Chapter-1

INTRODUCTION
INTRODUCTION

In Recent times people of all walks of life assert that there is a crisis of values – moral, ethical, social, religious, political, economic and even intellectual in all states and societies (Cummings, 1988). In fact, in the super fast metamorphosis of social culture and the thin membrane separating sin and virtue, as evinced by Dante in his Letters to Satan, is fast vanishing. As a result of this, there is now greater emphasis on value education in the framework of the ground reality that taking all countries for which data was available (Cha, 1988) less than one percent of the instructional time is devoted to value education. The National Curriculum Framework for School Education (2000) also puts special emphasis on the introduction of value education in the curriculum (Mohapatra, J.K., Mohopatra Pooja, 2001).

Values are essentially affective in nature, in the sense that a strong feeling is central to a value. But it has both cognitive and conative dimensions as well. Although there is a strong feeling intrinsic in a value, it really originates from knowledge and beliefs and induces certain types of behaviour patterns. Thus, values act as means to generate strong behavioural tendencies. Behaviour patterns have emerged from the mainspring of cherished or fully internalized value system (Sudhir, M.A., 2001).

Challenge of Education (1985), published by the Union Ministry of Education expected that a coherent and an operationally viable value system would be inculcated through educational process, based upon rational and scientific and moral approach to life.

National Policy on Education (1986) held the view that In our culturally plural society, education should foster universal and eternal values, oriented towards the unity and integration of our people. Such value education should help eliminate obscurantism, religious fanaticism, violence, superstition and fatalism.

Education has to be geared to the values as would enable the Indian nation to survive in the face of its present challenges. Value Education should be imparted in schools and in colleges (Statesman, 1988).

CABE committee in 1992 viewed that the NPERC endorsed the provision of the NPE relating to value education and was appreciative of the emphasis which NPE placed on the unity and integrity of the country.
The core group formed by the planning commission during Eighth Plan period in its report in 1992 suggested that efforts aimed at value-orientation of education have to be made comprehensive and coordinated at the macro and micro levels.

The most recent policy statement in regard to value education has been the Eighty-First Report of the parliamentary standing committee (1999) which has pointed out the universal human values as truth, righteous conduct, peace, love and non-violence.

Recently, the University Grants Commission received a proposal from Banaras Hindu University to set up Malviya Centre for value studies at Malviya Bhawan located at Banaras Hindu University. The proposal was considered by the Commission at its meeting held on 20th October, 2000.

The value-orientation must become an integral part of the entire education system by weaving the values into the wrap and woof of the curricular and co-curricular programmes (Ruhela, S.P. 1986).

Man must not devaluate the cherished eternal values which allow emancipation of the best of humanism. Then education will open newer dimension of values where hatred is replaced by love, apathy by sympathy, cruelty by kindness, pain by pleasure, vice by virtue and artificiality by naturalness and creativity. With such value-orientation in education, he must make a new discovery, a new challenge, a new approach, a new vision of life (Chakraborti, Mohit 1997).

VALUE EDUCATION

Value education means development of:

- six stages of moral development, marked by distinct ways of thinking about questions of right and wrong, as in the jurisprudence model (Oliver and Shower, 1974).
- value judgement related to public issues, or, technique of analyzing value conflicts (Frankel, 1976) or, value education.

Both these approaches have positive and negative aspects (Mohapatra and Mohapatra, 2001).
Attainment of the skill of value clarification does not necessarily mean that the person concerned has inculcated the values. What can be more glaring than a father, who advocates that smoking is a bad habit, smokes himself? In fact as early as 1928 Hartshorne and May (1928) had reported that people’s behaviour fails to reflect their stated commitment to honesty (Kohlberg, 1970). So attainment of this ability does not always serve its crucial social purpose. But its positive aspect is that, it is a measurable trait and its growth through the various Kohlbergian stages can be assessed (Mohapatra and Mohapatra, 2001).

VALUES

In view of the diversity of the terms used and their connotations, the task of value education becomes more perplexing and Labyrinthine. The term value itself connotes different meanings to different people (Rokeach, 1973). Values have been referred to as beliefs about desirable ways of behaving or being or having value for particular actions or life style, object etc.

Hartman (1951) maintains that values are essence.

Kluehlohn (1952) defines values as a conception explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristics of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available means and ends of action.

Marginan (1959) opined that a value is the measure of satisfaction of a human want.

Williams (1968) remarked that a person’s values serves as the criteria, or standards in terms of which evaluations are made. Value-as-criterion is usually more important usage for purposes of social scientific analysis.

Allport (1969), has defined value as, a belief upon which a man acts by preference. Whenever freedom is posited, man acts by preference and that involves him in the sphere of values. Values are that which guide human behaviour and put meaning into their existence. The values which a person cherishes are bound to transform into action and shape his life. Values form the central pole around which people organise their desires and ambitions and fashion their idioms of life. A man is known by his values.

A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or End State of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or reverse mode of conduct.
or end state of existence (Rokeach, 1973). More precisely his value concept includes the following:

- Value is not a vague belief but relatively a stable one.
- The enduring nature indicates that value like belief has a cognitive, an affective and a behavioural component. An individual who possesses values knows the way to believe, feels emotional about them and acts accordingly.
- It is personal or social in character.
- It is preferable than mere preferred.
- Value as preferable mode of conduct (courage, friendship, etc.) or end state of existence (equality, salvation, etc.) from the available converse mode of conduct or end state of existence can be treated as instrumental and terminal value respectively.
- Value results from available choices.

For Shaver’s (1976) values are standards and principles for judging worth. They are criteria by which we judge things (People, objects, ideas, actions and situations) to be good, worthwhile, desirable; or on the other hand, bad, worthless, despicable; or of course, somewhere in between these extremes. We may apply our values consciously or they may function unconsciously as a part of the influence of our frame of reference, without our being aware of the standards implied by our decisions. Shaver’s concept of values contains four key elements:

- The values are concepts, not feelings. Values embody and express feelings, but they are more than feelings.
- Values exist in the mind independently of self-awareness or public affirmation.
- Values are dimensional rather than absolute categories.
- They are criteria for judging degrees of good and bad, right and wrong or praise and blame.

According to International Dictionary of Education (1977) values are beliefs about what is desirable or undesirable. Values reflect the culture of a society and if the individual accepts a value for himself/herself it may become a goal.

Raths (1978) emphasized the process of valuing rather than any identifiable institutional sense of the term. Humans who can arrive at something via the intelligent valuing process – choosing, prizing and acting – can suitably be called as a value. Formally he viewed that unless something satisfied the seven criteria under the valuing
process, we do not call it a value, rather a belief or attitude or something other than value.

The persons, goals, aspirations, attitudes, interests, feelings, beliefs and convictions, activities and worries can be called value indicators if they fail to use seven criteria of valuing successfully.

**Choosing**
- freely
- from Alternatives
- after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative.

**Prizing**
- cherishing, being happy with the choice.
- enough to be willing to affirm the choice of others.

**Acting**
- or doing something with the choice.
- repeatedly in some pattern of life.

Values are basically personal choices.

*They are set of rules for rating behaviours or objects along a continuum of worth (Hersh, Miller and Fielding, 1980).*

*Dictionary of sociology (1988) considers that value is an abstract, generalised principle of behaviour to which the members of a group feel a strong, emotionally toned positive commitment and which provides a standard for judging specific acts and goals.*

More than the listing of values or their classification, it is the process of valuing or acquisition of values which is more important.

*Feather (1992) found that value of the personal achievement at times comes in conflict with those of equality and group harmony and produces individual and social tension.*

*Report of the core group on Value Education (1992) has also reiterated the fact; that lack of serious and systematic effort on the part of government to implement value-based education, in educational Institutions could be traced to the confusion about the definition of values, no clarity about the conceptual framework and the absence of a working model with its significance.*
Values are not linearly hierarchical rather they exist in dynamic systemic interrelationships called value system. Values do not exist in isolation, they exist in meaningful relationship with other values because of their very nature which is evaluative (Hill, 1994).

21st Collins English Dictionary (2000) defines value as desirability to assess or estimate the worth, merit or desirability to appraise – to have a high regard for especially in respect of worth, usefulness, merit etc.

Encyclopedia Britannica (2001) defines value to estimate or assign the momentary worth: appraise, to rate or scale in usefulness, importance or general worth.

The change in the set of values, changes hierarchical relationships amongst them which is the reason why there is elusive relationship between values and behaviour.

According to Hyper Dictionary (2004) value is defined as:

- an ideal accepted by some individual or group
- place a value on; judge the worth of something.
- regard highly; think much of
- fix or determine the value of.

In Commerce-Database.com (2004) values have been defined as beliefs of a person or a social group in which they have an emotional investment (either for or against something).

INDIAN THOUGHT ON VALUES

Having been born as human beings and endowed with the rare gift of reasoning and spiritual awakening we have to sanctify our lives and put satya, dharma, shanti, prema and ahimsa into practice. It was proclaimed in different ages by our great prophets like Krishna, Mahavira, Buddha, Sages like Sankara, Kabir, Guru Nanak, Sri Ramakrishna, Swami Vivekananda and the modern thinkers like Gandhi, Tagore and Aurobindo.

The concept of value varies with different approaches and schools of philosophy.

- In Jaina philosophy, value is celibacy, asceticism and control of the senses.
• In Buddhistic thought, the liberation and service of the sentient beings of the world is value.

• Sankhya advances a theistic and evolutionary concept of values.

• In Carvakadarshana, value-conception is hedonistic and Epicurean. Value is happiness and happiness is value.

Value is self-discipline, self—perfection and self-fulfillment. Value is perfection, it is a medium of self-discovery and an instrument of progress. The concept of value is both absolute and relative in its implications. Value is highest liberation and means instrumentation towards better living.

PHILOSOPHICAL VIEW AND VALUES

There are four philosophical views about understanding Axiology or the nature & realm of values.

i) Interest Theory: It is subjective. It tells if a person desires something, it has a value for him. Values depend upon the person’s interest. It is a Realistic Theory.

ii) Existence Theory: It holds that values exist in their own right, irrespective of the values or his interests. They exist independently in their own right. It is an Idealistic Theory.

iii) Experimental Theory: It holds that value which yields a greater sense of happiness in the present and promises still more of it in future. According to pragmatic theory there are no permanent values.

iv) Part-whole Theory: It holds to realise and enjoy value, one must effectively relate parts to the whole.

Realistic conception of values and its relation to education process is different. Values have no spiritual basis. They spring from the given environment and are broadly taken into consideration.

The Pragmatic theory of value is synonymous with the economic conception of value. That which is useful and desirable is value. Value is utility to a pragmatist.

According to idealists value is the sole determinant. Ideas and concepts are more valuable than their reals. Idealistic conception of values is common and widely accepted not only in India but in the west.

Tagore: Like the Upanishadic thinkers, believes in the gradual perfection of individuals. The soul of man has to pass through many lives before it can attain its final goal.
INTRODUCTION

PSYCHOLOGICAL CONCEPTION

There are several concepts of value theory. The psychological conception of value is the most popular. When a quality tends to fulfil or satisfy a human need or evoke a feeling of pleasure it is called a value. It is purely subjective and differs from situation to situation and from individual to individual.

THE NATURE OF VALUES

A Value Is Enduring: If values were completely stable, individual and social change would be impossible. If values were completely unstable, continuity of human personality and society would be impossible. Any conception of human values, if it is to be fruitful, must be able to account for the enduring character of values as well as for their changing character (Rokeach, 1973).

It may be suggested that the enduring quality of values arises mainly from the fact that they are initially taught and learned in isolation from other values in an absolute, all-or-none manner. Such-and-such a mode of behaviour or end-state, we are taught, is always desirable.

A Value is a Belief

Three types of beliefs have previously been distinguished (Rokeach, 1968 b);

- descriptive or existential beliefs, those capable of being true or false;
- evaluative beliefs, wherein the object of belief is judged to be good or bad;
- and prescriptive or proscriptive beliefs, wherein some means or end of action is judged to be desirable or undesirable. A value is a belief of the third kind—a Prescriptive or Proscriptive belief. A value is a belief upon which a man acts by preference. (Allport, 1961).

Values is like all Beliefs, have Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Components

- A value is a cognition about the desirable, equivalent to what Charles Morris (1956) has called a conceived value and to what Kluckohn (1951) has called a conception of desirable.
- A value is affective in the sense that he can feel emotional about it, be effectively for or against it.
- A value has a behavioural component in the sense that it is an intervening variable that leads to action when activated.
A Value refers to a Mode of Conduct or end state of Existence;
When we say that a person has a value, we may have in mind either his beliefs concerning desirable modes of conduct or desirable end-states of existence. It refers to two kinds of values as instrumental and terminal values. Total number of terminal values is not necessarily the same as the total number of instrumental values (Rokeach, 1973)

Two kinds of Terminal Values : Personal and Social
Terminal values be self-centered or society-centered, intrapersonal or interpersonal in focus. Such-end-states as salvation and peace of mind are intrapersonal while world peace and brotherhood are interpersonal.

Two kinds of Instrumental Values : Moral Values and Competence Values :
The concept of moral values is considerably narrower than the general concept of values. For one thing, moral values refer mainly to modes of behaviour and do not necessarily include values that concern end-states of existence. Other instrumental values, those that may be called self-actualization. Values, have a personal rather than interpersonal focus and do not seem to be especially concerned with morality. Their violation leads to feelings of shame about personal inadequacy rather than to feeling of guilt about wrong doing. Thus, behaving honestly and responsibly leads one to feel that he is behaving morally, whereas behaving logically, intelligently or imaginatively leads one to feel that he is behaving competently.

A Value is a Preference as well as a Conception of the Preferable.
A value, as Kluckhohn defines it, is a conception of the desirable and not something merely desired. This view of the nature of values suffers from the fact that it is extremely difficult to define desirable. More important, however, is that a conception of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of action. (Kluckhohn, 1951) turns out, upon closer analysis, to represent a definable preference for something to something else. A conception of the desirable thus seems to be nothing more than a special kind of preference – a preference for one mode of behaviour over an opposite mode, or a preference for one-end-state over an opposite end-state. There is also another sense in which a value represents a specific preference. A person prefers a particular mode or end state not only when he compares it with
its opposite but also when he compares it with other values within his value system.

A Value is a Conception of something that is Personally or Socially preferable

One of the most interesting properties that values seem to have is that they can be employed with such extraordinary versatility in everyday life. They may be shared or not shared and thus employed as single or double (or even triple) standards. They may be intended to apply equally

- to oneself and to others,
- to oneself but not to others,
- to others but not to oneself,
- to oneself more than to others or to others more than to oneself.

We know very little indeed about the conditions under which values might be so diversely employed. We may speculate, for example, that competitive conditions will encourage the employment of values as double standards, whereas cooperation will encourage their employment as single standard. A more systematic attack on this problem of single and double standards presents a major challenge to further theory and research on human values.

VALUES DIFFERENTIATED FROM OTHER CONCEPTS

VALUES AND ATTITUDES

An attitude differs from value in that an attitude refers to an organisation of several beliefs around a specific object or situation (Rokeach 1968 a, 1968 b). A value on the other hand, refers to a single belief of a very specific kind. It concerns a desirable mode of behaviour or end-state that has a transcendental quality to it, guiding actions, attitudes, judgements and comparisons across specific objects and situations. So defined, values and attitudes differ in a number of important respects.

a. Value is a single belief, an attitude refers to an organisation of several beliefs that are all focused on a given object or situation.

b. A value transcends objects and situations whereas an attitude is focused on some specified object or situation.
c. A value is a standard but an attitude is not a standard. Favourable or unfavourable evaluations of numerous attitude objects and situations may be based upon a relatively small number of values serving as standards.

d. A person has as many values as he has learned beliefs concerning desirable modes of conduct and end-states of existence, and as many attitudes as direct or indirect encounters he has had with specific objects and situations. It is thus estimated that values number only in dozens, whereas attitudes number in thousands.

e. Values occupy a more central position than Attitudes within one’s personality makeup and cognitive system, and they are therefore determinants of attitudes as well as of behaviour. This greater centrality of values has occasionally been noted by others

   • **attitudes themselves depend on pre-existing social values** (Allport, 1961);
   • **attitudes express values** (Watson, 1966);
   • **attitudes are functions of values** (Woodruff, 1942).

f. The substantive content of a value may directly concern adjustive, ego, defense, knowledge or self-actualizing functions while content of an attitude is related to such functions only inferentially.

### VALUES AND SOCIAL NORMS

There are three ways in which values differ from social norms:

- A value may refer to mode of behaviour or end state of existence whereas a social norm refers only to a mode of social behaviour.
- A value transcends specific situations: in contrast, a social norm is a prescription or proscription to behave in a specific way in a specific situation.
- A value is more personal and internal, whereas a norm is a consensual and external to the person (Kluckhohn, 1951).

Williams (1967) differentiates values from social norms as follows:

Values are standards of desirability that are more nearly independent of specific situation. The same value may be a point of reference for a great many specific norms, a particular norm may represent the simultaneous application of several separate values
INTRODUCTION

Values, as standards (criteria) for establishing what should be regarded as desirable, provide the grounds for accepting or rejecting particular norms.

VALUES AND NEEDS

If some Psychologists regard values and attitudes as more or less equivalent, others regard values and needs as equivalent. Maslow, for instance, refers to self actualisation, both as a need and as a higher order value (1959, 1964). Murray’s list of needs (1938) is transformed into Whites’s list of values (1951). French and Kahn (1962), Chinara Benudhar (1991), Pal Sima (1995), Chawla Neena (2003) point out that in some respects the properties of a value and of a need are similar. A person may want to do something but also feel that he ought to do it, since a value is not only a belief about what he ought to do but also a desire to do it.

VALUES AND TRAITS

The concept of traits carries with it a connotation of human characteristics that are highly fixed and not amenable to modifications by experimental or situational validation. About the only operations that one can easily perform on traits are to correlate them with other traits and factor-analyse them.

Neither are they amenable to change as a result of education nor to psychotherapy. A person’s character, which is seen from personality psychologist’s stand point as a cluster of fixed traits can be reformulated from an internal phenomenological standpoint as a system of values. A major advantage gained in thinking about a person, as a system of values rather than as cluster of traits, is that it becomes possible to conceive of his undergoing change as a result of changes in social conditions. In contrast, the trait concept has built into it a characterological bias that fore-closes such possibilities for change in advance.

VALUE AND INTERESTS

To Ralph Barton Perry (1954) a value is any object of interest and the two are therefore, identical concepts, some writers have criticized the classical study of values (Allport, Vernon and Lindzey, 1960) on the ground that it is primarily or solely a test of occupational interest (Duffy, 1940, McLaughlin, 1965).
An interest is but one of the many manifestations of a value, and therefore, it has some of the attributes that a value has. An interest may be the cognitive representation of needs, it may guide action, evaluation of self and others and comparison of self with others. It may serve adjusting, ego-defense, knowledge and self-actualisation function. But interest is a narrower concept than value. Interests in fact seem to resemble attitudes more than values, representing a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards certain

- objects e.g. art, people, money.
- or activities e.g. occupations etc.

VALUES AND BEHAVIOUR

If it is indeed the case that values are standards that guide actions as well as attitudes, then knowing a person’s values should enable us to predict how he will behave in various experimental and real life situations. Again, it is possible to specify in advance not all the values that will be predictably related to a given behaviour but only the main ones. Those that are the most substantively or logically related to a given behaviour should be the ones that will best predict it. Thus religious values, should best predict differences in religious behaviour, political values should best predict differences in political behaviour and so on.

If a certain value is found to predict a specific action, say, voting for a particular candidate or cheating in a particular situation, we would have clear instance of a relation between a value and behaviour. But behaviour can also have a more general focus. It can range from a single, molecular act at one extreme to a whole set of acts at the other. Pursuing a certain kind of occupation, majority in a certain kind of educational curriculum, and living a certain kind of life style are all examples of behaviour that go far beyond a single specific act and values should thus be functionally related to all kinds of molar as well as molecular behaviour.

VALUE SYSTEMS

The term value stands for *intrinsic work* whatever is actually liked, prized, esteemed, desired, approved or enjoyed by anyone, is valuable. An interdependent, accepted and consistent set of values is called *Value System*.
INTRODUCTION

How many values are there? What values are more important? Which values take secondary position? These questions have proved-unending debate on the number and nature of values among the axiologists, educators, sociologists and thoughtful laity. The number of values ranges from three (Satyam, Shivam, Sundaram) to numerable values constituting a gamut. The entire gamut of values may be classified into two types:

- one the eternal, absolute or root values,
- the temporal and mundane values.

Moral and spiritual values are root values, which take us out of ourselves and inspire us to be good and to do good to others. The mundane values include contextual values-social, cultural, economic, etc.

VALUE CHANGE

Value change and related changes in attitudes and behaviour can come about either as a result of:

- Changes in self-conceptions and definitions of the self or because of
- Increase in self-awareness-about hypocrisies, incongruities, inconsistencies or contradictions between self conceptions and self ideals (Leff, 1978), on the one hand, and one’s values, related attitudes and behaviours on the other.

Value change is motivated by a need for the maintenance and enhancement of self-esteem and by a need for consistency between one’s conceptions of self and one’s beliefs, attitudes, values and behaviour (Aronson, 1969; Rockeach, 1968; Greenwald and Ronis, 1978). Whether we are dealing with changes in self-conceptions or with increase in self-awareness about internal contradictions a process of value attitude and behaviour change is assumed to be initiated as a result of some felt experience or self-dissatisfaction, the origin of which is specific enough to be felt, experienced or identified by the person concerned.

The whole process is not a smooth one. Nor is it always successful.

Modes of changes in values

Among the ways in which values and beliefs can change, the following are noteworthy: (Rockeach, 1968)
• **Creation**: A new standard or belief is developed out of experience and becomes effective, at some level in regulating behaviour.

• **Abrupt Destruction**: There are some instances in which a massive event results in the relatively sudden disappearance of previously accepted orientation. But this is a rare outcome. To be maintained, value requires investment of time, attention, effort, affect unless exercised, values a trophy.

• **Attention**: Relatively slow withdrawal of affect and commitment, intensity, diminishes, fewer and fewer persons will promote, support, teach or defend the belief or value orientation.

• **Extension**: Application of the orientation to objects and events in addition to those included in the original spheres of relevance.

• **Elaboration**: The value or belief is progressively rationalized, symbolized, dramatized, documented and otherwise made more complex or more embedded in its socio-cultural context.

• **Specification**: A generalized orientation increasingly is defined in terms of the particular contexts in which it is considered applicable. Compulsory school attendance, military conscription and compulsory vaccination come to be defined as compatible with freedom or equality is redefined as equality of opportunity.

• **Limitation**: Through confronting other values, any given value position necessarily comes to be altered. Although the change may be in the direction of rigid absolutism, a more frequent outcome is that the challenged value comes to be bounded or limited by the recognised claims of other values.

• **Explication**: In the form of folk virtues, values are typically implicit. At the opposite extreme, highly detailed explicit values are stated in creedal or philosophical system.

• **Intensity**: A value formerly accepted as one among many values may become so intensely held and promoted as to become the centre of life.

Since the total belief system (self-concept, values, attitudes, behaviour, beliefs) is a functionally interconnected system, a change in any part of it should affect other parts and should moreover affect behaviour.
MODELS OF VALUE INculCATION

Model of value inculcation includes a theory, or a point of view, about how people develop morally and set of strategies or principles for fostering moral development. Models provide a broad based pedagogy to mobilize feeling, to guide thinking, and to sustain action. Models of teaching which can be utilized in developing the various aspects of human values are:

- **Role Playing Model (1967):** Steps of role playing model are warm up the group, select participants, prepare observers, set the Stage, Enact, Discuss and Evaluate, Reenact, Discuss and Evaluate and Share experiences and generalize.

- **Value Analysis Model:** Developed by *Coombs (1971):*
  
  It trains people to deal rationally with ethical problems having social issues.

- **Cognitive Moral Development Model:** Developed by *Lawrence Kohlberg (1971):*
  
  The three considerations namely highlighting moral issue, asking why questions, and complicating the circumstances are the core of introducing the moral discussion. These are designed to enhance reasoning about moral problems.

- **Value Discussion Model (1971):**
  
  Based on Kohlberg's cognitive theory of Moral Development, the five phases of value Discussion Model are
  
  a) Presenting the dilemma,  
  b) Dividing on action,  
  c) Organizing small group discussions,  
  d) Conducting a class discussion,  
  e) Closing the discussion.

- **Jurisprudential Inquiry Model:** Developed by *Donald Oliver and James P. Shaver (1974):* it suggests to help students to learn to think systematically about contemporary issues. It aims to develop the capacity for analyzing issues, to assume the role of others and social dialogue.
• **Social Action Model:** Developed by *Fred Newmann* (1975):
  He gives more attention to the environmental competencies that sustain moral action learning, how to influence public affairs is a complex matter. This model recommends both course work and community involvement.

• **Consideration Model:** Developed by *Peter McPhail and his associates* (1975):
  It places emphasis on role playing, socio drama and creative writing as methods for enhancing interpersonal awareness.

• **Rational Building Model:** Developed by *James Shaver* (1976):
  Considerations of this model include the processes of value identification, value classification, label generalization, value conflict analysis and qualified decision making.

### VALUE INCULCATION STRATEGIES

The inculcation of values is by no means a simple matter. There is no magic formula, technique or strategy for this. Value education in all its comprehensiveness involves developing a sensitivity to values, an ability to choose the right values, internalising them, realising them in one’s life and living in accordance with them (N. Venkataiah, 1998). Values are not taught, they are caught.

For value orientation, there is necessity to fully utilize the life setting and life experience of students through a wide mix of pedagogic strategies wherein teacher occupies a position of key resources.

It is said that values are caught and not taught. Modern educationists are of the opinion that values are caught as well as taught. Though values are intimately related to volition and affection yet cognition plays a role in the training of volition and affection (N. Venkataiah, 1998).

The secret of teaching values lies in inspiring and kindling the quest by one’s own example and mastery of knowledge of values. Only education in human values can help retain humanness, promote purity and thereby help human beings to unfold the hidden divinity. A congenial social environment of emulative examples, winsome
attitudes and salutary interactions between teachers and teachers, teachers and students, teachers and parents can promote and foster the growth of values.

Women are the guardians of culture. Women have to play an important role in the value oriented education of the children. Women have the capacity not only to convert a house into a sweet home but also to transform a country into a strong nation. Mahatma Gandhi once said that if men are good teachers, women are better teachers (N. Venkataiah, 1998).

**Value Self Confrontation Strategy**

Rokeach’s (1973) value self-confrontation strategy is based on his belief system theory what he categorically said as a theory of cognitive and behavioural change. This theory basically moves around the most fundamental class of beliefs i.e. the many conceptions or cognitions that a person has about himself which have been identified as self or self concept by many psychologists or philosophers (Mead, 1934; Hilgard, 1949; Dymond, 1954; Cooley, 1956; Akeret, 1959; Allport, 1960; Raimy, 1975; Hermans, 1987. According to Rokeach (1973). All such self-cognitions can reasonably be represented at the innermost core of the total belief system and all remaining beliefs, attitudes and values can be conceived of as functionally organised around this innermost core. Diagramatically this belief system has been presented in the Fig1.1.
INTRODUCTION

SELF SATISFACTION - DISSATISFACTION

BELIEF SYSTEM

THEORY

VALUES

Behaviours

Attitudes

Beliefs

Changes

BELIEF SYSTEM THEORY

BELIEFS

ATTITUDES

INSTRUMENTAL

TERMINAL

SELF-CONCEPTIONS

VALUES

VALUES

STRATEGIC APPROACHES

INDUCED COGNITIVE OR BEHAVIOURAL INCONSISTENCIES

Fig. 1.1: ROKEACH BELIEF SYSTEM AND CHANGE (1973)
INTRODUCTION

The Fig 1.1 depicts that in the core of this functionally interconnected and hierarchically ordered belief system, self-conceptions is the most central element. The terminal (end state) values are nearer to the centre of the belief system than the instrumental (behavioural) values. Attitudes and Beliefs as peripheral elements in the belief system hold still less central positions than values. Any induced inconsistency or contradiction between one’s value or value and any other cognitive component which implicates self-conceptions may lead the individual to a state of self-satisfaction dissatisfaction. This affective state is postulated to be the basic motivation for change in values, behaviour, attitudes or beliefs. Value self-confrontation strategy transforms the belief system theory into action.

It is not a time bound affair. It is a life long quest. Teacher with vision, dealing with curricular subjects such as languages, science, social science, music, art, work experience and curricular activities such as NCC, Scouts and Guides, Community Service, Red Cross, Field Trips, Sports and Games can develop suitable strategies and methods which would enable proper transmission of values.

Clarifying – Response Strategy

The clarifying response strategy communicates the style of value clarification theory of Raths (1978) in action. As a theory, values clarification (Raths, 1978) consists of four key elements,

- a focus on life,
- an acceptance of what is,
- an invitation to reflect further and
- a nourishment of personal powers.

This theory of value education as a point of view operates through various strategies,

- dialogue strategy,
- writing strategy,
- discussion strategy,
- strategies to expand awareness of consequences and nineteen other strategies. As a theoretical approach it aims at increasing one’s ability to clarify one’s value issues via the valuing process.
The clarifying response is essentially a dialogue strategy where the responses are geared directly to any one of the seven elements of the valuing process. This process (Raths 1978) consisting of seven elements under three main categories has been given below.

**Choosing**
- freely
- from Alternatives
- after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative.

**Prizing**
- cherishing, being happy with the choice.
- enough to be willing to affirm the choice of others.

**Acting**
- or doing something with the choice.
- repeatedly in some pattern of life.

The value process which gives the concrete shape to the clarifying response strategy neither involves persuasion nor aims at indoctrination. Rather, it carries the spirit of free inquiry and aims at increasing the likelihood that confusion, conflict etc will turn into decisions (Krischenbaum 1975); helping children to develop clear values (Raths 1978); promoting intelligent value choices (Hersh, 1980) and resulting something called values (Raths, 1978).

According to Raths (1978) any clarifying response refers to a response, a teacher makes to something student has said or done when the purpose is to encourage that student to do some extra thinking. In the present investigation, the clarifying response has been used as a strategy of valuing in which the researcher aims at making certain clarifying responses to something (assignment of ranks of the values by the students) through the valuing process in the realm of values.

Significant impact of value-clarifying strategies were observed in attitudinal change in social context (Rogers, 1983 and Larsiter, 1984) but not in the context of academic pursuits (Berman, 1974). Value clarifying strategies revealed changes not only in attitudes but also related behaviours especially in classroom setting (Raths, 1962 and Covault, 1973). They were successful in behavioural changes concerning:

- reduction in the use of drugs (Krischenbaum, 1974, Clarke, 1974 and Gorsuch, 1976),
• decrease in alternative behaviour and inappropriate behaviour (Wenker – Konnner, 1973),
• and gain in reading (Smith, 1973 and Gillespie, 1983).

The strategies led successfully to meaningful value change (Arno, 1974; Gorsuch, 1976; Patrick 1982 and Lassiter, 1984)

Change in one’s self conception following the value-clarifying strategies was observed by Covault (1973), Wilgoren (1973), Ashford (1984) and Setain (1990) except in some cases particularly in the study of Gillispie (1983). Of course, the positive change in one’s self concept does not necessarily mean that a person has become more clarified about a specific issue (Kinnier, 1983).

Studies showed that value-clarifying strategies are more effective than traditional strategies. Little (1975) reported that values clarification was more successful than lecture method for imparting driver education in terms of the students’ attitude towards course, attendance and grade. Similarly, Singh and Singh (1986) showed how value clarifying strategy was more effective than the conventional method for teaching values: cooperation, dedication to teaching profession, scientific outlook, nationalism and perseverance. Values clarification was equally successful, efficient and effective like Donald Oliver approach (it uses more of a cognitive confrontational values model) by indicating positive change in self concept (Wilgoren, 1973) and cognitive behaviour modification model by showing a gain of one grade level in reading (Gillispie, 1983). Kelly and Stone (1987) showed that Type-A individuals (individuals unable to differentiate between those situations that require a high degree of personal involvement in responding to the environment and those that do not) appear to be able to use Anxiety Management Training (AMT), Cognitive – Behavioural treatment AMT and values clarification Treatment / AMT equally well in reducing Type-A behavioural pattern but the reduction was not statistically significant.

The study (Kinnier, 1987) showed that different distinct approaches (value clarification, value analysis, rational model and decision-making strategy) with their typical criteria (rational, emotional, ethical and behavioural criteria) were put together to form a single approach of value conflict Resolution Assessment (V.C.R.A.). This V.C.R.A. can be used for clarifying values. This study revealed that how values clarification is becoming integrated with other approaches of value education. The study of Safrit (1990) led to an inference that values clarification could help in
identifying 13 values of professional employees in the North Carolina Agricultural Extension service which were related significantly to the curriculum.

Review of various studies revealed that value-clarifying strategies were successfully employed for reduction of any kind of habitual behaviour like that of self-confrontation strategy. But interestingly it was observed that unlike self-confrontation strategy the effect of values clarification on behavioural change was more successful.

**ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING**

A favourite way to proceed in defining an attitude towards teaching is to first present a dozen or two definitions from the literature and then, after commenting on their common elements, present one’s own with the hope that it is a distillation of the essence of these other definitions (Rokeach, 1972)

Allport (1935) defined attitude as a mental or neural state of readiness to respond, organised through experiences exerting a directive and/or dynamic influence upon behaviour. He arrived at three essential features of attitudes after finding common elements. These are:

a) Preparation or readiness for favourable or unfavourable responses.

b) Which is organised through experience.

c) Which is activated in the presence of all objects and situations with which attitude is related.

Newcomb (1948) defines attitude as not a response but more or less a persistent set to respond in a given way to an object or a situation. It is organised and consistent in manner of thinking, feeling and reaction with regard to one’s environment.

Good (1959) defines attitude as readiness to reaction towards or against some situation, person or thing in a particular manner e.g. love or hate.

Rokeach, 1972, an attitude, is an organisation of several beliefs focused on a specific object or situation, predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner. Some of these beliefs about an object or situation concern matters of fact and others concern matters of evaluation. An attitude is thus a package of beliefs, consisting of interconnected assertions to the effect that certain things about a specific object or situation are true or false and other things about it are desirable or undesirable.
Husen and Postlethwaite (1985) in the International Encyclopedia of Education calls attitude as positive or negative feelings that an individual holds about objects, persons or ideas. They are generally regarded as enduring though modifiable by experience and as learned rather than innate.

According to Encyclopaedic dictionary of Psychology, (1992), an attitude is more or less stable disposition to react in either a positive or a negative manner to given categories of persons or objects.

According to International Websters dictionary, (1996) an attitude is:
- positive or position of a person showing or meant to show a mental state, emotion or mood.
- the manner of acting, feeling or thinking that shows one’s disposition, opinion etc.

According to Collin’s English Dictionary (2000) an attitude is:
- the way a person views something or tend to behave towards it, often in an evaluative way.
- a theatrical pose created for effect, especially emotion.
- a position of body indicating mood or emotions.

According to Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary (2001) an attitude is:
- the arrangement of parts of a body or figure.
- the position assumed for a specific purpose.
- a mental position with regard to fact or state.
- an organismic state readiness to respond in a characteristic way to a stimulus (as an object, concept or situation).

Attitude is the extrinsic side of the values imbibed and these are significant in the life of a child, as these affect the behaviour and give rise to actual moral act in a particular situation. The task of inculcating values and ensuring right moral behaviour among children thus includes attitude education. Attitude education further includes:
- Inculcating right attitudes from the beginning;
- Transforming wrong attitudes (once formed) into right attitudes.

Any moral act, moral behaviour, and moral judgement in a particular situation will depend upon the attitude formation.
Nature of Attitudes

Attitudes possess a scientific status as hypothetical constructs. They are not direct subjects of observation rather, emanate from inferences in terms of verbal statements of opinions, psychological changes, or some event acts in relation to the objects under consideration (Eysenck, H.J., 1975). Attitudes are effectively toned ideas which predispose the organism to action with reference to specific objects (Allport, 1969). Attitudes are selected both consciously and rationally and are regarded as pulls from the front. They are *fundamentals* as sanctions and integrate our interactions with normative patterns of value orientation (Parson, 1959). Attitudes relate to value – orientations and value standards since great deal of human thought and behaviour is value-oriented (Parson, 1954). Attitudes are integrated systems, remain the *rock-bottom* of personality (Parson, 1954).

The concept of attitudes has remained a central one to social psychology in the early part of the twentieth century (McGurie 1960). The era of 1950’s, as result of the works of Hovland, Festinger, Sheif and others, has again bestowed a dominant status to the concept of attitude in social psychology. Notable contribution were made to both variables and process involved in attitude change.

Attitudes refer to an aspect of personality inferred to account for both *persistency* and *consistency* of behaviour, toward a family of related situations or objects (English and English, 1958). Attitudes are *perceptual orientations* and *response-readiness* in relation to particular objects, are reasonably enduring and clearly different from *sets* and *expectations* (Eysenck H.J; 1975). Attitudes are predispositions to action exhibit variation between individual and cultures but are different both from *instincts* and *habits*.

Holding of attitudes serves four adaptive functions (Mc Gurie, 1969).

- Attitudes serve as *utilitarian* adjuncts when they dispose a person towards objects or *paths* that are helpful in achieving valued goals.
- Their function of *economy* is seen when attitudes provide a simplification of the complex world and guide appropriate behaviour in new situations.
- Attitudes serve the *expressive* function when they may have self assertive or *cathartic* function and may be adopted to bolster or justify one’s behaviour.
• According to the theory of dissonance (Festinger, 1957) attitudes possess supportive function. They also serve ego defense functions and help to resolve certain inner conflicts. Thus attitudes when evaluated, seem to possess both intensive and extensive worth.

Shaw and Wright (1967) mentioned six general characteristics of attitude. They are:

• Attitudes are learned through social interaction rather than result of maturation (Mcgrath, 1964).
• Attitudes have specific social referents or specific classes. It is not necessary that referents may be concrete objects. It may include such abstract referents as god, war, peace, political issues or government policies. Individuals demonstrate their feelings towards objects according to the manner in which they have exposed to the objects earlier (NewComb, Turner and Canverse, 1965).
• Attitudes possess varying degree of inter-relatedness to one another. Attitudes are inter-related to the extent that they possess similar referents. Attitudes which are highly inter related form clusters or sub-systems and these sub-systems are related to one another to form the total attitudinal system of the individual (Krech, 1962; Mcgrath, 1964).
• Attitudes are based on evaluative concepts, regarding characteristics of the objects (Anderson and Fishbein, 1965).
• Attitudes are constructed as varying in quality and intensity on a continuum from positive through neutral to negative (Krech, 1962; New Comb, Turner and Canverse, 1965).
• Attitudes are stable and enduring (Sherif and Sherif, 1956; New Comb, Turner and Canverse, 1965). There are certain attitudes which are stable and difficult to change.

Measuring attitudes

One of the easier ways to know how individuals feel about a particular psychological object is to ask them direct questions and to classify them into three groups i.e. those with favourable attitude, those with unfavourable attitude and those
who may be doubtful or undecided about their attitude towards the objects. (S.L. Chopra, 1982).

However, this method has certain limitations.

- Many individuals are reluctant to express their feelings publicly because of social pressures and fear of social disapproval.
- Secondly some individuals who prefer great dislike of something may in fact, be reacting against unconscious impulses of the opposite nature.
- Sometimes our feelings about the psychological object may, be so mixed and confused that it may become difficult to evaluate how we feel by introspective method. (S.L. Chopra, 1982).

Another method used for getting to know the attitudes is observation of behaviour of individuals with respect to the psychological object. Limitation to this approach is that researcher may find it rather difficult to get the opportunity to observe the behaviour interactions, the real feeling of the individuals may not be revealed in the interaction (S.L. Chopra, 1982).

Attitudes are not static. The real change in personality occurs in the substitution of one attitude or a set of attitudes for another or other attitudes. Even the most fixed attitudes are subject to modifications. Change in attitude constitutes personal evolution.

The formation of attitude is a result of long process of acculturations into which have gone many a complicated factors. As such, attitudes cannot be read as a writing on the wall but have to be deciphered with careful codes of psychology.

ATTITUDE DIFFERENTIATED FROM OTHER CONCEPTS

A belief system represents the total universe of a person’s beliefs about the physical world, the social world, and the self. It is conceived as being organised along several dimensions (Rokeach, 1960) and additional dimensions can be added as required by further analysis. A belief system can further be analysed in terms of sub-systems of varying breadth or narrowness. An attitude is one type of sub-system of beliefs, organised around an object or situation which is, in turn, embedded within a larger sub-system, and so on.
INTRODUCTION

Attitude and Values

The concept of value has at least three distinct meanings. To Thomas and Znaniecki, value is a sociological concept, a natural object that has, in fact, acquired social meaning and consequently is or may be an object of activity. A value seems to be synonymous with attitude because the attitude object has valence. In this conception, a person has as many values as there are valenced or cathected attitude objects. An adult probably has tens or hundreds of thousands of beliefs, thousands of attitudes but only dozens of values. A value system is a hierarchical organisation—a rank ordering of ideals or values in terms of importance. (Rokeach, 1972)

Attitude and Opinion

An opinion is here defined as a verbal expression of some belief, attitude or value (Thurstone and Chove, 1929), which underlying belief, attitude or value the opinion reflects is a matter of inference. An opinion typically represents a public belief, attitude, or value, but may come closer to private ones when verbally expressed under increasing conditions of privacy. (Rokeach, 1972)

Attitude and Faith

Faith refers to one or more beliefs a person accepts as true, good, or desirable, regardless, of social consensus or objective evidence, which are perceived as irrelevant. (Rokeach, 1972)

Attitude and Sentiments

The concept of sentiments, which has had a long history, has fallen into general disuse in the past decade or two. Most writers, for example, Murray and Morgan (1945) agree that sentiment is more or less synonymous with attitude. Asch (1952) however, talks of sentiments as if they are closer to what we have called values. In so far as operational definition and measurement are concerned, sentiment and attitude seem indistinguishable (Rokeach, 1972).
Attitudes and Behaviour

A preferential response towards an attitude object cannot occur in a vacuum. It must necessarily be elicited within the context of some social situation about which we also have attitudes. It is perhaps helpful to conceive of any particular attitude object as the figure and the situation in which it is encountered as the ground. How a person will behave with respect to an object within-a-situation will depend on the one hand, on the particular beliefs or predisposition activated by the attitude object and, on the other hand, by the beliefs or predispositions activated by the situation. It is thus postulated that a person’s social behaviour must always be mediated by at least two types of attitudes – one activated by the object, the other activated by the situation (Rokeach, 1972).

Some social psychologists are fond of saying that social behaviour is determined not only by attitudes but also by the situation, or by the interaction between attitude and situation. This formulation is conceptually unsatisfactory because attitude, a psychological variable, and situation, an objective (sociological) variable, are not from the same universe of discourse. It is meaningless to speak of two concepts that represent different universes of discourse as interacting within one another.

Anderson (1982) studied attitudes in relation to their affective domain and found three essential features.

- **Emotions** which included preparedness or readiness. As mentioned by Allport and Chave who defined attitudes as a complex of feelings, desires, fears, convictions, prejudices or tendencies towards readiness are all quite clearly emotions.

- **Target** when attitudes are related to particular objects, situations, ideas and experiences, they can be summed up under the general level ‘target’.

- **Directions** this is concerned with the positive or negative orientation of the emotions or feelings towards the target. Differences in orientation are topically expressed in terms of bipolar objectives which indicate favourable and unfavourable directions.

In case of teachers, those who have positive attitude towards teaching will enjoy teaching. On the other hand, a teacher who has a negative attitude will not enjoy teaching.
Attitude Transformation

- Attitudes are born of environmental influences, hence these may not remain steady but change with the onset of new environmental influences.
- Changes may take place:
  - unconsciously, unsystematically under controlled conditions;
  - consciously under controlled conditions, when parents, teachers and others undertake a definite project of changing the attitude.
- We ourselves are concerned with the second type i.e. consciously moulding the attitudes of children or changing their attitudes in a special setting.
- Those responsible for the attitude transformation may belong to the following categories of persons:
  - The parents and elders at home;
  - The principal and the teachers in the school;
  - The class-mates and friends in neighbourhood; and
  - The child himself through self analysis and self introspection.
- The exact nature of attitude change includes the following:
  - a change in the belief.
  - A change in the feelings towards a particular object, or in a particular situation.
  - A change in the overt behaviour in a particular situation.

Levels of Attitude Transformation

- Attitude transformation is a complex process. It involves many mental processes and works out in slow degrees, gradually and steadily. It takes place at three distinct levels viz;
  - internalization level
  - compliance level; and
  - identification level.

Internalisation Level

- Here the direction of change is internal and consistent with the broad values held by the child.
**Compliance Level**

It means compliance to the outward influence in order to get a favourable reaction from the environment. Parents and teachers are mostly instrumental in this type of change.

**Identification Level**

Suppose a child possess a particular attitude which is unique and is not in consonance with the attitude of the group or the family with whom the child identifies himself. In case he observes that he does not fall suit with others, his belief may be influenced by the group and he may change his attitude. He identifies with the group (Ruhela, S.P., 1986).

A teacher not only has to be competent in his subject, methods of teaching and in understanding his students but also should have interest in the profession and have a favourable attitude towards teaching. The term ‘attitude’ refers to reports of what people think or feel or of the ways in which they intend to act.

Since it is important for the teacher how he thinks or feels about his profession, it is desirable to study the teacher attitude because it not only affects his own behaviour in the classroom but also in the students.

**TEACHING BEHAVIOUR**

No single approach to teaching is appropriate in all situations and consequently effective teaching requires alternative strategies to accomplish different goals (Eggen, Kauchak and Harder, 1979)

Present day teacher finds himself in the midst of revolution in communications, classroom strategy and the very nature of his students. Today a teacher faces three primary but conflicting needs:

- the need to keep up to date about information in his field of learning.
- the need to deal with individual differences.
- need to apply the best of classroom oriented communication techniques.

A competent teacher is one who possesses a large repertory of strategies and tactics which he can use at his will i.e. he must acquire an awareness of and control over his own behaviour. Teaching is social act whereas learning is a self act. So teaching must be a two-way process. There must be interaction between the teacher and the learner. Learners should respond to the teaching. If the responses are satisfactory
and favourable then we can safely conclude that teaching has become very effective and the learners are benefited by it. (N.N. Prahallada, 2001).

The teacher in order to get recognition should have academic and professional competence at a high order. The competence is not to be measured by the number of degrees and certificates he/she holds, but by his/her mastery of the subject he/she teaches and the methods he/she employs. As a teacher, he/she should love his/her profession and develop the right type of attitude and zeal towards the profession. Teachers, who have ceased to take interest in their work, invariably lack luster. (N.N. Prahallada, 2001)

According to Burton (1962), Teaching is the stimulation, guidance, direction and encouragement of learning. Teaching will become more effective if this definition is followed carefully. Only that teacher who makes an impact on the minds of learners and impress them with his/her teaching is effective teacher (N.N. Prahallada, 2001).

The acts of teaching lead to reciprocal contacts between the teacher and pupils and this interchange itself is called teaching. Clarke (1970) reported that teaching constitutes activities that are designed and performed to produce change in pupil behaviour. Various specific activities included in teaching are introducing, demonstrating, citing, hypothesising, reporting, conjecturing, conforming, explaining, questioning, elaborating etc. Whereas Brown (1975) considered teaching as a many sided activity which includes a host of activities like questioning, giving information, listening and much others.

**Variations In Teaching Behaviour**

One of the greatest weaknesses in our schools today is our inability to instill a love of learning in our pupils. It is the responsibility of each teacher to study each aspect of his/her approaches to teaching and attempt to determine which of his/her behaviour can promote long term interest, and which are killing the desire to learn in students. The students are virtually the consumers of the services provided by the school. Hence their preferences for the teachers are an important determinant for the success of teaching learning process. On the basis of the findings of studies on classroom climate, two distinct patterns of teacher behaviour or influence can be identified. Flanders (1960) labelled them as indirect and direct teacher behaviour.

Students with different personality traits may also differ in their preferences for teacher behaviours. The liking or preference for different teacher behaviours is likely to
be influenced by the personality traits of the individual, since each individual has a distinct personality (Noorjahan N. Ganihar, 2000).

Noorjahan N. Ganihar in 2000 found the following relationship between personality variables and preference for teacher behaviour as:

- Students who preferred indirect teachers behaviour more, were reserved, less intelligent, affected by feelings, tough minded and uncontrolled and have weeker super ego.
- Students who preferred teachers with high TQR were reserved, less intelligent, tough minded and uncontrolled and have weaker super ego.
- Students who preferred teacher with high TQR 89 were reserved, affected by feelings, tough minded and tense and had weaker super ego.
- Students who preferred teachers with high CCR had stronger super ego and were controlled and relaxed.

Flanders (1960) enumerated three purposes which guide analysis of class room behaviour of teacher-pupil.

- To study teaching behaviour by keeping track of selected events that occur during class room interaction. Other events are taken into consideration only when this would assist the observations.
- To help an individual develop and control his teaching behaviour.
- To discover through research how to explain the variations which occur in the chain or classroom events.

After due consideration, the teacher selects the strategy that in his professional judgement, will best suit the given situation. Once the instructional strategy is determined and put into operation, its successful outcome, in terms of student learning, is essentially contingent upon instructional skill of the teacher.

Chhabra, 1982 has enumerated the operations that are necessary to be learnt for effective teaching:

- Identification and separation of the basic elements that characterize and comprise any given instructional learning situation.
- Conceptualization and interrelation of these interacting elements.
- Selection and formulation of teaching strategies that will effect maximum student learning in a wide variety of instructional learning situation.
INTRODUCTION

- Developing and sharpening suitable skills in order to translate planned instructional strategies into effective practice in the classroom.
- Obtaining reliable and meaningful feedback describing the quality of teaching performance.
- Modification and revision of teaching behaviour to improve future instructions.

Teaching Effectiveness Defined

Though no universally accepted definition of teacher effectiveness is recognized, many attempts to define and measure it have been made.

Broadly speaking teaching effectiveness refers to the results a teacher gets or the amount of progress that the pupil make towards some specific goals of education.

Teaching requires a readiness and an ability to experiment, undertake new departures, face up to unforeseen circumstances and improvise to meet new situations. It is largely a matter of an intelligent understanding of the nature of the teaching process and of confidence in one’s own power.

In the words of (Cohen, 1977) Teaching is effective when the teacher can feel the right moment to engage in precisely the right activity, which best promotes his pupils’ progress ......... the totality of the performer’s activity so enthralls his audience, that their interest is maximized, his authority unchallenged and his disciplinary problems non-existent.

According to Andrews (1982) an effective instructor is able to create a climate in which students will want and be able to participate and learn.

- Establish good rapport with students.
- Help students overcome anxiety as an obstacle to learning.
- Read nonverbal cues to students’ feelings and attitudes.
- Correct students in ways that they remain involved and do not withdraw or reduce their learning efforts.

According to Gupta (1984) teaching effectiveness is a repertoire of efficiency exhibited by the teacher in instructional strategies, classroom management, personal disposition, evaluation and feedback.

According to Nagendra (1988) teaching effectiveness is effective performance of all observable teacher behaviour that brings about desired pupil outcomes.

According to Ralph (1994) effective teaching is a complex process of reflective practices, whereby the professional teacher plans, prepares and orchestrates in a
sensible sensitive fashion, a variety of methods, materials and motivating experiences, meeting students learning needs.

According to Chambers Dictionary, (1998) effectiveness is having the power to affect or cause something successful in producing a result.

According to Ralph, Kesten, Lang and Smith, (1998) effective teachers competently select and utilize the fundamental skills of generic teaching.

Variables of teaching effectiveness

Teaching is a highly complex process in which a large number of variables influence teaching outcomes.

Stone and Morris (1972) identified seven major areas of teaching effectiveness:

- Classification of educational objectives in both the cognitive (knowing) and the affective (feeling) domain.
- Specification of behavioural objectives capable of accomplishments.
- Ways of stimulating the intellectual growth of pupils with teaching strategies.
- Management of learning in particular the problems of discipline in the classroom.
- Verbal and non-verbal communication patterns between teachers and pupils, as they relate to changes in pupils achievements and classroom behaviour.
- The effects of teacher’s personality and attitudes upon pupil behaviour.
- Understanding of the influence of teachers’ role conceptions upon children’s attainment and classroom behaviour.

Medley and Mitzel, (1997) have evolved nine important variables of Teaching Effectiveness:

- Aptitude
- Intelligence
- Values
- Self – Concept
- Job-motivation
- Job-satisfaction
- Personality
- Attitude
- School Climate.
Cima–M–Yeole (2001) has categorized eight main behavioural approaches of teachers in classroom management.

- **The Authoritarian Approach**  
  The teacher controls the classroom by establishing and enforcing rules, issuing commands or orders, using isolation and exclusion technique.

- **The Behaviour Modification Approach**  
  The teacher controls the classroom through the use of strategies like positive or negative reinforcement, praise, encouragement using cues, prompts etc.

- **The Cook Book Approach**  
  The teacher follows simplistic do’s and don’t’s.

- **The Group Process Approach**  
  The teacher uses strategies like developing, co-operation, involving students in decision making, role playing, resolving conflicts through discussions and negotiations.

- **The Instructional Approach**  
  The teacher provides interesting relevant instructions.

- **The Intimidation Approach**  
  The teacher compels the students to behave as he wishes out of sense of fear by utilizing hard reprimands, use of threats and physical restraint.

- **The Permissive Approach**  
  The teacher minimizes students’ freedom exhibiting socially acceptable behaviour.

- **The Socio-Emotional Climate Approach**  
  The teacher communicates genuineness, understands and exhibits actual listening based on the principle of clinical and counseling psychology.

Flanders, (1960) discovered that successful teachers reflected four elements in teaching. They are as follows:

- varied their classroom roles from dominant to supportive.
- able to secure students’ competence and initiative as the situation demands.
- do not blindly, follow a single approach to the exclusion of other.
- not able to move easily from the diagnosis of a classroom problem to a follow up course of action.
Criteria Of Teaching Effectiveness

According to Mitzel, (1997) the term Criteria is commonly attached to any set of observations that may be used as standard for evaluating purposes or as a frame of reference for judging or testing something.

Teaching effectiveness is not in itself an operational criterion. No teacher is more effective than another except as someone so decides and designates. The process of designating any particular teacher as more effective or less effective inevitably stems from a reasoned judgement. These judgements are made significant by others in their environment. The basis of these judgements may or may not seem appropriate when viewed from other standards but they do constitute the only administrational, sanctioned, empirical measures available for the purpose.

In evaluating teachers and teaching, however, researchers have found no such satisfactory solution to the criterion problem. No standard exists which is commonly agreed upon as the criterion of teacher effectiveness.

Broadly, the two variables used as criteria of teaching effectiveness are – Pupil Achievement and Teacher characteristics.

Pupils Achievement, as criterion, has varied complexities. Achievement tests, are not tailored to the goals of individual teaching and pupil gains on achievements, pupils typically do not progress at a constant rate.

Teacher Characteristic As A Criteria Of Teaching Effectiveness

This involves rating of teacher characteristics or behaviour through direct observation of the characteristics of teachers such as personality traits, attitudes, interests and values.

Rating is the most common technique used in research on teaching effectiveness. Researchers have asked judges to rate a wide range of variables, including the teachers classroom performance, personality characteristics, intellectual ability and social skill.

Rating is to be done through the observation technique which requires investigators to gather information through the direct observation of teaching behaviour (Mitzel, 1997).
INTRODUCTION

PERSONALITY TYPE

Personality is derived from the Latin word persona, meaning a mask worn by the actor while speaking or performing on the stage. Present day definitions of personality stress much the same meaning. Personality is not one definite, specific attribute. Instead, it is the quality of the individual’s total behaviour as revealed in the individual’s habits of thoughts and expression, his attitudes and interests, his manner of acting, and his personal philosophy of life (Woodworth, 1947). Nor is it composed of many separate and distinct attributes, loosely organized and totally unrelated. Instead personality is an integrated system of the individual’s habitual attitudes and behaviour tendencies, thus representing his characteristics adjustment to his environment (Bios, 1941).

Psychologists who accept the basic assumptions of trait theory believe that personality is made up of certain definite attributes or traits. They also assume that particular traits or mental structures are common to many people, vary in amount, and can be inferred by measuring their behavioural indicators (e.g. Cattel, 1957; Guilford, 1959).

Personality is an extremely complex, marvelously intricate structure of delicately woven motives, emotions, habits and thoughts into a pattern that balances, the pull and pushes of the world outside. Ruch, F.L. (1967) views personality as the selfhood and the emphasis on the individual’s concept of self is an important factor in guiding behaviour and development of personality.

William and Arndt (1974) based on omnibus definition state that personality is the sum of a person’s attributes. These are the definitions by enumeration of qualities and acquired mental qualities. Since qualities are added together, this position denies the significance of the relation or the interactions that may obtain among the stated qualities. Personality is seen as an aggregate not as an organization or a configuration.

Wilson (1976) described the structure of personality as described by the earliest theories of personality of Hippocrates which were extended and popularized by Galen in the second century A.D. They supported that there are four temperamental types corresponding to four humours; (a bit like the normal); the names given to these types are Melancholic, Choleric, Phlegmatic and Sanquine still survive in common usage. The descriptive part of the theory is that an over implication in the people cannot be
pigeon holed into four clear-cut categories. Most of us exhibit some mixture of these characteristics.

Good (1979) defined personality as the total psychological and social reactions of an individual, the synthesis of his subjective, emotional and mental life, his behaviour and his reactions to the environment. The unique or individual traits of a person are connoted to a lesser degree by personality than the term character.


According to *Encyclopaedic Dictionary Psychology* (1992), Personality is:

- One’s character, the set of behavioural traits usually associated with a given individual.
- The conscious self.
- Social mask
- The total impact that one has on other people


- Personality is the quality or state of being personal or of being a person not a thing or abstration; that which makes a being a person, personal existence or identity.
- That which constitutes distinction of person; distinctive personal existence or identity.
- Distinction or excellence of personal and social traits; magnetic personal quality; also a person having such distinguished traits.

According to *Collin’s English Dictionary* (2000), personality is:

- The sum total of all the behavioural and mental characteristics by means of which an individual is recognized as being unique.
- The distinctive character of a person that makes him socially attractive.

According to *Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary* (2001), Personality is:

- Quality or state of being a person.
- Personal existence
- The complex of characteristics that distinguishes an individual or a nation or group; especially; the totality of an individual, behavioural and emotional characteristics.
INTRODUCTION

• Distinction or excellence of personal and social traits.

In Browse Dictionary (2004) Personality has been defined as: Behaviour-response patterns that characterize the individual.

Different approaches have been made to define personality but there is no agreement on a single definition of personality. One basic fact is that there is one characteristic feature in all the above definitions and theories of personality; that personality is the individual’s unique pattern of traits; the pattern that distinguishes him as an individual and accounts for his unique and relatively consistent ways of interacting with his environment.

Manifestations of the personality are the outcomes of the interaction between the spiritual, mental and physical dimensions of self and the external, social and physical environment. Tendencies that emerge from individual self are of two kinds: -

• Higher Tendencies;
  Characterised as positive and good, these are ideal qualities such as self-control, non-violence, selfless service, truthfulness, fearlessness, detachment and simplicity. These tendencies are prompted by pure, kind and loving thoughts and feelings of the higher or ideal self.

• Lower Tendencies;
  These are negative and evil tendencies prompted by the action oriented lower passionate thoughts and feelings. These are hypocrisy, falsehood, cruelty, gloominess and pride. Abnormal qualities such as withdrawal from community life, brooding, sex obsession, delinquency and criminality also arise from the lower negative tendencies.

Personality is made of many components, some of which are objective, observable and measurable, while others are subjective and therefore, less easily studied and measured.

• The objective characteristics of personality are physical characteristics, such as body size and physique and factors in the mechanics and chemistry of his body which influence the speed and strength of his movements; aptitude and talents, both physical and intellectual; and traits, habits, behaviour patterns and modes of action.

• The subjective components of personality include motives, aspirations, feelings, ideas and attitudes regarding self, convictions, commitments and
purposes that give direction to the individual’s way of thinking, feeling and acting (Jersild, 1954).

Determinants Of Personality

Man is the by-product of a complex system of variables which constantly interact with personality and shape it. There are some important determinants which influence personality more than other factors. Genetic factors are basic that determine the personality development of an individual. Physiological determinants such as ductless glands, nervous system, emotions and motivation all play an important role in the development of an individual’s personality. There are number of psychological factors which directly and indirectly influence growth and development. Social and cultural factors also help in moulding personality (Chauhan S.S., 1978).

Genetic determinants of personality;

- Studies have proved that heredity-environment both play an important role in the development of personality. An individual is the by-product of the constant interaction of hereditary and environmental influences. Heredity does not completely determine any characteristic or trait but it provides basis or potential for the development of any personality trait. Training and experiences in the environment contribute to the development of traits. Heredity influences physique, motor-sensory equipment and level of intelligence. Recently it has also been established that certain diseases and temperamental characteristics are also inherited from forefathers.
- Bad environment can suppress good inheritance but good environment is not a substitute for bad heredity. Heredity sets the limit of the maximum development of a characteristic which cannot be crossed by providing best environment. All psychologists have reported that intelligence is influenced by the type of education, occupation of parents and rural urban living etc. Culture and environment have positive effect on the development of personality characteristics. Substantial differences in intelligence can be created by providing an appropriate environment in early childhood.
Social determinants of personality;

Environmental influences begin since the time of the conception of the child in the womb of the mother. Physical and Geographical conditions of the environment play an important role in shaping the personality of human beings. People living in deserts, hilly areas and plains have great differences in their body built, height, mode of living, colour and habits etc. Social environment of home greatly influences the personality development.

- **Role of Home**
  
  Children coming from homes where good morale pattern dominated, were better adjusted, more independent, and more satisfactory related to their parents, than were the average adolescents of the group. Those coming from homes showing family discord pattern were, generally, poorly adjusted in their social environment. Needless to mention that good family morale is productive of desirable personality traits and occurrences of conduct problems are associated with poor family morale.

- **Economic factor**

  Economic factor influence the development of personality. Poverty of parents and lack of money to fulfil the legitimate needs of children leads directly to certain kinds of frustration.

- **Role of School**

  Much of the child’s personality is already shaped in home before he comes to school. Here the teacher substitutes the parents. His behaviour plays significant role for the child’s development. The school poses new problems to be solved, new taboos to be accepted into the superego and new models for limitation and identification, all of which contribute their share in moulding personality.  
  
  *(Chauhan S.S. 1978)*

- **The Role of the Teacher**

  The way the teacher carries out his role in the class will affect the emotional climate in the classroom.

  a)  Autocratic atmosphere tend to create aggression and hostility.
  
  b)  The democratic set up leads to constructive thoughtful and cooperative behaviour *(Lewin, Lippit and White, 1939).*
The democratic approach has proved to be better than autocratic approach in developing good personality traits. It permits maximum personality development for each child, prepares him for group living and for making his own-decision and gives superior training in emotional self-control.

Other social factors which influence the development of personality are language, social role, self-concept, identification, interpersonal relations.

**Cultural determinants of personality;**

Personality of an individual is gradually shaped by the culture, he is born in.

E.B. Tyler (1956), a famous anthropologist, defined *Culture as that complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, morals, law, custom and many other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society.*

In the course of development, society stabilizes certain patterns of behaviour which are followed by the members of a society. Common characteristics develop in the members of a cultural group on three principles:

- early experiences which the child gets in a culture.
- child rearing practices are culturally patterned so that children in a society are subjected to similar early experiences.
- similar experiences lead to similar personality configuration.

Culture influences the personality development of an individual in the following ways:

- internalization of values, ideas, beliefs and customs through the process of learning.
- institutionalization: Buildings of various religious prayers, books and cultural programmes.

**Categorisations Of Personality**

Personality is unique. No two individuals, even the identical twins have alike personality. Personality is the product of its own functioning. What we do today, depends on our accumulated experiences of the past. The experiences are accumulated day after day and shape our personality by continuous interaction with external environment.

- Greek physicians were the first in the fifth B.C. who classified people into four broad categories on the basis of emotional and temperamental characteristics.
  
One of Aristotle's pupils theorized that human body consists of *four fluids.*
The personality of an individual is typed by the dominance of one of them in the body. The four types are:

Table 1.1
Types of Personalities (Aristotle’s classification)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Humour</th>
<th>Temperament</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Blood</td>
<td>Sanguine</td>
<td>Active, hopeful,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Yellow Bile</td>
<td>Choleric</td>
<td>Irritability, quick to anger.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Phlegm (Mucus)</td>
<td>Phlegmatic</td>
<td>Calm, temperamentally Sluggish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Black bile</td>
<td>Melancholic</td>
<td>Depressed, Slow and pessimistic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Ernest Kretschmer (1926) a German Psychiatrist classified human beings on the basis of Physical constitution.

Table 1.2
Types of Personality (Ernest Kretschmer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Pyknic (stocky)</td>
<td>Stocky, full-chested, popular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Asthemic (Leptosomic)</td>
<td>Weak, tall-sensitive and thin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Athletic</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Dysplastic</td>
<td>Mixed Type</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Classification based on Somato Type

Dr. William H. Sheldon (1974), divided all human beings into three broad categories of physical dimensions and their corresponding temperamental characteristics.

Table No.1.3
William Sheldon’s Classification of Personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Physical Characteristics</th>
<th>Temperament</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Endomorphic (soft, round)</td>
<td>Viscerotonic (sociable extrovert affectionable) love of physical comfort.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Mesomorphic (Muscular &amp; strong)</td>
<td>Somatotonic (energetic and muscular, love for risk &amp; chance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Ectomorphic (thin and tall)</td>
<td>Cerebrotonic (fearful, artistic introvert and restrained)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Jung’s Typology based classification;
  
  Jung (1912) a swiss psychiatrist, attempted to classify human beings on two behavioural dimensions extrovert and introvert.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Temperament</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introvert</td>
<td>Shy, avoid people and enjoy to be alone, withdrawn (scientist and philosophers).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Extroverts</td>
<td>Oriented towards external world, conventional, outgoing, social, friendly, free from worries (Social workers, politicians, business executives).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• Trait Theory Categorisation;
  
  Trait may be defined as a property within the individual that accounts for his unique but relatively stable reactions to environment. Traits are saleable. They can be measured and scaled quantitatively. We infer a trait from the behaviour of the individual. They are not static in nature and have functional unity. Trait is a higher order habit and are organised frames of reference. Traits are learned in the interaction with the environmental stimuli.

• Allport’s Classification (Trait Theory);
  
  The definition given by G.W. Allport (1968) is a comprehensive one. It emphasizes that traits are not linked with a small number of stimuli but they are general and enduring in nature. He classified all human traits into three broad categories.

  - **Cardinal trait**
    
    Traits which appear in most of the behaviour of the organism are called cardinal and this trait pervades the whole life.

  - **Central trait**
    
    These are less pervassive than cardinal traits but are quite generalized dispositions.

  - **Secondary disposition**
    
    These are specific narrow traits. They are called attitudes.
• Cattell’s Trait Categorisation (1951);

He classified traits into four categories:

- **Common traits**: Common traits like Honesty, aggression and cooperation can be found among all groups of people.
- **Unique traits**: These traits are possessed by particular persons as temperamental traits, emotional reactions and energy etc.
- **Surface traits**: Which can be easily recognised by overt manifestation of behaviour such as curiosity, integrity, honesty, tactfulness and dependability.
- **Source traits**: Dominance and emotionality are source traits.

• Eysneck’s Categorisation (1975);

Eysneck found three fundamental dimensions of personality.

- **Introversion Vs extroversion**.
- **Normality Vs Neuroticism**
- **Psychoticism**.

He traced neuroticism to the autonomic nervous system and introversion extroversion to central nervous system.

• Freudian Classification

According to Freud (1879), human behaviour is governed to a large extent by instincts. Instinctual derives initiate bodily needs. Bodily needs motivate the individual to gratify them so that the body returns to the prior state of equilibrium. There are two kinds of instincts *Life Instincts* and *Death Instincts*. Life instincts are urges that seek to preserve life. The energy associated with life instincts is called *Libido*.

According to Freud, Libido is the Psychic and pleasurable feelings associated with the gratification of the life instincts. Opposite to life instincts are the *death instincts*. However, the life instincts operate so that the human beings obtain many other satisfactions before death. A major derivation of death instinct is *aggression*. Through aggression the individual tries to destroy himself and others.

• The Id

It is a reflexid apparatus which is inborn. The id operates on animal level. It can not differentiate between good and bad and operates on pleasure principle.
INTRODUCTION

• The Ego
It operates on the principle of reality. The ego is an organised portion of the id which has been modified by the contact of external reality and experience. The ego makes decisions, controls actions and allows thinking and problem soloing.

• The Superego
The superego is the third personality structure and is often called the “moralarm” of personality. Superego develops through internalization of those behaviours and values which are approved by the society. It has two parts – the “conscience” and the “ego-ideal”. Conscience is that part of the superego that prevents us from doing what is morally wrong. Ego-ideal is that part of the superego that motivates us to do what is morally proper.

Students with different personality traits differ in their preferences for teacher behaviours. The liking or preference for different teacher behaviours is likely to be influenced by the personality traits of the individual, (Noorjahan, N. Ganihar, 2000).

Personality Measurement
Personality is too complex to be analysed. There have been various attempts for measuring personality from different angles:

- Subjective method of impression: e.g. ratings, interviews, questionnaires.
- Objective method of expression: e.g. situational tests and projective tests are being evolved for depth study of personality.

Most personality instruments used in India are either direct adaptations of foreign tests or are based on these instruments. Such instruments have an obvious disadvantage of not being rooted in native soil. At times respondents are unfamiliar with certain concepts used in the tests. (Yashvir Singh, Harmohan Singh, 1971).

Personality type-16 PF test
The investigator has used 16 PF Test in the present study. The sixteen personality factor questionnaire is an objectively scorable test devised by basic research in psychology to give the most complete coverage of personality possible in a brief time. The test was designed for use with individuals aged sixteen and above.

The personality factors measured by the 16 PF are not just unique to the test but instead rest within the context of a general theory of personality. Nearly ten years of
empirical, factor-analytic research preceded the first commercial publication of the test in 1949.

The general theory of personality from which the 16 PF was developed, however, anticipated their demands along certain major dimensions. Thus, for example, related scales are available to measure primary source traits below the adult age range for which the 16 PF is intended. Translation of the 16 PF into 24 languages and adaptations for 5 other English-Speaking Cultures exist to facilitate international comparisons.

Conformity behaviour

The behavioural processes that establish and maintain social uniformities are subsumed under the concept of conformity.

Conformity is also viewed as an individual's characteristics to yield to the person or group. Conformity includes the changes due to social influence. The changes may be either cognitive or behavioural. But social influence is must for the conformity to occur. Many investigators or researchers defined conformity as some behavioural or attitudinal change that occurs as the result of some real or imagined group pressure. (S.N. Rai, 1989).

Social conformity facilitates social behaviour. Members of the society are able to assume that others will behave in certain ways and this makes life much simpler. Conformity allows society to operate smoothly. People can interpret correctly what others are doing and can communicate easily. (S.N. Rai, 1989).

A group norm also known as social norm, is uniformity of behaviour among the members of a group and not the result of a psychological or biological uniformity among them.

Conformity is defined as some behavioural or attitudinal change that occurs as the result of some real or imagined group pressure. (Asch, 1952, Secord and Backman, 1964).

Kieler and Kielser (1969) defined Conformity as a change in behaviour or belief toward a group as a result of real or imagined group pressure.

Cooper and Warchel (1971) defined this term as involving a person’s yielding or giving to the group.

Mills (1971) has mentioned conformity is currently being used in psychological literature in three distinct and divergent ways;
INTRODUCTION

- Conformity as an Enduring personality characteristics: There are some people who consistently conform more than others. Thus people may be categorised as conformer and non-conformer.

- Conformity as a Cognitive or Attitudinal change as a result of some (Real or Imagined) Group Pressure: There is a large number of circumstances under which a person temporarily changes his behaviour towards some norm without changing his cognition. This is also called overt behavioural compliance with the group. Thus it refers to private acceptance or attitude change as conformity.

- Conformity as going along with the group: Conformity used in this sense applies no private acceptance. Conformity means behavioural change without any underlying private acceptance.

  According to Encyclopaedia Of Psychology (1972) conformity is a behavioural tendency or attitude which takes its norms, standards etc from the reference group.

  Conformity behaviour is in accordance with prevailing standards or standards of one’s group (Morris, 1976).

  According to Chris Evans (1978) Conformity is the tendency to behave in accordance with the behavioural patterns or beliefs of the group of which one is a part.

  According to Cohen (1994) Conformity literally means similarly in form and character. When psychologists speak of conformity, they make reference to similarities in behaviour, thinking, outward appearance or other such facts between two or more people.

  Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (1997) described the term conformity as that which confirms to or comply with the generally accepted and established laws, rules and standards.

  Collins Dictionary (2000) described conformity as;
  - Compliance in actions, behaviour etc. with certain accepted standards or norms.
  - Correspondence or likeness in form or appearance, congruity, agreement.

  Webster’s Dictionary (2001) describes conformity as
  - Correspondence in form, manner or character: agreement.
  - An act or instance of conforming.
  - Action in accordance with some specified standard or authority.
INTRODUCTION

Variables related to conformity

Psychologists working in the Field of conformity have studied a number of independent variables. These variables may be classified under three headings.

i) Characteristics of the Individuals:
The person conforming group norms through his behaviour due to group pressure, sex, age, status, competency, birth order, culture, type of personality, self esteem and other organismic variables.

ii) Characteristics of the Group:
Variables related to group characteristics can be divided into two categories:

   a) Variables related to group-such as group size, unanimity in the group, cohesiveness of the group etc.
   b) Variables related to confederates-such as age of confederates, sex of confederates, status of confederates etc.

iii) Situational Variables:
To a great extent conformity depends on these situational variables. If task is highly ambiguous then conformity will be more. If it is less ambiguous conformity will be less. Apart from task ambiguity, type and evaluation of task (important-unimportant), reinforcement etc. are important variables which are studied under situational characteristics.

Stubbornness

According to Lexicon Webster’s Dictionary (1988) Stubborn means inflexibly declining to change a chosen position, line of behaviour opinion, etc.

- Hard to get rid of, not responding to treatment.
- Refusing obedience.
- Hard to work out


- Refusing to comply
- Difficult to handle, treat or overcome
- Persistent or dogged

According to Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary (2001) Stubborn means

- Unreasonably or perversely unyielding : mulish
- Justifiably unyielding resolute.
• Suggestive or typical of a young stubborn mule.
• Performed or carried out in an unyielding manner, obstinate or persistent manner.
• Difficult to handle, manage or treat.

**Hyper Dictionary (2004)** defines stubbornness as:
• Persisting in a reactionary stand
• Difficult to treat or deal with.
• Tenaciously unwilling or marked by tenacious unwillingness to yield.

A person with unfavourable social experiences in the childhood grows upto a person who lacks empathy. He is likely to become rigid, introverted person, subject to outbursts of uncontrolled emotionality. He cannot deal with inter-personal relationships very successfully and is either self-centred or demanding in his emotional contacts or a “lone wolf” who prefers to get along without strong ties to other people. His emotional relationships are disturbed and unsatisfactory. He feels he cannot afford to invest his love in others. He mistrusts others and compensates for his lack of emotional development by stressing the abstract intellectual approach to life as the safest (Dymond, 1950).
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Research takes advantage of the knowledge which has accumulated in the past as a result of constant human endeavour. It can never be undertaken in isolation for the work that has already been done on the problems which are directly or indirectly related to the study proposed by a researcher. A careful review of related literature viz. Encyclopedia, Monographs, Research journals, Periodicals, Abstracts, Book material and other sources of information on the problem similar or related to the one being investigated is one of the most important steps in the planning of any research.

The review has been presented under following major heads:
❖ Research studies related with Values.
❖ Research studies related with Attitude towards Teaching.
❖ Research studies related with Teaching Behaviour: Classroom interaction.
❖ Research studies related with Personality factors: Conforming / Stubborn.

❖ RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED WITH VALUES

Chandra, (1978), studied the perception of work values in teaching and non-teaching occupations and concluded that:
• Teachers and doctors perceived their jobs in the same way.
• Teachers find the job morale, intellectual challenges were higher in teaching profession than in any other profession.
• Effective and ineffective teachers differ significantly with regard to work values, economic returns and independence.

Patel (1979) studied the values of the secondary teachers and concluded that:
• On social, political, economic and religious values, the older teachers scored significantly higher than the younger teachers.
• On theoretical, ethical, philosophical and scientific values, there was no significant difference between the two groups.
• On religious and aesthetic values, the female teachers scored higher than the male teachers.
• The rural teachers scored significantly higher on social, political and economic values than urban teachers.
Sportsman, Mihel, Allain (1983) studied *The Relationship of values perceptions and Goals in education in public and non-public schools in Kansas city*. The research was a descriptive study of the differences of ranking of values and educational goals by parents of children in public schools and parents of children in non-public schools.

Non-parametric analysis of variance (Kruskal-Wallis), spearmans Rho Rank correlation were used to arrive at supportable results.

The Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance test was used to study differences in the ranking of eighteen social values on the *Rockeach's Terminal value instrument*. This measurement showed some significant difference notably in the rankings of the values of Salvation, Pleasure and Equality. Few values were ranked significant at the specified level by both the groups.

Santiwat, Mathana (1985) studied *college student values at Krongthep (Bangkok) University* to investigate the types of students values at Krongthep University and to determine whether difference exists in students values regarding sex, family, socio-economic status and major fields of study. Sample of students included 184 males and 216 females randomly selected by cluster sampling from four major fields of study: Accounting, Business Administration, Communication Arts and Humanities. T-test and Anova were two major statistical procedures employed in the data analysis. Findings of the study were:

- Students were high only on economic values. Their interest in social value was as high as in theoretical value followed by political and religious values. They were least interested in aesthetic value.
- Significant differences were found on aesthetic, social and political values between male and female college students.
- Males were higher on Theoretical, Economic and Political values while females were higher on aesthetic, social and religious values.

Singh, L.C. and Singh, P.C. (1986) in their study *effectiveness of value-clarifying strategies in value orientation of B.Ed students* concluded that:

- Value clarifying approach was more effective than conventional methods for teaching of values; dedication to the teaching profession, co-operation and nationalism.
• Value clarifying strategies were found more effective than traditional methods in imparting a scientific outlook among B.Ed. students.

• No significant relationship was found between value orientation scores and socio-economic status of B.Ed. students for all the values.

Stanford, Meredith Alice (1986) in a study *An analysis of a value clarification intervention in a military setting* aimed to determine the impact of a value clarification experience made on lower-ranking military personnel of the U.S. Army stationed in Germany. Archival letters, documents, questionnaire, facilitator reports, on-site evaluation visits and interviews examined the effect of this unique intervention on the military.

Analysis of this experience included the effect on the individual motivation and the positive behaviour of the Soldiers who participated and commented on the applicability of humanistic values and principles in a military setting. Recommendations for continuing value training for the military were considered, which included issues in curriculum, logistical concerns, command support, dissemination of information, advance preparation, facilitator support, follow-up-activities and integration with other social agencies serving the military.

Lee, Ger-Bei (1987) in the study *Values Tradition and social change; A study of school text book in Taiwan and in China* analysed the value system contained in the Readers from primary school to high school, in Taiwan and China.

Results showed that the value system embbed in the Readers of China were combination of Marxism, Leninism and the tradition. At the elementary school level, the key emphasis of the Readers were the traditional moral discipline, patriotic sentiments and the devotion to the party. The junior and senior high school readers were generally composed of modern and classic works.

Sheela (1987) conducted the study *Change in teaching behaviour as a function of inculcation of values predicting teachers’ effectiveness* attempted:

• To identify the most effective and the least effective teachers at the secondary level through a multi-dimensional criteria of teacher effectiveness.

• To identify the values that best discriminate the high-effective teachers from the low-effective teachers, through master ranks of values of each subgroup.
• To inculcate the identified values in student-teachers, which are indicators of teacher effectiveness and are termed as educational values.
• To test the effect of inculcation of values of the teaching behaviour of student-teachers.

Major findings were:
• Value inculcation through value-confrontation treatment led to a significant qualitative improvement in the teaching behaviour of the student-teachers.
• The value-confrontation treatment was found effective in improving the qualitative teaching behaviour of the student-teachers of all teaching subjects.
• However, the improvement in the teacher-trainers of social science and mathematics was significantly higher than that of the language and mixed subject groups.

Ross, Constance Campbell (1988) studied the value-neutral orientation in contemporary counseling theory with the purpose to examine the role of the value neutral orientation in recent counseling theory. The study began with an examination of some of the cultural and historical roots of value neutrality, followed by survey of its influence on the literature of the helping professions and related disciplines. The theoretical drawbacks and possible ramifications of value neutrality were examined. The study concluded by offering a theoretical alternative to a value neutral orientation, followed by suggested means by which counselors, especially those involved in counselor training and supervision, might prevent non-judgemental orientation from becoming a value-neutral bias.

Singh, L.C. (1989) in his study Effectiveness of value clarifying strategies in value-orientation of B.Ed. students attempted to study the effectiveness of value clarifying strategies in the value-orientation of B.Ed. students, empirically at the teacher education stage. Using the purposive sampling method, 113 student-teachers were selected from four teacher training colleges. The study found that:
• The treatment given to the experimental group did not create any significant influence on value-orientation of B.Ed. student.
• On value-orientation gains on Test-C, all the F-ratios were found to be insignificant. Hence, it implies that both traditional and value clarifying strategies were equally effective in developing value-orientation.
• A significant relationship was found between intelligence and value-orientation gain for cooperation, dedication to training profession, perseverance, scientific outlook.
• However, only one value, perseverance, was found having a positive significant relationship with intelligence at the post-test stage.

Challahan, Teresa Renee (1990) studied General and Special Education teacher preparation programs: the relationship between values and practices aimed to examine the relationship between the strength of agreement with values statements on integration and the actual practices of selected teacher preparation programs in the areas of content knowledge, instructional strategies, field experience and coordination efforts.

One university from each state was the intended sample; however, forty six universities were the final sample. Four states were excluded because there were no universities in those states.

Results of the study indicated discrepancies between the programs’ values on integration and the programs’ practices in areas of content, knowledge, instructional strategies and filed experiences. The respondents reported that faculty were meeting to discuss merging special and general education teacher preparation programs, but the discussions were confined to the respective programs.

Gregson, James Aaron (1990) investigated work values and attitudes instruction as viewed by secondary trade and industrial education teachers. The objective was to identify the work values and attitudes that industrial instructors teach and to describe the pedagogical techniques they used to teach these skills:
• To determine whether work values and attitudes are taught incidentally with cognitive and psychomoter skills, or via targeted learning activities.
• Major conclusions of the study were:
• Instructors directly and indirectly teach numerous types of work values and attitude to their students. However, the most emphasized work values and attitudes clusters were Ambitious, Co-operative/Helpful,
Accurate/Quality of work, Dependable / Reliable / Responsible and Dedicated / Devoted / Honest / Loyal / Conscientious.

- The instructors reported using several different pedagogical strategies to teach work values and attitudes. The most frequently identified pedagogical strategies were: reward structure, group discussion, one on one counselling, role modeling and role playing.
- The majority of these secondary trade and industrial instructors taught work values and attitudes incidentally with cognitive and psychomotor skills.

Kapani, Madhu (1990) in a study *Education in human values: Concept and practical implications* attempted to

- To analyse the concept of human values from different viewpoints
- To explain the nature of the five basic human values of truth, righteous conduct, peace, love and non-violence, and their interrelationships
- To draw the educational implications of these human values for the present education system in India.

Major findings were:

- Based on an extension survey of different reports of education commissions and committees, an attempt has been made to suggest changes in the curriculum for the primary stage of elementary education
- Suggestions were given for a suitable methodology of teaching human values through direct, incidental and integrated approaches
- Suggestions for evaluation procedures assess students’ performance and behaviour related human values were given.

Paulino, Regina (1990) made a comparison of the religious beliefs and values of catholic school teachers and educational leaders in the catholic schools in Guam, with the purpose to compare the religious beliefs and values of catholic school teachers and educational leaders in Guam in order to ascertain the congruity of the two areas between the two groups.

To facilitate analysis of the congruence of the religious beliefs and values of teachers and leaders, frequency distribution, percentages, means and standard deviations were computed for each item of the questionnaire. 92 items were grouped into fourteen subscales.
The major findings of the study raised questions regarding the lack of congruity between the religious beliefs and values of teachers and educational leaders in Guam. Since Catholic schools were faith and value-oriented institutions of the Catholic Church, it was questionable whether the specific purpose of the Catholic schools in Guam were being accomplished when teachers’ religious beliefs and values were not congruent with those of the educational leaders in the system.

Setian, Shirley Yayalaian (1990) studied the effects of values clarification methodology on self-concept of selected group of school generation Armenian-American women. The purpose of the study was to examine the effects of values clarification methodology on their self-concept. Values clarification workshops involved 16 participants.

Major issues that emerged from interviews and which formed the basis for values clarification workshop strategies were: Armenian heritage, genocide, suppression of feelings, choices, self-blame, self-minimization, avoidance, sadness and regret fullness.

No statistically significant differences were found in a positive direction; however data indicated differences in self concept which suggested the following model of change: values queries > psychological tension > critical thinking skills > understanding > clearer reality > self re-definition.

Chinara, Benudhar (1991) in his study Effects of strategies of inculcation of democratic values among adolescents in relation to introversion – extroversion and value related behavioral types found that:

- Both the strategies viz. Self confrontation and clarifying response may be used for orienting adolescents into democratic values as well as into moral values and spiritual values.
- The professional workers may get more insight in selecting the strategies. Preferably, the self-confrontation strategy may be used for imparting value education to extroverts and non-conformers.
- The clarifying response strategy may be used for teaching any kind of values to those type of children who display introversion and over conforming tendencies.

Nakum, G.G. (1991) conducted study of the existing value pattern of secondary teacher trainees of Saurashtra. The main purpose of the study was to find out the
value patterns of secondary teacher trainees with reference to their gender, area, socio-economic status and faculty to study the independent and interactive effects of gender, area and faculty of education on values.

- All the trainees scored a higher mean score on family, hedonistic and health values; medium in democratic religious, power and social values but lower in economic, aesthetic and knowledge values.
- On social and democratic values, female trainees scored significantly higher than male trainees.
- Urban trainees scored significantly higher than rural trainees.
- The independent effect of Socio-Economic status was found significant on democratic and aesthetic values.
- Interactive effects of gender, area, and Socio Economic Status were found on democratic and economic values, and these were significant.
- Science trainees scored a significantly higher mean score on knowledge and health values than non-science trainees but non-science trainees scored significantly higher mean score on power value than science trainees.

Raffel, Angela (1991) found relationship between the personal values of Junior high and high school teachers and their educational philosophies. In this study responses of 152 middle school and high school teachers, in two affluent suburban countries, indicated

- Twenty one significant relationships when the fourteen values of the Braithwaite and value survey inventory (BLUSI) were correlated with the four philosophical positions of the ROSS Educational Philosophical Inventory (REPI-1980)
- Thirty significant relationships were found when the fourteen BLUSI values were correlated with the four domains of the Raffel Educational Theory Design (RETD. 1988) which included Existentialism, Pragmatism, Essentialism, Classicism.

A factor analysis of the original scales of both instruments indicated the same three-factor solutions. These factors were labeled as liberalism, conservation, and perennialism. Significant correlation was found between scales of the REPI and the RETD.
Dixon, Roger Linward (1992) in his study, *the role of the teacher and student in the transmission of the value of responsibility in the teaching / learning process in Indonesian higher education* aimed to examine the teaching / learning process in Indonesian higher education to find evidence that responsibility as a value was being transmitted. Focus was made especially on what was being done in the classrooms of both state and private universities to transfer the value of responsibility to the students.

Two corollaries of these concerns were assumed that:

- Teachers and students do rank similarly on their perceptions of values.
- The state universities will not rank similarly with the private universities on these concerns.

Both corollaries were found to be unsubstantised by the data.


- To study the effect of value clarification method, on students’ ability to identify values.
- To study the effect of the value-clarification method on giving preferences to selected values.
- To compare the effect on a small group with that on big groups

Major findings were:

- Among the school students no significant difference was seen between the control group and the experimental group regarding nationality, cooperation and perseverance.
- Regarding scientific outlook a significant difference was seen between the control group and the experimental group.
- Among the students teachers of girls’ college, regarding perseverance, scientific outlook a significant difference was seen between the pre-test mean and the post-test mean.
- In the mixed college as regards cooperation and loyalty to teacher’s profession a significant difference was seen between the pre-test mean and the post test mean.
Singh, Akhilesh Kumar (1992) in his study *Comparative effectiveness of the value discussion model and the traditional approach for developing value clarification of college students* attempted to:

- develop a value clarification scale and a value judgment test.
- study the effectiveness of the value discussion model in terms of value clarification and reaction towards the value discussion model.
- study the change in respect of value clarification, value judgement, self-concept, self-acceptance, social climate, and reactions towards the value discussion model of students treated through it.

Major findings:

- The value discussion model was found to be effective in terms of value clarification and its various dimensions and student reaction towards this model.
- There was no significant development in value clarification and the dimensions of students treated through value discussion model.
- There was a significant development in the value judgement of students through the value discussion model.
- There was a positive significant change in the classroom climate and its dimensions and in students’ reaction towards the value discussion model.

Chuang, Ming Jane (1993) in his study *Taiwan values teaching program; Teacher’s beliefs regarding implementation and effect*, concluded that:

- Teachers believed that the current life and ethics curriculum placed great emphasis on all of the values.
- Teachers believed that all of the selected principles in the value teaching program which received ‘very greatly’ should be emphasized in the new curriculum.
- Teachers believed they had improved their own professional knowledge and skills in regard to encouraging students independent thinking and self-adjustment, adopting values instructional strategies in the curriculum.

Hecker, Stephen Richard (1994) studied, *Parental values and elementary school students absenteeism* in a midwestern city with a population of just over
100,000. The Rokeach value survey was mailed to 226 homes randomly selected from among 1,604 homes.

Results showed that parents who ranked more highly values related to immediate gratification (a comfortable life, an exciting life and pleasure) had children who missed more school. Parents ranking more highly values related to delayed gratification (a Sense of Accomplishment, Wisdom and Intellectual) had children who missed considerably less school.

The major implication of these findings was that improving the attendance patterns of students exhibiting extreme absenteeism in their earliest school years requires changing the value system of their parents.

Pal. Sima (1995) in her research study, Integration of value orientation in secondary teacher training courses and its impact on the corresponding cognito-affective teaching behaviour, conducted experiment in four phases: and administered Value preference form and frequency and acuteness scale for value survey as pre-test. Administration of value treatment was based on value clarification. Administration of value preferences form and frequency and Acuteness-scale for value-survey was done as post-test. Observation of classroom interaction were made in practice teacher and in final teaching period.

Major findings were:

- The impact of value change treatment was found to affect some values but not all. Some social values were affected by the value-change treatment. Effect on personal value system was found to be more feeble.
- Social values namely, ‘Equality of status and opportunity’, ‘cooperative decision making’, ‘Tolerance’ were affected by the value change treatment. Findings also indicated that value-change as an impact of the value change treatment reflected them in the socio-emotional and cognitive teaching behaviour.

Singh A.K. and Gupta, Sen, Alpana (1996) in a study entitled Some Personality determinants of values and intelligence, concluded that:

- Neuroticism was found to be positively related with theoretical, aesthetic and religious values where as extraversion was found to be positively related with social, political and economic values.
• Females showed preference for aesthetic, social and religious values whereas males showed their preference for theoretical, political and economic values.

Ranu, Sarbjit Kaur (1995) in the study Value Dimensions of Post-Graduate Students in relation to their level of aspiration and intelligence, found that:

• Males were significantly higher on theoretical values, but lower on the aesthetic and social value than the females.
• Art students were significantly higher on aesthetic, social and political values than the science students.
• In order of ranking, values of high level of aspiration and intelligence group were: Theoretical, political, economic, social, religious and aesthetic while for the low group were: political, theoretical, aesthetic, economic, social and religious.

Othman, Joharry (1997) in a study entitled Gender and Ethnic relationship between values, attitudes and behaviour among selected Malaysian fourth and fifth form students. Selected stratified sample of 450 students from three urban schools of Malaysia was drawn. Four instruments were used to assess values, behaviour in school and behaviour out of school. It was found that:

• Means for all three constructs were different across gender and ethnicity.
• Members of different groups evidently understood and reacted differently to each construct.
• Females reported more positive values, attitudes and behaviour.
• Malay male students reported more negative values, attitudes and behaviour among the ethnic groups.

Kruse, Steven John (1997) in a study the Importance of Music in adolescent life: The relationship between music preference, values, attitudes and behaviours; twenty different values were assessed using Super and Nevills values scales. Significant music preference differences were found for:

• the values of ability utilization, achievement, advancement authority, cultural identity, economics, prestige, social interaction and social relations.
• sex-role stereotyping.
• attitudes towards marijuana and all drugs.
Walker, Melissa Elizabeth (1997) in a longitudinal analysis of teacher values from 1973 to 1994: implications for school leaders: The act of socialization is value-laden behaviour which is prevalent in schools. Schools are filled with values. The act of teaching is moral act. This study compared the values prioritized by teachers and non-teachers over the time period 1973 to 1994.

Independent decision making, human compassion and personal achievement were the three variables used to make the comparisons among three groups. Findings were:

- Teachers and non-teachers held similar values over the specified time period.
- No significant findings suggested that these values were subject to change over time.
- This study did suggest that a common set of values existed in our culturally pluralistic society, but no rank ordering of these values were determined.

Gregory, Gary Douglas (1997) in a study An examination of the moderating role of attitude functions in the value-attitude relationship, implications for the development of cross-cultural advertisements; used 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design, consisting of two levels of cultural values orientation (individualism-collectivism), two levels of attitude function (utilitarian and social identity) and two levels of product category (utilitarian and social identity). Findings indicated that:

- Value and Attitude correlations were significant in the social conditions.
- Value and Attitude correlations were not significant in the utilitarian conditions.
- Collective values were positively related to attitudes.
- Individual values were negatively related to attitudes. Interestingly, the moderating role of attitude functions in value-attitude relations occurs only for allocentric subjects.

Wyer, Natalie Anne (1999) in a study Social Value accessibility: Implications for racial attitudes and stereotypes had a purpose to test a general social cognitive model of the effects of value accessibility on racial attitudes and stereotypes. Findings provide evidence that:
• Values were represented in memory as associations involving value content and ideas of morality among individuals who endorse them.
• Values become activated in a variety of situations in which they are made salient.

Kerich, Donald Edward (1998) studied The impact of international training on democratic values, attitudes and behaviour; An evaluation of the Costa Rican CAPS high school program. Study asked the questions: What was the impact of the international training on program participants, democratic values, attitudes and behaviour? Do CAPS (Central American Peace Scholarship Program) participants demonstrate greater level of political tolerance, support and participation than non-participants? Findings did not support the hypothesis that:
  • Experimental group did not demonstrate higher scores on measure of democratic values, Attitude and Behaviour than the other groups.
  • The CAPS participants were less politically tolerant than the other groups.
  • The CAPS participants were much less supportive of the Costa Rican political system.
  • The CAPS trainees did not participate significantly more in the political process than the non-participants.

Blackwood, Penelope Ann (1999) in a study The reciprocal relation between values and attitudes hypothesized that as cognitive constructs, values and attitudes should be reciprocally related. Not only accessible values influence attitude judgement, but accessible attitudes should also influence value importance judgement.

Findings were considered moderately supportive of predictions regarding the value-attitude relations as derived from associative network theory. Implications of the present findings for Rokeach’s values, theory were discussed and several moderating variables, such as the degree of ambiguity of the target stimuli, were identified as fruitful areas for future research.

Gold, Veronica (2000) in a study Values and Values Transmitters; A study of secondary teachers vis-à-vis teaching values in public schools, developed several instruments to measure student teachers opinion and behaviour. Emphasis was placed on opinions concerning teaching specific values identified in the literature as important, and on actions demonstrating values in the classroom.
Findings suggested that:

- The student teachers strongly supported teaching values.
- All the values listed in the value ranking survey were rated positively.
- A majority plan to teach most values listed in the values Education Questionnaire.

Support for teaching values decreased with increasing age of school children being taught and there was a disconnected between which values are rated highest and which are demonstrated most often.

_Dhillon, Manjeet (2002)_ in a study entitled _Personal values as correlates of teaching effectiveness_ used Teachers value inventory and teachers rating scale for the study which used descriptive survey method.

The findings suggested that:

- Value patterns of teachers were found to be positively and significantly related to teaching efficiency.
- Theoretical values were found to be significantly related to teaching efficiency.
- Economic, political and religious values were found to have non-significant and no relationship to teaching efficiency.
- Aesthetic value was found to have no relationship with teaching efficiency.

_Liu, Yikai (2002)_ conducted a study to explore _teachers' perspectives on teacher value and the relationship between teacher value and classroom climate_. Sixteen teachers completed the survey questions designed for the purposes of this study, and their 459 students completed the College and University Classroom Environment Inventory developed by _Fraser and Treagust (1986)_.

The findings of this study indicate that responsibility and enthusiasm are the two most important teacher values, and teacher value is most important in teachers’ relationship with students and least important in assessment of the values and functions considered. Although all participating teachers ranked teacher value to be important in classroom climate, the research results show that there is no significant relationship between them. This study suggests that teachers can recognize and clarify their values in order to improve students’ academic achievement.
Ausbrooks, Carrie (2004) in a study *A comparative analysis of the values that are predominant in private schools, public choice schools, and public Attendance-Zone schools in San Antonio, Texas* aimed to investigate whether or not differences exist in the values fostered in private schools, public choice schools and public attendance-zone schools and whether or not there are differences in the values that are identified by students as compared with teachers. The sample consisted of 1866 students in grades 6-8 and 114 teachers in nine schools.

The findings from the student data indicated:

- When all factors are considered, i.e., gender, grade level, ethnicity and type of school, there were more similarities than differences between the values identified by students and teachers in the nine school studied.
- Private schools emphasized spiritual and educational values, and public schools emphasize educational values.
- When all data sources were taken into account for all three types of schools, educational values were found to be predominant, followed by moral and personal values.

RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED WITH ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING

Khatoon, Tahira and Verma, M.R. (1982) conducted a study on the *influence of personal factors on teachers attitude towards their jobs*. The study was conducted on 263 men and women teachers selected from 13 urban schools of Aligarh district. Results revealed that:

- Majority of teachers have been found liking their job. Women teachers had greater degree of job satisfaction than men teachers.
- Experience was found to influence negative attitude towards teaching behaviour where as qualification was not found to have any effect on the attitudes.

Ladipo, Betty (1984) studied *Motivational Factors and attitude changes in Teachers*.

Hypothesis of the study asserted that teacher attitudes, incentives and motivational factors tend to change with increased years of teaching experience. Sample constituted of 130 Chicago Public elementary school teachers. Major findings of the study were:
Various aspects of the teaching profession reflecting the greatest changes in attitudes were job satisfaction, teacher enthusiasm, self-esteem, job-stress and time schedules.

**Morris, Roger Keith Jerome (1984)** studied *In-service teacher education: Attitudes, Preferences and Practices*. The purpose of this descriptive study was to explore the attitudes, preferences and practices with regard to their experiences with inservice teacher education of one group of teachers.

Main findings of the study were that:
- one group of teachers selected for the study did not appear to be very different from teachers in other New South Wales elementary schools.
- held generally positive though quite narrow attitude toward in-service teacher education.
- there did appear some relationship between age/career stage and in-service teacher education, attitude, preferences and practices of those teachers.

**Henry, Nancy Olsen (1985)** investigated teachers’ beliefs about their students and the influence of those beliefs on their attitudes towards students with the purpose to investigate teachers’ beliefs about their students in order to relate those beliefs to estimates of students’ conformity to generally accepted standards of classroom behaviour. Finally the study explored the relationship between specific teacher characteristics and teachers’ attitudes towards students.

Findings were:
- Teachers beliefs about their students were related to estimates of students conformity to generally accepted standards of classroom behaviour.
- Teachers beliefs about their students were related to their attitude towards these students were given minimal support.

**Moser, Chris Alan (1986)** made an analysis on attitude towards mandatory continuing professional education in 16 selected professions.

Eight null hypotheses were tested as measured by the chi-square test of significance. Four of the null hypotheses tested were accepted and four were rejected.

This study found personal and professional characteristics producing statistically significant differences in attitude towards mandatory continuing education.
which included: occupation, health versus non-health occupations, age and level of educational attainment. Characteristics of employment status, gender, marital status and the number of hours required for relicensure did not produce significant differences in attitudes among professionals.

Finding revealed that a majority of professionals included in the integration of research studies were in favour of mandatory continuing education as a condition for relicensure.

**Collard, Gerald Lloyd (1987)** in his study *Lecture versus modified personalized system of instruction: Differences in student achievement, attrition, attitudes and other selected variables* found that:

- There were no significant main effects and interaction effects in achievement between the control and experimental personalised system of instruction (PSI) groups.
- No significant differences were found in either attitudes or attrition (dropout) rates between the two groups, students did equally well in either method of instruction.
- Both the traditional-lecture method and PSI did equally well as a teaching method regardless of sex, age, GPA or ethnicity.

**Mollensteivier, Beaverly Jane Rada (1988)** in their study *the effect of years of experience and other selected variables on attitude of teachers towards teaching profession* concluded that:

- Significant differences were found between teachers with different years of experience. Teachers with 5-9 years of experience were found to have more positive attitude toward teaching skills than those with 20-24 years of experience.
- Elementary level teachers were found to have more positive attitudes towards teaching as an occupation, teaching skills, students and classroom climate and the relationship with parents than high school teachers.
- Teachers with children were found to have more positive attitude towards teaching as an occupation than teacher without children.
- Married teachers were found to have more positive attitude than unmarried ones.
• No significant differences were found on attitudes between teachers with different levels of education.

Morris, Joyce Lourel (1988) studied teacher stress and teacher attitude towards students, peers and teaching. One hundred fifty two K-12 teachers were assessed to determine level of stress and attitudes towards students peers and teaching. Results showed:

• There was a significant negative correlation between teacher stress and teacher attitudes towards students peers and teaching.
• The results suggest that as a teacher’s stress increases, his/her attitude towards students, peers and teaching becomes less positive.
• No differences were found between beginning or experienced teacher’s age, level of education, or grade level taught.

Jones, Edith Nusser (1990) studied the attitude of faculty student evaluation of teacher performance in Kansas Community colleges aimed to compare the attitudes of full-time faculty members, in Kansas Community Colleges, relative to the usefulness of student evaluation of teacher performance to determine teacher effectiveness and if there were any significant differences in the attitudes of faculty, regarding the usefulness of student evaluation of teacher performance, relative to gender, age, highest degree obtained, years of teaching experience.

The population of the study was 1,064 full-time faculty members in the nineteen Kansas Community Colleges.

Conclusions were that:

• There were no significant differences among the attitudes of faculty toward the usefulness of student evaluation of teacher performance in determining teacher effectiveness.
• There were no significant differences among the attitude of faculty regarding the usefulness of student evaluation of teacher performance based on the demographic variables of gender, age, highest degree obtained and years of teaching experience at community college.

Sage, Hauser, Elizabeth (1990) investigated Comparison of the attitudes of elementary and secondary pre-service teachers toward middle level teaching with the purpose to compare the attitudes of elementary and secondary pre-service teachers toward middle level teaching; to ascertain the degree of interest current elementary and
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Secondary pre-service teachers' have at taking middle level education course work; to identify factors prior to student teaching which might affect positive attitudes towards middle level teaching. Study compared the attitudes of elementary and secondary pre-service teachers towards middle school level teaching prior to student teaching. 222 pre-service teachers from San Diego State University were surveyed. Findings were:

- Secondary pre-service teachers' were more likely to have positive attitude towards middle level teaching.
- Pre-service teachers who had participated in a middle level early field experience were more likely to have positive attitudes towards middle level of teaching.
- Secondary pre-service teachers were more likely to have participated in a middle level early field experiences.

Sankaranayan, Rajalakshmi (1990) studied Teachers attitude and teaching behaviours. In an analysis of the Administrators and Teacher survey of 1984 found that:

- School characteristics were generally the most significant of teacher, student and school variables that were related to teachers attitude.
- Teachers’ attitudes were better predictors of classroom management factors, than were teachers, students or school features.


Seventy seven class room teachers and 1,509 students formed the sample of the study. The results obtained from the study were:

- The peers tended to rate the classroom teachers more favourably than the students, administrators and teacher's self-assessment.
- Girls tended to rate their teachers more favourably than boys.
- Female teachers (50) were generally rated more favourably by their students than male teachers.
- Teachers with less than six years of experience were generally rated more favourably than teachers with six or more years of experience.

Legacy, Alan Edward (1992) studied Managerial attitudes and value systems concerning the successful transfer of technology to identify differences in attitudes and
value systems concerning technology transfer among managers from Developing countries, Newly Industrialized countries and Industrialized countries.

Results showed that large number of significant differences were found among the attitudes and value systems concerning technology among the three groups. Findings suggested that the attitudes and value systems of managers involved in the technology transfer process may impact the success or failure of the transfer. Finding also suggested that Developing countries were concerned with the power of Multi-National corporations and look for increased levels of social responsibility from those firms.

Lunch, Debra Kay (1992) in the study effects of attitudes and labels on teacher behavioural requirements found:

- For both kindergarten and preschool teachers, no significant main effect for attitudes towards people with severe disabilities and for experience with people who have disabilities on teacher perceived required adaptive behaviours were found.
- Significant differences were found between teachers’ perceived required adaptive behaviours for non-disabled students and students with severe disabilities on four factors for both pre-school and kindergarten samples.
- No significant difference between teachers’ perceived required adaptive behaviours was found for social competence for either teacher group.

Waston, Charles Ray (1992) studied, Attitudes of middle school teachers towards practices recommended for middle schools with a purpose to develop and validate an instrument that would measure teachers’ attitude and perceived knowledge of these recommended practices to assess teachers attitude and knowledge about the practices and explore correlationship between knowledge, attitude and various demographic variables.

Findings impress that there were no significant differences in attitude or knowledge across the variable of teaching experience, gender, age or educational level with some questionable variations regarding gender. No demographic variable used in the study accurately predicted either teachers’ attitude or knowledge.

Dlamini, Nesta Sizakele (1993) in the study Attitudes of in-service teachers towards reading instructional practices in Swaziland primary schools concluded that:
Both groups of teachers who had the primary teachers’ certificate and Primary teachers’ diploma had a positive attitude towards the reading instructional practices in the primary school.

Teaching experience had a significant role in influencing the teachers’ attitude.

The teachers who had taught for more than three years rated almost all statements positively.

The gender variable did have an impact on the teachers’ attitude towards reading instructional practices.

Jiau, Jenq-I (1993) conducted a study The effect of corrective feedback loops upon achievement and attitudes of teacher education students, who completed an interactive video disc program on mastery learning.

Study concluded that corrective feedback and required mastery of sequential instructional units did not significantly affect achievement or attitudes of teacher education students who completed an interactive video disc program on mastery training.

Mc Ghee, Marcheta Parfecia (1993) in the study Attitudes towards African-American doctoral students among college of Education Faculty. Study concluded that:

- There was no significant difference in attitude of college of education faculty towards African-American doctoral students who were compared on the variables of age, gender or geographic location.
- There was a significant difference in attitudes of faculty in regards to racial designation.

Gunn, Dorothy Renna Bethea (1994) studied Attitude of teachers towards teaching multicultural education

This study assessed teacher’s attitude towards teaching from a multicultural prospective in an elementary setting. Attitudes were measured using the survey of Teachers beliefs and attitudes.

It was found that teachers’ attitudes about multicultural education varied across _________. They revealed that teachers were not as prepared to teach to their stated ideals.

The result of this study could guide future in-service-training and public or board policies. The findings clearly supported the need for additional research

73
exploring how to best integrate multicultural education to enhance the academic achievement for all students.

Nespoli-Megay (1998) in the study *Beliefs and attitudes of Novice teachers regarding instruction of academically talented learners* found that:

- Pre-service teachers held moderately positive attitude towards differentiation for all the groups of learners.
- Students differed in ability and learning needs.
- Instruction ought to be adjusted or differentiated to meet the needs of academically talented learners.

Giles, Willie Anthony Jr. (1998) studied *school culture in a higher achieving and lower achieving urban high school* aimed to determine how the culture in one higher achieving urban high school differs from the culture in one lower achieving urban high school. The cultural approach to school improvement suggests that the values, attitudes, beliefs, expectations, rituals, symbols, ceremonies, and organizational members’ perception of; how things are done influence school effectiveness.

The study concluded that the culture of a school impregnated with symbols, rituals, traditions, attitudes and norms advanced by staff members’ underlying beliefs, influences school improvement.

Pandey, Manju and Maikhuri, Rama (1999) studied *Attitude of effective and ineffective teachers towards teaching profession*. Major findings were:

- There was no significant difference between effective teachers having high or low experience in terms of their attitude towards their profession.
- High experienced effective teachers’ attitude was positive towards teaching profession than low experienced ineffective teachers.
- Age of effective teacher was not a differentiating factor in their attitude towards teaching profession.
- Young ineffective teachers had a negative attitude towards teaching than ineffective old teachers.

Williams, Scott David (2000) conducted a study *Personality, attitude and leader influences on divergent thinking and creativity in organizations*, with the purpose to determine some of the personal and situational determinants of divergent thinking and creativity in organizations. The effects of openness to experience were
likely to be partially mediated by an individual’s attitude towards divergent thinking. One’s attitude towards divergent thinking is likely to be influenced by one’s supervisor’s attitude. Through social influence processes in organizations, supervisors’ attitudes could affect their subordinates’ attitudes. A model of personality, attitude and leader influences on divergent thinking and creativity was presented and empirically tested with survey data from supervisors.

Results were:

- Openness to experience and attitude towards divergent thinking were positively associated with employees’ creative performance.
- Some support was provided for a negative relationship between initiating structure and subordinates’ attitudes towards divergent thinking and creative performance.

**Saether (2003)** studied *Attitudes to music teaching and learning in the Gambia* with the intention to expand current views, on music teaching and learning so that teachers will be better equipped to work and function in a multicultural society. Specifically, the intention is to open the doors of the Mandinka approach to music education, in order to illuminate their philosophy of music teaching.

The core of the empirical data consisted of observations and interviews with Jalis and other Gambian musicians – the results showed that the oral jali tradition is in some respect both structured and formalized. Hence, it is described as the *oral university*. While the insiders highlight the intellectual dimension of music education expressed in thoughts on culture and identify, the outsiders highlighted the practical instrumental training dimension of music education, expressed, for example, by praising the art of not talking as a way of teaching, and claiming that the master level and position is reached when people start to dance to your playing.

In conclusion, these differences in attitudes to music teaching and learning reflect different ways of expressing knowledge.
RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED WITH TEACHING BEHAVIOUR

Mc Cormack, Louise. Salnaha, (1985) in a study on the observations and description of the teaching behaviour of college physical education teachers, aimed to determine the effect of interaction analysis upon the teaching behaviour of college physical education instructors.

Results showed:

- Feedback with interaction analysis did not bring about a change in behaviour where resistance was evident by the teachers receiving this form of feedback.
- Evidence was produced that indicated favourably that interaction analysis can produce significant changes in the following parameters.
  a) Total – pupil initiation, teacher suggestions.
  b) Teacher agency, teacher as teacher, student as teacher.
- Significant differences were computed among college female and male physical education instructors – it was found that females:
  - Talked less
  - Students contributed more verbally and totally
  - Questioned more, nonverbally and totally
  - Were less business like
  - Stressed other teaching agencies.

Bennett, Shahhon Rae (1986) investigated the relationship between Administrator leadership style and teacher personality variables as a predictor of Teaching effectiveness.

In eight North Central West Virginia elementary schools, eight principals completed the LAE, 56 third through sixth grade teachers responded to 16 PF and 633 of their students answered the OCIW instruments.

A concentration of mid-range scores on two of the three instruments limited the number of findings. But the study did indicate that principal-teacher relationships had an impact on teaching effectiveness, and that this relationship appeared to have complementary dimensions.

Mendez, Jennifer Carol (1986) studied a relationship between students’ Teachers’ and Principals’ perceptions of effective teaching with the thrust to address the accuracy of students’ perceptions on teacher effectiveness. Data was collected from
40 teachers, 7 principals and 332 students enrolled in public and private metropolitan Milwaukee schools.

The results of the study yielded a significant difference in perceptions of students and those of teachers and principals on aspects of communication and teaching behaviour. However no differences were found between the three groups on one dimension of teaching behaviours, task orientation. The four aspects of effective teaching, as identified by Boyer, did not predict students’ reading achievement.

Bennett, Barrie Brent (1987) studied the effectiveness of staff development training practices: A meta-analysis. The study examined the effectiveness of staff development training procedures on teachers’ attitudes, knowledge and skill acquisition and transfer of training to classroom practice.

Results indicated that information or theory-only treatments, had minimal effects on teacher attitude, skill and transfer – The combination of theory, demonstration, practice and feedback resulted in meaningful effects for skill acquisition but minimal effects for transfer of training.

The results of this study demonstrated that teachers can learn a wide range of skills and strategies and implement them in their classrooms when sufficient opportunities to learn are provided.

Monsour, David (1987) in the study Student-Teacher effectiveness and job-satisfaction: An analysis of personality and cognitive variables in Relation to performance, aimed to investigate correlation between job satisfaction and effectiveness of student teachers with selected personality and academic characteristics. The results of the study showed that:

- Grade point average was a predictor of effectiveness and job satisfaction among student teachers.
- Teacher educators were encouraged to set minimum grade point average scores for admission to teacher preparation programs and student teaching.
- Student teacher effectiveness was significantly correlated with the defense mechanisms displacement and reaction formation.
- The defense mechanisms identified as repression, regression, compensation, projection and reaction formation were not significantly correlated with student teacher effectiveness.
Heaton, Richard Israel (1988) studied the effect of teacher training on student and teacher performance of listening and questioning skills and found the differences in performance of teachers who received inservice training on interpersonal skills of listening and questioning and instructional processes and teachers who received inservice training only in instructional processes. Teachers in both groups used identical materials to train students in listening and questioning skills. Differences in student performance were also examined based on the kind of training their teachers received. All teachers and a 40% sample of students received pre-test and two post-tests.

Teacher training in listening and questioning skills had a powerful but short-term effect on teachers’ performance of listening and questioning skills. All students improved significantly, but no significant differences were found between groups of students post-test or delayed test performance.

Sheela (1988) conducted the study Change in teaching behaviour as a function of inculcation of values predicting teachers’ effectiveness attempted to identify the most effective and the least effective teachers at the secondary level through a multi-dimensional criteria of teacher effectiveness, the values that best discriminate the high-effective teachers from the low-effective teachers, through master ranks of values of each subgroup, to inculcate the identified values in student-teachers, which are indicators of teacher effectiveness and are termed as educational values and to test the effect of inculcation of values of the teaching behaviour of student-teachers.

Major findings were:

- Value inculcation through value-confrontation treatment led to a significant qualitative improvement in the teaching behaviour of the student-teachers.
- The value-confrontation treatment was found effective in improving the qualitative teaching behaviour of the student-teachers of all teaching subjects.
- However, the improvement in the teacher-trainers of social science and mathematics was significantly higher than that of the language and mixed subject groups.

Alexander, P’s (1989) study focused on classroom interaction at higher secondary level. It was a study on the soft side of ET. The objectives prompting the
study were to observe and analyse the classroom behaviour of teachers and students. The study revealed that:

- Most of the behaviours were appreciating student questions.
- Very rarely teachers used students responses to further an argument or a point of view.
- On the whole there was more of teacher talk and less of student talk.

Levin, Mary Clarky (1989) in his study *An experimental investigation of reciprocal teaching and informed strategies for learning taught to learning-disabled intermediate school students* concluded:

- More time is needed to teach each *Informed Strategies for learning (ISL)*, to help students apply RT *Reciprocal Teaching* to the strategies, and to practice the program with text books.
- More teaching training with modeling, feedback and coaching, might have brought teachers to higher level of skill with the program.
- Differences between teachers clearly influenced results, as did the extra time subjects in the treatment group spent on expository text.

Fellows, Karen R. Kyle (1989) made systematic observation and ethnographically collected data to look at *effects of the training on behaviours, teacher thinking, teacher planning and dispositional differences between Teaching Associates*.

Major findings were:

- No statistically significant difference was found in teacher behaviours.
- Teaching Associates did exhibit differences in relation, efficacy, role and responsibility designations and attitude towards learning to teach.

Ducote, Janice Marie (1990) conducted a *study of student teachers: Assessing their preparation programs and their teaching behaviours*.

Findings revealed that Attitudes towards all components of the teacher education program were predominantly positive. Professional study courses were perceived as being helpful, relevant and as taken at all appropriate time in the program. The strengths of the teacher education program appeared to be:

- The faculty, especially those teachers in residence,
- The clinical experiences occurring prior to student teaching,
- The student teachers were outstanding in conforming to legal and ethical conduct codes.
• The advising of course work.
• Inadequacies in the content of the subject-matter preparation courses.
• Deficient preparation in classroom management skills.
• The limited amount of classroom teaching experience.

Iorio, Shirley Hittner (1990) used Systematic observation Instrument for self-monitoring of teacher verbal behaviour. Study explored, from the perspective of teachers, the usefulness of a self-monitoring process using the withall social-emotional climate index, a systematic observation instrument. Also considered was whether or not enhanced awareness of verbal behaviour influenced classroom climate.

Data from classroom observations, interviews, persons coded with the withall social-emotional climate index and journal entries were used. The researcher determined that:
• Use of systematic observation instrument was essential to help the participants focus on a particular behaviour.
• Enhanced awareness of verbal behaviour influenced classroom climate in terms of student participation.
• All subjects increased the percentage of learner-centered statements made.
• All subjects were becoming more learner-centered in what they said.

Jean, Larson (1990) in the study Teaching techniques of outstanding teachers found that 101 observations made by the analysts of the teaching techniques of the 30 teachers showed.
• Outstanding teachers when compared with other teachers, tended more often to wait for student responses to questions, used probing, elaboration and why questions, moved around the room while teaching, used open palms when seeking responses, made clear explanations and assignments; and used strategies that caused students to be more interested, involved and engaged.
• Suburban teachers tended to use more probing, elaboration and why questions.
• Urban teachers tended to make more effective use of hands and voice.

Taylor, Roy (1990) in his study Designing, implementing and evaluating a staff development program on learning styles and teaching styles in an urban junior high school concluded that teacher’s five collaboratively planned workshops on teaching styles and learning styles provided opportunities for teachers.
• To expand their repertoires of teaching styles.
• To recognise student’s learning styles.
• To develop problem-solving techniques for their classes.
• To work co-operatively with other teachers and
• To enhance their professional growth.

Marcin, Joseph John (1991) in his study Teacher perceptions of induction programs as they relate to professional development found that:

• Inductees experiences were beneficial in the areas of teacher expectations, classroom management, orientation to policies and procedures and developing relationships with colleagues.
• The process was less than beneficial in the development of teaching skills in subject areas instructional delivery, classroom time-on-task, use of direct instruction model, building relationships with students, families and developing an understanding of the cultural influences of the community.

Biagas, N. Miguel (1991) studied Affective teaching at different socio-economic levels in mathematics classrooms: A comparative study

The teaching techniques of eight mathematics teachers, four American and four Spanish, were compared by observing teaching behaviour differences. The teachers were videotaped while delivering instruction in the classroom. Data information was coded and entered into a computer-file for analysis using SPSSX.

Results revealed that there were differences in teaching styles in the classroom. Teachers of students from low socio-economic continuum appeared to use more affect in their style than do teachers of students from the high socio-economic continuum.

Covino, Eric Anthony (1991) studied effective teaching behaviour of experienced Connecticut teachers: A validation. This study determined the content and construct-validity of effective teacher behaviours of experienced public school teachers in Connecticut. Experienced teachers (Four or more years of teaching experience) composed over 81 percent of the sample. All teachers were asked to rate the importance of each teaching behaviour to their own teaching effectiveness. Study supported both, content and construct validity for the 62 teaching behaviours examined on survey one and the 70 teaching behaviours examined on survey two. Factor analysis identified ten reliable constructs for the teaching behaviours in survey one and eleven reliable constructs for the teaching behaviours in survey two. This study also determined that teachers perceptions of the importance of these behaviours to their teaching
effectiveness did not differ with respect to the number of years of teaching experience nor with the grade level taught.

**Currin, De Ann Nuernberger (1992)** in his study *Making sense of teaching: Novice and expert supervisors* investigated and compared what novice and expert elementary school teacher evaluators pay attention to when they observe a teaching performance.

The pool of experts came from reputational sampling. Three male and three female novice and three male and three female expert participants were selected by random draw for a total of 12 participants.

Analysis of the qualitative data obtained through interviews, examination of documents written during teaching observations, and a reflective journal found commonalities in the categories, novice and expert supervisors paid attention to, during teaching observations.

Experts recorded what the teacher said and the unexpected student responses. This recorded data helped in analysis to recreate the lesson in their mind. Experts withheld judgement and continued to collect data from the teachers throughout the entire appraisal process.

Most novice supervisors recorded pieces of what they saw and heard in the classroom as well as judgements about their observations. Novice saw themselves as helpers who needed to provide reinforcement and suggestions to teachers.

**Gerber, Jill Ann (1992)** conducted a research on *promoting excellence in elementary school teaching: Theory ridden practitioners*, to improve teacher education for elementary school teachers. The panaceas vary from extension of programs to an additional fifth year to complete abolition of education as a major course of study.

The study attempted to understand how experience had influenced the development and use of teachers’ theoretical framework.

The major findings indicated that although outstanding, experienced elementary school teachers may appear to practice with little conscious effort to theoretical guidance, they have specific reasons for their actions in the classroom. These reasons or theories which guide their practice, endorse the primacy of meaningful learning.

**Kimmons, Janice Vance (1992)** in the study *Teaching effectiveness: A comparison between designated and not designated college teachers*. Studied two groups of college teachers designated outstanding teachers who had received university distinguished teaching awards, and those not designated as outstanding, who had not
received a distinguished teaching award. Sample was randomly selected and each teacher was observed in the classroom and evaluated using the COKER, classroom observation, keyed for effectiveness research.

The results indicated there was no significant difference between the teaching effectiveness of the two groups, when compared by subjects taught, there were significant differences in only two competencies. When scores were adjusted for years of experience, teaching differences were found in four competencies. The scores of the designated outstanding teachers were analysed according to teaching method.

The designated outstanding teachers were interviewed in order to obtain their views on teaching effectiveness. The responses were compiled into four categories: personality traits of outstanding teachers; collegiality; the outstanding teachers selection process; and promoting better teaching.

Pollard, Connie (1992) in her study Differences in beliefs between regular and compensatory educators suggested the need

- For emphasis on the research and application of effective school and teacher behaviours which increase student learning.
- Teaching learning programs and on-going district-wise staff development programs are essential.
- Clinical supervision and peer coaching can provide support and facilitate educators to become more effective in improving student learning.

Smith, Judith Ann (1992) investigated Effective middle school teaching Factors that promote and maintain it. The purpose was to examine the various characteristics of being an expert middle school teacher and then to determine the major factors reported to promote and maintain effective teaching.

The major factor which emerged as the driving force motivating and sustaining these ‘experts’ was their sense of commitment especially to early adolescents. Other important factors were

- Ability to maintain a balance between academic and affective concerns.
- Competency in using multiple teaching strategies.
- Pro-active and attentive principals.
- Compatible and committed team membership
- Participation in staff development planning and decisions.
- Through understanding of early adolescent characteristics
• Extensive experiences with early adolescents pre-professionally and in practice teaching.

Bala Subramaniam, N. (1993) in the study *correlation of teachers’ classroom communication patterns and personality traits* aimed to study the communication patterns of teachers teaching detailed English text in the classroom and to identify the personality traits of the teachers which influences their different communication patterns in the classroom.

Findings of the study were:

- Teachers who were socially outgoing, inhibited and good at making and maintaining interpersonal contacts restricted pupils participation in the teaching-learning process.
- Teachers who were aggressive, independent, daring, indecisive and exhibiting considerable initiative involved the pupils in the teaching-learning process.

Chawszczewski, David Joseph (1993) studied *Teacher Education, teaching and order.*

Nine student teachers participated in an orientation session held at the onset of their student teaching semester that employed autobiographical and metaphorical approaches, along with discussion of classroom social reality, to help them develop alternative views of classroom order. Then during the student teaching semester, three of the participants, all teaching at the secondary level, were closely followed through their first teaching experiences. They were interviewed at the beginning and end of the semester, periodically observed in classroom and debriefed immediately after each visit.

The analysis suggested that three themes guided their development as classroom managers: perception, the will to act, and their view of the purpose of student teaching.

Dixon, Joyce (1994) in a study, *an investigation of teacher behaviour and students perception of teacher behaviour in an inner-city independent school eighth grade classroom* aimed to analyse, teacher behaviour and perceptions to determine if there were specific actions which served as catalysts to inspire or motivate students to achieve academically.

Major findings were that after the students primary basic needs were gratified, attention was placed on the development of academic and social skills. The students were instructed at their functioning level. They were able to achieve, acknowledge their
ability to learn and demand more instruction for further achievement. Students who had been deemed alienated, underachieving and disaffect had become involved and enthused with school. They wanted more diverse curricular activities to be available to them. They made plans for more advanced learning.

Lang, Ya-Chin H. (1994) in a study on Professor-student interactions: A survey in five universities in Taiwan aimed to explore whether or not significant differences occur between students’ and professors’ perceptions regarding appropriate professor-student interactions, so that problems and conflicts could be detected. A ‘University Professor – Student Interaction Questionnaire’ was administered to 421 university students and 118 professors from 5 universities.

The results showed that grading was the most controversial issue dividing students and professors. They also indicated that, overall, professors had a similar pattern of rating appropriate behaviours as students. Lack of communication and a restrictive cultural notion of propriety seem to be the major obstacles to professor-student interactions, as each attempts to find ways to balance tradition and modernisation.

Roy, D. Dutta (1994) in the study Personality structure of teachers’ aimed to determine underlying relationship among the sixteen personality factors among teachers’ Major findings were:

- Personality factors were interrelated. Factor G had a high predictive level and factor B had comparatively low predictive level.
- Lowest commonality was seen for I, Q2 and B factor.
- Emotional stability had positive loadings on M, Q3, C, B and negative loading on Q4 and O. It means that teachers were adventurous, self-controlled, egoistic, intelligent, relaxed and secured.
- Faithfulness had positive loading on M, A and F and negative loading on L, G and N. It means that teachers were imaginative, outgoing, talkative, trusting, less conscientious and forthright.

Yu, Lih-Hua (1994) in a study, an investigation of teachers’ verbal interaction and gender differences in fifth grade children in elementary schools in Taiwan aimed to investigate whether gender differences existed in male and female teachers’ behavioural responses / interactions with male and female students in Taiwan elementary school classroom, in 11 year old children. Study also attempted to compare
and contrast the differences in categories (praise, acceptance, remediation and criticism), frequencies and distributions of verbal interactions between male and female teachers.

Sample consisted of 10 teachers, 5 males and 5 females and their 456 students from 5 elementary schools. Results revealed:

- There were no significant relationships in the verbal interaction between male and female students.
- There were significant differences in the categories of verbal interaction. For example i) ‘Acceptance-Intellectual’ was the most prevalent type of reinforcement employed by both male and female teachers (ii) Frequency level of Praise-Intellectual used by female teachers was nearly twice that of male teachers.
- Regarding seating arrangements, teachers did not segregate students by gender. The students were seated in small groups or in rows and columns based on a random mix of gender assignments.

Tilliston, Johnward (1996) studied the links between features of a science teacher preparation program and new teacher performance with regard to constructivist teaching. This study sought to examine the links between features of the university of Iowa-UPSTEP program and the teaching attitudes and behaviours of program graduates as beginning science teachers. A collective case study design was employed using qualitative research methods. The outcomes of this study suggested:

- The practice of modeling desired teaching behaviours by faculty within the Iowa-UPSTEP program was evident in the performance of the new teachers.
- The multiple science methods courses and extensive field practice were instrumental in the development of the new teacher’s current teaching practices with regard to constructivist teaching.
- The NT’s frequent use of constructivist learning activities in their science teaching mirrored the use of these same strategies in the program.

Hill, Judith Lynn (1997) observed teaching behaviours of university of Alabama faculty teaching videotaped courses to identify the teaching behaviours of university of Alabama faculty who taught in the quality university extended site telecourses (QUEST) a distance education program. 300 minutes of Quest videotape
were reviewed for each of the course offered through Engineering and Nursing during the fall semester. The findings of the study revealed that:

- Lecturing, demonstrating and responding to student questions were more commonly practiced than other behaviours identified by the study.
- Undergraduate Nursing faculty chose lecture 77.5% of the time, nine times more often than the next most commonly employed behaviour.
- Graduate Engineering faculty also preferred lecture to other teaching behaviours. They used lecture 59.0% of the time.
- Only undergraduate Engineering faculty chose another behaviour more frequently than lecture.

Datta, S. (1998) conducted a study on modification of teaching behaviour of upper primary science teachers through verbal interaction analysis feedback and its effect on scholastic achievement of pupils studying in VII of South Delhi Schools. Major findings of the study were:

- In most of the classroom situations teachers followed direct influence i.e. more of lecture, direction, criticism etc.
- Teachers seldom took help of experimentation or other activities to make the lesson interesting.
- Students had shown mostly passive behaviour i.e. responding to teachers directions, lectures etc.
- The treatment provided by the investigator based on observation and analysis of classroom interaction proved to be effective so as to bring modification in teaching behaviour which could be measured quantitatively and qualitatively.
- Modification of teaching behaviour and classroom communication pattern had brought improvement in students achievements.

Rice, Susan Ann (1998) studied the relationship between teachers’ attitudes and stress levels and various Demographic variables. The results showed that:

- There was a slight relationship between the number of special need students a teacher has and teachers’ attitude toward special-need students.
- There was evidence to show that there was a relationship between the teachers’ attitude and their stress level, showing that as a teachers’ attitude towards these students with disabilities become more negative, the teachers’ stress level is higher.
• As teachers’ attitude becomes increasingly negative, teachers tend to view less success with special needs students, less availability of support services and a lack of administrative support.

Pandey, Manju and Maikhuri, Rama (1999) studied *Attitude of effective and ineffective teachers towards teaching profession*. Major findings were:

- There was no significant difference between effective teachers having high or low experience in terms of their attitude towards their profession.
- High experienced effective teachers’ attitude was positive towards teaching profession than low experienced ineffective teachers.
- Age of effective teacher was not a differentiating factor in their attitude towards teaching profession.
- Young ineffective teachers had a negative attitude towards teaching than ineffective old teachers.

Keiter, Marjorie Hudson (2000) through an *analysis of the nature of the relationship between faculty social interest and students perception of teaching effectiveness*, aimed to explore the relationship between faculty social interest and students evaluations of teaching effectiveness, considering other variables which effect teaching effectiveness including faculty characteristics and course characteristics. Results of the study indicated that:

- Faculty social interest does have a relationship with student evaluations, contributing between 7% and 25% to the total explained variance.
- Students’ perceptions of teaching effectiveness were positively associated with faculty social interest as well as pedagogy, subject matter and course content / organisation.

Pitsch, Teri Lynn (2000) studied *teacher factors, teaching behaviours and gender in junior high school mathematics classrooms*.

The purpose of this qualitative study was to identify the teachers’ factors and teaching behaviours that lead to gender biased or unbiased classrooms in junior high school mathematics. Eight teachers, five female and three male, from an urban school district were observed and interviewed twice during spring semester 1999. All data was coded using the same set of codes. Each piece of data was compared to every other piece of data using constant comparative analysis until no new themes appeared and all
similarities between the data had been identified. Common themes that were identified from the data included:

- Teacher attitude toward gender, abilities of male and female students, participation of male and female student in mathematics classrooms, teacher attitude toward mathematics, classroom behaviour of male and female students, and the work habits of male and female students
- Positive teacher attitude towards students was identified as the most frequently recorded teaching behaviour that lead to junior high school mathematics classrooms that were free of gender bias.

**Hayward, Pamela Ann (2001)** studied students’ initial impression of teaching effectiveness to discover what instructors’ behaviours leave an impression on students on the first day of class. University of Illinois students were surveyed at the end of the first class on instructor attributes, they feel, make an impact. Later, students at Lake Superior State University listened to audio tapes of these classes and wrote descriptions of instructors’ behaviours.

A factor analysis of the instructional attributes the students rated, revealed four factors: concern for students, communicative competence, expectations and benefit. Regression analysis revealed the communicative competence factor had the greatest influence on teaching effectiveness.

**Platt, Linda Sue (2001)** in the study titled leadership skills and abilities, professional attributes and teaching effectiveness in athletic training clinical instructors aimed to validate an evaluation tool used to identify leadership skills and abilities in athletic training clinical instructors. Findings were:

- Five leadership variables, collectively, did predict teacher effectiveness; however, when analyzing them separately, professional attitudes, characteristics of effective leaders and communication skills proved to be strongest predictors of teacher effectiveness.
- Leadership courses taken by clinical instructors did influence professional attitudes.
- Clinical instructors and students both felt the five leadership variables were predictive for teacher effectiveness.

**Alber, David Allen (2002)** examined the possible relationships of teacher organizational commitment and teacher efficacy to school academic standing and
teaching experience. The sample comprised of 30 public-school teachers who taught in high schools of the Large Unit District Association (LUDA) in Illinois. Data analysis indicated that the teacher organizational commitment components of: a positive sense of belonging and a commitment to collaboration demonstrated importance in their number and strength of relationships to teacher efficacy, indicators of academic standing, and teaching experience. Results suggest that administrators and policy makers may nurture and retain effective teachers who are committed to the school by fostering a friendly climate and a collaborative environment.

Dingman, Ann E. (2003) studied impact of service-learning on students’ subject-centred coursework learning, skills, attitudes and values: An examination of the effects of best practices in innovative liberal arts courses conducted a qualitative study using interview and observation methods to develop a grounded theory on the effects of service learning.

Findings indicated that
- Students develop richer and broader understanding of the course content and greater awareness of community issues and organizations.
- Students developed academic and personal skills, including critical thinking and ability to take initiative.
- Students increased their value of community involvement in their personal and professional lives.
- Students’ attitudes towards their role as a volunteer, the effectiveness of service were affected.

RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED WITH PERSONALITY FACTOR (Conformity, Stubbornness)

Leddick, George Russell (1980) did an analysis of supervision behaviour and the effect of supervisor development, personality characteristics and role preferences. It was a descriptive study, employing 73 subjects from counseling programs of 3 State universities of Indiana. All subjects completed three instruments: The Supervision Discrimination Scale (SDS) the supervisor Role Analysis Form (SRAF) and the Personality Research Form (PRF).

Results yielded clear evidence of development in behaviour, role preference and personality traits of both supervisors and subjects.
Major findings with regard to supervisory behaviours were:

- Preferences for supervision behaviours were identified. Subjects most like the experts frequently chose behaviours of modeling – rehearsal – feedback, open-ended questions positive / negative feedback, brainstorming, alternatives and reflections of feelings. Subjects least like experts chose less behaviour and rated them lower. There were behaviours of positive / negative feedback, modeling – rehearsal feedback. They rated reflection of feelings and teaching higher than former group.

- Not only were specific behaviours preferred but these behaviours were also determined to occur consistently.

- Silence was the behaviour least preferred by experts, supervisors and trainers.

Perry, Criss-Tenna (1980) studied the prediction of teacher effectiveness: A linear regression analysis of mean residual student achievement and teacher personality characteristics to determine if teacher effectiveness as measured by mean residual student achievement in Algebra I, was related to 16 teacher personality characteristics as measured by Cattell’s Sixteen PF Questionnaire. Sample consisted of 15 Algebra-I teachers and 508 of their students from country of Virginia.

Analysis consisted of a Bivariate correlational Analysis and a stepwise multiple linear regression analysis with a minimum R² improvement technique. The regression analysis resulted in a model and / or a linear regression equation that produced a predicted mean residual student achievement score. Model contained three of Cattell’s personality traits, tender-minded (I) conscientious (G) and self-sufficiency (Q₂). It had a correlation of +0.73 with mean residual student achievement and with the three personality characteristics accounted for 53% of the variance in mean residual student achievement. It was significant beyond the .05 level.

Maghan, Betty (1982) found relationship between students and instructors Personality types and students’ ratings of their instructors. Data was collected from the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) for personality types and Students Perception of Instruction (SPI) scale for students’ ratings. 13 instructors and 464 students from 2 community colleges participated in the study. Data were analysed by Johnsonmax cluster analysis, multivariable analysis and one-way analysis of variance procedures. Results showed:
65% of students clustered into groups of 13 classes; however there was no evidence that personality type was the basis on which clusters were found.

Statistically significant interactions occurred between students and investigative instructors on five of the rating items.

Significant relationship between ratings of overall ratings of instructors items related to level of congruence of student / instructor personality types were not in direction expected.

Sormin, Benni Hamonangan (1984) studied the relationship between personality and teaching effectiveness of vocational industrial teachers in selected high schools in northeast Texas to investigate whether there was significant predictive relationships between personality traits and teaching effectiveness. Tools used were 16 PF and the teacher evaluation forms. The treatment of data with application of Z-tests of the person product-moment correlations between 16 single (16 PF) factors and teaching effectiveness scores, at the .05 level of significance, resulted with no one predictor variable identified as being significant. Findings were:

- There was only a slight relationship between personality, as measured by the 16 PF and teaching effectiveness as rated by immediate supervisors of vocational industrial teachers in selected high schools of Northern Texas.
- The personality traits of the vocational industrial teachers identified as having value in predicting teaching effectiveness were tenseness, suspiciousness and controliness.

Humble, Alpha Sue (1985) studied the relation of personality type, field of study, Gender, age and classification of college students to the performance of formal operation tasks aimed to study and explore the relationship of personality factors to formal operational thinking in adults. Subjects were 298 undergraduate students ranging in age from 17 to 38 years.

Results indicated that:

- Personality and interest measures were important correlates of level of operational thought in adults.
- Finding of the study were significant for the field of educational psychology since they added confirmatory data to piagets assertion and cognition which were inseparable. In adults, cognitive structures develop in relationship to interest and experience in a preferred field of study.
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

- Findings confirmed that Jung’s theory of personality typology and Piaget's theory of cognitive development were indeed compatible.

**Fell, Elizabeth Anne Paul (1985)** studied the relationship between teachers’ personality preference types and fifth-grade students’ perceptions of the classroom psychological climate. Two research questions were examined:

- Is there a statistically significant relationship between teachers’ personality preference types and demographic variables a) age b) years of experience and c) academic degree?
- Is there a statistically significant relationship between students' perception of the classroom psychological climate and demographic variables a) sex b) race and c) age?

Results of the data suggested 1) there was no difference between personality preference types of teachers whose students perceived the classroom as having the most satisfaction and the personality preference types of teachers whose students perceived the classroom as having least satisfaction. 2) Extraversion / Introversion, Sensing / Intuition, thinking / feeling, judgement / perception and years of experience were not related. 3) Students perceptions of classroom climate and students age were not related.

**Eagly and Chrvala (1986)** examined status and gender role explanations of the tendency for women to conform more than men in group pressures. Findings revealed that:

- Among subjects, 19 years old or older females conformed more with surveillance, it did not affect male’s conformity.
- Older females were significantly more conforming than older males when under surveillance.

**Pressel, Diane Anderson (1986)** found the relationship between personality traits as measured by Cattell's 16 Personality factors and aspirations for leadership. Cattell's 16 personality factor questionnaire and a demographic survey forms were sent to 250 administrators. Only 98 administrators responded. Results showed:

- Elementary school administrators were found to be significantly less tender-minded than secondary school administrators.
- Ph.D holders scored significantly warmer than those holding only an M.A.
- The variable for years of experience produced no significant differences.
Collins, Peggy Hooten (1987) studied *personality strengths that influence teachers' pursuit of leadership roles*. The purpose of the study was to investigate the personality core strength or traits of teachers. Two groups of teachers were compared; leaders and nonleaders.

A sample of 60 teachers was selected for the leaders’ group and a sample of 80 was selected for the nonleaders’ group. The personality core strengths of leaders and nonleaders were analysed in the categories of thinking, risking, practical thinking, theoretical thinking, dependent risking and independent risking.

No significant difference was found between leaders and nonleaders in any of the seven hypotheses tested. Motivation for pursuit of leadership roles was not linked to particular personality core strength.

Mc Clain, Clifford R. (1987) studied the relationship between *personality characteristics and teaching effectiveness of secondary vocational agricultural teachers* to examine the relationship between the personality type characteristics and teaching effectiveness. The teaching effectiveness instrument was developed from twenty-two competencies identified as being relevant to effective teaching. Data was collected on a stratified random sample of 193 secondary vocational agricultural teachers from six regions of united states.

To examine relationship between the personality characteristics and teaching effectiveness, an analysis of variance was conducted using the Kruskal-Wallis multiple comparison procedure. Significant differences were found to exist on two personality indices (E-I and J-P) and between two temperament groups (SJ and SP), when teaching effectiveness scores were compared.

Northcutt, Cecilia Ann (1987) studied *personality characteristics of successful career women* and used a questionnaire designed to identify personal characteristics that successful career women have in common across career fields.

Conclusions drawn were:

- Career women who had been publicly recognized by their peers had a high level of self-esteem.
- Women focused more on ‘contribution to society / to others’ than on ‘earning a high salary’.
- Women defined themselves as ‘hardworking’ rather than ‘achievement oriented’.
Mittal, A. (1989) sought to relate teachers' personality characteristics to their classroom behaviour analysed in Flanders' style as direct and indirect teaching (or influence). In direct teaching, teachers were found to be more outgoing, intelligent, emotionally stable, humble, sober, conscientious, restrained, tender-minded, trusting, imaginative, shrewd, apprehensive, conservative, group-dependent, controlled and relaxed than direct-teachers. They were disciplinarians, technologists, humanitarians, stylists and academicians in type-in the descending order.

Mary, Catharina (1990) in a study of effective teachers leadership and styles and personality preferences aimed to determine the relationships among leadership style (telling, participating and delegating) and personality preferences Extrovert / introvert, sensing / Intuitive, Feeling / Thinking, Judging / Perceiving and effectiveness as a consultant teachers.

No significant relationship was found between the consultant teachers' effectiveness score and any of the 4 measures of leadership although the raw scores indicated that selling and participating were the two leadership styles most often used by the consultant teachers.

Two significant relationships were found:

- There was a relationship between personality index preference and effectiveness in consulting. The sensing was a significant variable when effectiveness was considered.
- The leadership style of telling was related to the personality preference of judging.

Kim, Kyunghee D.M.A. (1993) studied the relationship between teaching style and personality characteristics of group piano teacher with the purpose to investigate the extent to which teaching styles were related to teacher personality and personalities of students in a group piano situation. Teaching style was identified by the behavioural content of investigator designed observation instrument, the three teaching modes of Harry Broudy’s classification scheme and the global and analytical teaching approaches. Results of the study suggested:

- Extraverted, thinking and judging, (E, T and J) teachers were similar in their use of teaching styles as were introverted, feeling and perceiving teachers (I, F& P).
- E, T and J teachers utilized more nonverbal behaviours group oriented instruction and analytical teaching approaches, whereas I, F and P teachers...
employed more verbal behaviours, individual-based instruction and global teaching approaches.

• Introverted teachers emphasized more functional skills. The degree of personality match between teacher and student did not affect student satisfaction. Students were more satisfied with extraverted thinking, and judging teachers than their counter part type teachers.

Spencer, Howard M. (1993) studied the relationship between personality traits of teachers and students attitude towards teaching. The following research questions were addressed.

• Does a relationship exist between the personality traits of teachers and students liking for the subject under study.

• Does a relationship exist between the personality traits of teachers and students liking for the teacher?

Survey data were collected from a random sample of teachers and their students in public senior high schools in Missouri selecting one teacher and 5 students from each of the 250 schools. Findings were:

• A statistically significant relationship was found to exist between students liking for the teacher and for the subject under study in the classroom.

• A relationship was not to exist between the personality traits of teachers as measured by the 16 personality factor questionnaire and student attitudes towards the teacher on the subject.

Van Zandt, Laura Mc. Creary (1994) in the study entitled An analysis of personality traits of effective teachers of at-risk students, the sample consisted of 146 middle-level teachers drawn from two urban and two rural schools in Arkansas aimed to determine if personality traits could predict effectiveness with at risk students.

T-tests of independence conducted using the continuous composite scores from the 10 scales revealed that effective teachers of at-risk students displayed high levels of extraversion, feeling, perceiving, sympathy and possibly intuitions while ineffective teachers exhibited high level of introversion, thinking, judging and hostility.

Singh, A.K. and Gupta, Alpana Sen (1996) studied some personality determinants of value and intelligence and concluded that:
• Neuroticism was found to be positively related with theoretical, aesthetic and religious values where as extraversion was found to be positively related with social, political and economic values.

• Females showed preference for aesthetic, social and religious values whereas males showed their preference for theoretical, political and economic values.

Stuber, Stephen Robert (1997) studied teaching behaviour viewed as a function of learning style and personality type: A comparison of experienced and less experienced instrumental music teachers with the purpose to investigate the nature of the relationship between teacher learning style, personality type and selected teaching behaviours of instrumental music teachers.

Subjects were 20 band directors equally divided into the groups of experienced high school, less experienced high school, experienced middle school, and less experienced middle school. Major findings included:

• Experienced teachers used more complete patterns of instruction.

• Less experienced teachers disciplined their students more frequently and for longer periods of time than experienced teachers.

• Teachers with abstract learning styles used analogies, modeled with their voices and used illustrators.

• 70% of experienced teachers were introverted while 70% of the less experienced teachers were extraverted.

• Introverted teachers were more approving while Extraverted teachers were more disapproving.

Hettleman, Daniel Ira (1998) investigated the relationship between peer status and conformity behaviour in 4th and 5th grade children. 188 children (80% caucasian, primarily low middle SES) from 16 public school classrooms were preferences, and social goals and concerns 20 peer-accepted and 19 peer-rejected subjects were subsequently brought to the laboratory for a conformity task. Results showed that overall, rejected and accepted children both conformed a greater deal (58%) but neither group was statistically more likely to conform than the other.

Saini, Saroj (1998) in the study self-esteem of student teachers as related to their personality, creativity and Attitude towards teaching profession found that:
• Self-esteem was not influenced either by low scores or traits of factor E of personality test (16 PF) i.e. aggressive, stubborn, hostile, extrapunitive and authoritarian.

• Student-teachers having positive attitude towards teaching profession also had high self-esteem. Honkatuki, Paivi Maritta (2000) in his study analysed gender, social control and crime. The conformity behaviour of girls. The results of the survey suggested that the

• The connections between life-style and delinquent activity were similar for boys and girls.

• Peer oriented life-style and increasing distance from parental control seem to increase criminal activity.

• Whereas home oriented life-style reduced such activity. However a peer oriented life-style was more common among boys than among girls in this group. The results revealed four features, which girls conform to negotiate contest in their everyday practices.

• The normative view of a female body.

• A girl’s sexual reputation.

• Interdependency in relationships

• Normal woman hood.


• Relationship between self acceptance and theoretical values, economic values, social values, political values and religious values was negative and insignificant.

• Extraversion dimension of personality was found to be positively and significantly related to self-acceptance.

• Intraversion trait of personality was negatively related to self-acceptance of student-teachers.
Chauhan, Kalpana (2001) studied impact of women oriented TV programmes on the conformity behaviour of school going adolescent girls. Sample of 150 adolescent girls was drawn from 9th class. Conclusions drawn were:

- The adolescent girls of Govt.-Schools showed higher conformity behaviour than those of private schools.
- The adolescent girls studying in Govt.-Schools, Model-Schools and Private-Schools showed moderate conformity behaviour.

Conformity behaviour was found more in adolescent girls, who watched women oriented TV programmes regularly and rarely as compared to adolescent girls who watched women oriented TV programmes sometimes.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROBLEM

The greatest need of today is that man in his mad race in pursuit of transient materialistic gains and objectives, should, at least occasionally, pause and reflect on the real purpose and value of human life and give a fresh orientation to his view of life based on such introspective reflections. If this were done one should have no difficulty to realise that amongst all living species, the human being occupies a special and exalted place by reason of his alone being endowed with powers of reason and discrimination aided by a discerning intellect and faculties of analytical thinking, assimilation and recollection.

There is nothing in our constitution which prohibits the inclusion of properly broad-based moral and spiritual instruction geared to the cultivation and development of a proper sense of values in the minds of the students in the educational programme of this country. The educational systems in India and almost everywhere in the world are miserably failing to work for the spiritual, moral and social upliftment of men. Third world (including India) is worried about what is called value-deterioration or value-crisis from which they are suffering. Values are the pillars on which the citadel of style-of-life is built. Student teaching is an important part of the preservice phase of teacher education. Student teaching provides an opportunity for integrating the prospective teachers preparation in subject matter fields with his preparation in the foundations of education.
Values are inherent in the content and instructional activities which take place in the instructional climate of some institutions appears more prone to value inculcation as compared to others.

Those who feel concerned with national good are looking forward with great hope towards value oriented teacher training. It is hoped that value oriented teachers will solve many of the problems of education as also confirmed by NCERT and NCTE. Hence the problem was framed as follows.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

IMPACT OF REPETITIVE VALUE CLARIFYING TRAILS ON TEACHING RELATED VALUES AND TEACHING BEHAVIOUR OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study was delimited with respect to the following aspects:

- The sample was drawn from two colleges of education from Chandigarh only, Govt. College of Education, Sector-20, Chandigarh and Dev Samaj College of Education, Sector-36, Chandigarh.
- Study was confined only to teaching related values which were reflected through the course-content.
- Only one strategy viz: Strategy of clarifying response was used for experimental treatment.
- The treatment was also analysed with respect to
  - attitude towards teaching of prospective teachers.
  - conforming behaviour and stubbornness of prospective teachers.

OBJECTIVES

The study was conducted to attain the following objectives:

- To identify course specific values through content analysis and categorise them into Personal and Social, Teaching behaviour related values.
- To inculcate course specific values through successive trials of clarifying response strategy of value inculcation.
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

• To study the effect of successive trails of clarifying response strategy on value preference patterns of one trial, two trials, three trials and four trials groups.
• To study the effect of clarifying response strategy on teaching behaviour of prospective teachers of experimental and control groups.
• To study the effect of clarifying response strategy on teaching behaviour of prospective teachers of one trial group, two trials group, three trials group and four trials group.
• To study the effect of clarifying response strategy on teaching behaviour of Stubborn/Conforming prospective teachers.
• To study the effect of clarifying response strategy on teaching behaviour of prospective teachers, with high and low attitudes towards teaching.

HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were formulated and tested in the study:

H0.1 The rank ordering on Personal Values of experimental group and control group will not be significantly different before implementing value clarifying treatment.

H0.2 The rank ordering pattern on Social Value of experimental group and control group will not be significantly different before implementing value clarifying treatment.

H0.3 The rank ordering on Personal Values of prospective teachers of experimental and control group will not be significantly different after value clarifying treatment.

H0.4 The rank ordering on Social Values of prospective teachers of experimental and control group will not be significantly different after value clarifying treatment.

H0.5 The rank ordering on Personal Values of prospective teachers of experimental group will not be significantly different at pre-treatment and post-treatment stage.

H0.6 The rank ordering on Social Values of prospective teachers of experimental group will not be significantly different before and after the treatment.

H0.7 The rank ordering on Personal Values of prospective teachers of control group will not be significantly different before and after the session.
Ho.8 The rank ordering on Social Values of prospective teachers of control group will not be significantly different before and after the session.

Ho.9 The rank ordering on Personal Values of prospective teachers getting One Trial of treatment will not be significantly different at pre-treatment and post-treatment stage.

Ho.10 The rank ordering on Social Values of prospective teachers getting One Trial of treatment will not be significantly different at pre-treatment and post-treatment stage.

Ho.11 The rank ordering on Personal Values of prospective teachers getting two trials of treatment will not be significantly different at pre-treatment and post-treatment stage.

Ho.12 The rank ordering on Social Values of prospective teachers getting two trials of treatment will not be significantly different at pre-treatment and post-treatment stage.

Ho.13 The rank ordering on Personal Values of prospective teachers getting Three Trials of treatment will not be significantly different at pre-treatment and post-treatment stage.

Ho.14 The rank ordering on Social Values of prospective teachers getting Three Trials of treatment will not be significantly different at pre-treatment and post-treatment stage.

Ho.15 The rank ordering on Personal Values of prospective teachers getting Four Trials of treatment will not be significantly different at pre-treatment and post-treatment stage.

Ho.16 The rank ordering on Social Values of prospective teachers getting Four Trials of treatment will not be significantly different at pre-treatment and post-treatment stage.

Ho.17 The prospective teachers belonging to experimental group do not differ on various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.

Ho.18 The prospective teachers belonging to control group do not differ on various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.
Ho. 19 The prospective teachers belonging to One Trial group do not differ in various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.

Ho. 20 The prospective teachers belonging to Two Trials group of experimental group do not differ in various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.

Ho. 21 The prospective teachers belonging to Three Trials group do not differ in various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.

Ho. 22 The prospective teachers belonging to Four Trials group of experimental group do not differ in various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.

Ho. 23 The Conforming prospective teachers belonging to experimental group will not differ on various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.

Ho. 24 The Stubborn prospective teachers belonging to experimental group will not differ on various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.

Ho. 25 The prospective teachers with High Attitude Towards Teaching belonging to experimental group will not differ on various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.

Ho. 26 The prospective teachers with Low Attitude Towards Teaching belonging to experimental group will not differ on various behavioural indices for pre-treatment and post-treatment classroom observations.