane and May (1982) found that teachers tended to be more extraverted and social service oriented, and Parikh et al. (1984) found less effective teachers as introverts.

However, for the lack of reliable and consistent findings in this area, the following reasons may be attributed and they are to be visualized carefully by the future researchers:

1. Lack of adequate conceptual framework on teacher effectiveness

2. Lack of agreement on the concept of competency-based teaching

3. Absence or non-availability of reliable and valid tools to assess teacher aptitude, efficiency or aspects of behaviour in the classroom

4. Inadequate methodology

5. Non-awareness of the complexity of the problem.

Investigators in the area, therefore, had no uniform and reliable solution except to say that their attempts would bear fruit one day. Reports of a number of
committees and commissions appointed from time to time to review and suggest improvements in teacher education programmes, also point to this inadequacy.

Parikh et al. (1984) found in his study that the most effective teachers were of happy-go-lucky type, rigid with leadership quality, and desire for self-esteem. The least effective teachers, on the other hand were found to be serious, dependent, having less leadership quality introvert, conservative, neurotic, flexible, more suggestible, and with less desire of self-esteem.

Ahiuwalia and Pandeya (1985A) studied the important personality characteristics of male and female student teachers. The male teachers were found to be more successful in out door, and self-oriented jobs as they were seen to be socially bold, aggressive, independent, and can take their own decisions, while the female teachers succeeded in teaching literature, music, and such other activities that can be performed on their own accord. The same authors, Ahiuwalia and Pandeya (1985B), wanted to note the trait variations in the personality of student teachers belonging to a government managed and an army-run institutions of teacher preparation. The result showed that the subjects belonging to the two groups
differed significantly on some factors of the sixteen PF test.

Wanchoo (1986) conducted a study to investigate a range of essential personality characteristics as related to teacher effectiveness. The results indicated as follows: Personality adjustment emerged as the most prominent factor which goes with teacher effectiveness. The subfactors under this were forth-rightedness, emotional stability, practical attitude, conscientious, controlled behaviour, and venturesome. The second important factor which emerged is 'leadership quality' with its concomitant factor, a placid behaviour. The third important factor which emerged and was redesignated is 'intelligence'. The fourth factor which emerged as non-overlapping and independent factor is 'emotional stability' which is found in association with soberminded and toughminded persons.

According to Bush (1942), no single factor can be the cause of successful teaching. He maintained that the student-teacher relationship is one of the most important factors. While measuring teacher characteristics and predicting teacher efficiency, Barr (1952) discarded the opinion of Bush (1942) partially. He added further, suggesting that teaching success may be the result of a
relationship among teachers, pupils, and other persons concerned with the educational process, and the immediate situation.

Ryans (1959) in a study obtained a positive relationship between emotional stability and teacher's role in the classroom. He concluded that understanding and sympathetic classroom behaviour were closely associated with emotional stability of teachers. Barr et al. (1961) concluded that factors like conscientiousness, control, and practicability are related to teaching efficiency. More or less the same results have been obtained by Warburton, Butcher, and Forest (1963). Instead of practicability, these authors obtained tendermindedness as a factor related to teaching ability.

In his study, Aaron (1966) obtained a positive and significant correlation between individual's initiative and teacher effectiveness. Dutt (1967) showed that extroversion and introversion had no relationship with teaching success, while neuroticism had a negative correlation with teaching success.

In an elaborate study, Debnath (1971) identified that knowledge of the subject matter, academic qualifications, sympathetic attitude towards students, mastery of the method of teaching, sincerity in teaching,
friendliness, democratic behaviour, ability to judge reactions of others, and possession of all-round information were related to teaching efficiency.

Samantaroy (1971) obtained the following results: (i) the Pearson r of 0.49 between teacher attitude and teacher adjustment was significant, and (ii) teacher attitude and teacher adjustment were related positively to teaching efficiency. This further indicated that superior teaching efficiency is related both to favourable attitude and good adjustment.

Kaul (1972), in his study arrived at the conclusion that effectiveness of popular teachers was with respect to their attitude towards teaching, public examination results of their students and appraisal of their work as teacher. Rao's (1980) study showed that there is no good agreement among the different methods of identifying teaching effectiveness. Also, no clear picture has emerged as personality characteristic in relation to teaching effectiveness.

The Review of Literature: An Overview:

The literature reviewed in this chapter indicates the interest shown by previous investigators in the area of teacher effectiveness and related fields. Much work had
been done in theorizing the constructs of mental health status, temperament, and alienation. However, it is noted that studies intended to find the personality variables such as those mentioned above, in relation to teacher effectiveness were found to be meagre.

It is evident from the reported studies that much disagreement and ambiguity exist with regard to teacher personality characteristics among researchers all over the world. As such, most of the studies undoubtedly revealed marked variations in the traits identified as effective personality characteristics. For example, in the study by Singh (1981), all categories of teachers (high, medium, and low on the basis of ability) were found to be introverts. This fact was contradicted by the research of Lane and May (1982), and they found that teachers tend to be more extraverted and social service minded. But Parikh, et al. (1984) found less effective teachers as introverts.

The literature, on the whole, provided adequate background for the present study in terms of formulating objectives, and hypotheses, as well as research design. The details of the research plan and procedure, and related aspects followed for the present investigation are given in the next chapter.