Chapter One
Introduction
Introduction

The old concept of human nature and its limitations is giving way to new knowledge which indicates the possibilities and growth of all individuals. Research in biology, medicine, anthropology, psychology, and in education itself opens up new hopes and aspirations in the area of human growth and development. Creativity becomes more important than moulding individuals to conformity. The new discoveries challenge all engaged in educational work to face the implications courageously. Scientific findings combined with philosophic contemplation and analysis of the nature of democracy further sharpen the challenge and task of education. The administration and supervision of schools, and the setting for learning must be changed basically and radically.

Supervision is one of the most important aspects of education with a long history. As soon as the schools were established, some sort of check to keep up their efficiency at a reasonable level was considered necessary. In course of time, it developed certain distinct features suiting the requirements of the educational set-up in particular, and the needs of the other aspects of public life in general.
The Development of Supervision in Thailand

Thailand is a developing country. The influence of American education is visible on academic practices prevailing in the country. The concept of supervision in Thailand is quite similar to that in America.

Jitphewngam (1972) studied the development of supervision in Thailand. He found that in 1887, supervision was controlling and directing the teacher's performance on the basis of inspection. In 1900, supervision was done to inspect the teachers for controlling, directing and helping them for better teaching-learning process. In 1933, supervision was being used to encourage the people in a school system to supervise each other. It was not limited to any one person or to individuals called "supervisor". Any member of the school staff could assist the teachers in academic practices. In 1948, the trend of supervision was changed. Supervision became supporting and sharing. The authority of supervisor's position was not of an education director and inspector. In 1956, supervision included multi-phasic roles like academic consultative service to the administrative officers; conducting in-service training courses; carrying on experimental programmes, research studies; increasing knowledge and learning resources for serving teachers without the directorate and inspectorate. In 1966, supervisor was an
officer under the Act of Elementary Education Legislation of Thailand but the policy of work and function were the same as in 1956.

Utranant (1986) reported that the knowledge of supervision has been developed intensively in the last two decades. In 1971, Chulalongkorn was the first University that taught supervision and curriculum development as a subject at M.Ed. level. In 1957, Silapakorn was second University that taught curriculum and supervision at M.A. level. After this, supervision was added in the syllabus of educational administration and also in the in-service training courses of the administrators and concerned persons. Consequently, there has been an evolution of the concept of supervision in theory as well in practice.

Nowadays, supervision is an important part of the national education system. The Ministry of Education contributes the supervisory programmes in the schools. The individualized supervision has been organized in every school from kindergarten to high school. Supervision has been rapidly advanced in the past few years. Today, supervision is a service of teachers, both as an individual and in group. Leadership, human-relationship, and group process have been established
and maintained through supervisory programmes for improving all factors involved in pupil learning.

The Comparative Development of Supervision in America and Thailand

The comparative development of supervision in America and Thailand has been given below (Wiles, 1967; Jitphewngam, 1972):

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<td>In 1910-1920, supervision was directing and checking up to see whether or not people had done as they were directed</td>
<td>In 1887, supervision was controlling and directing on the basis of inspection</td>
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<td>In 1930 emphasize was on &quot;democratic supervision for supervising&quot;; it would be possible to substitute such phrases as helping each other, or talking with each other, planning with each other, or talking with each other about how to improve teaching-learning situation.</td>
<td>In 1933, supervision was encouraging the people in a school system, supervising each other for academic practices.</td>
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<td>In 1957 supervision was concerned with special subjects such as arithmetic, science, foreign languages etc.</td>
<td>In 1948, supervision was supporting and sharing (without the role of inspection) for a better teaching-learning situation.</td>
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<td>In 1956, supervision became academic consultative services of administrative officers; providing in-service training courses concerned with experimental programmes and research studies for serving teachers. The position of the supervisor was not of an administrator.</td>
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In 1970 supervision was based on cooperative educational leadership. Supervisors and teachers worked together for developing new ideas or making decision in specialized areas such as curriculum development and selection of learning resources.

By 1971 supervision had been developed intensively. The knowledge of supervision was being given in the university as a subject. The individualized supervision was organized in very school at every level from kindergarten to high school.

Concept and Definition of Supervision

Harris (1975), stated that supervision like any complex part, of an even more complex enterprise, can be viewed in various ways and inevitably is. The diversity of perspectives stems not only from organizational complexity but also from lack of information and absence of perspective. To provide perspective, at least, the total school operation must be the point of departure for analyzing instructional supervision as its major function. Harris (1963), mentions five major functions of the school operation. One of these is supervision. According to Wiles (1967), supervision is all the activities that contribute to the improvement of the instruction and programme of a school system. These activities are related to morale, improving human relations, in-service education, and curriculum development. Many people with a variety of roles are involved in supervision, like curriculum
directors, resource people, principals, and leaders among the teachers.

Supervision has been defined in various ways both in content and specificity:

Good (1959) defines supervision as all efforts of designated school officials directed toward providing leadership to teachers and other educational workers in the improvement of instruction. It involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, the selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of instruction, and method of teaching and the evaluation of instruction.

Wiles (1967), states that supervision is service which helps teachers to better their job.

In Harris's terms (1975), supervision is what school personnel do with adults and things for the purpose of maintaining or changing the operation of the school in order to directly influence the attainment of the major instructional goals of the school.

According to Oliva (1976) supervision is the process of helping teachers to improve both the instruction and the curriculum.
In addition supervision in all school programmes is used to enable the teachers to increase their effectiveness for the improvement of their instruction.

Types of Supervision
General Supervision

General supervision today seems as that dimension of the teaching profession which is concerned with improving instructional effectiveness. Nearly all definitions state or imply that supervision is the task assigned to certain school employees, whether in a line or staff relationship to class-room teacher, to stimulate staff growth and development of staff to influence teacher's behaviour in the class room and to foster the selection development use and evaluation of good instructional approaches and materials. Some definitions particularly stress upon the role of communication skills in supervision. In recent years, there has emerged a strong emphasis upon helping the teacher with problem-solving, with the creation of a more human atmosphere to surround the children and the adults who teach them (Wiles and Lovell 1975).
Traditional and Modern Supervision

Barr et al. (1947), mention two types of supervision: (1) Traditional supervision and (2) Modern supervision.

Traditional Supervision

This type of supervision has centered round the teacher and the class-room act and has been based largely on the thought that teachers being lamentably undertrained, need careful direction and training. Visiting the class-room conferences and teachers' meeting were the bulk of supervision and in many minds synonymous with supervision.

Modern Supervision

In contrast modern supervision is far more fundamental and diverse. Its characteristics may be summarized as follows:

1. Modern supervision directs attention toward the fundamentals of education and orients learning and its improvement within the general aim of education.

2. The aim of supervision is the improvement of the total teaching-learning process, the total setting for learning rather than the narrow and limited aim of improving teachers in service.
3. The focus on a situation not on a person or group of persons. All persons are co-workers aiming at the improvement of a situation. One group is not superior to the other, operating to "improve" the inferior group.

4. The teacher is removed from his embarrassing position as the focus of attention and the weak link in the educational process. He assumes his rightful position as a co-operating member of a total group concerned with the improvement of learning.

According to the new concept of supervision, more attention is centered on the aim, structure, and fundamental processes of education and less on the minute, specific, day-to-day devices for the improvement of trivial aspects of classroom procedure. With improved levels of teacher and supervisor training, the invention, selection, administration, and application of devices should become more and more a question of individual initiative based on understanding of basic principles. The sphere of modern supervision encompasses all elements affecting learning.

The salient differences between the two types of supervision:

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<td>1. Inspection</td>
<td>1. Study and analysis</td>
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<td>2. Teachers focused</td>
<td>2. Aim, material, method, teacher, pupil, and environment focused</td>
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Traditional Modern

3. Visitation and conference
4. Random and haphazard or a meager formal plan
5. Impose and authoritarian
6. One person usually

3. Many diverse functions
4. Definitely organized and planned
5. Derived and collaborative
6. Many persons

Instructional Supervision

Instructional supervision is a subset of supervision. Even supervision has received varied interpretations so that the role of the supervisor is not consistent between and sometimes within school systems, and instructional supervision in public school is constrained by the very nature of the subject. Though seemingly a plausible term instructional supervision has not in the past been adequately defined. It may be appropriate to seek a more current view:

Eye and Netzer (1965), define supervision of instruction as that phase of school administration which focuses primarily on the achievement of the appropriate instructional expectations of educational systems.

The Tasks of Instructional Supervision

Harris (1963), describes instructional supervision as a major function that can be divided into
ten distinct major tasks.

Task 1: Developing Curriculum

Designing or redesigning that which it to be taught by whom when, where and in what pattern. Developing curriculum guides, establishing standards, and developing instructional units or courses are examples of programmes related to this task.

Task 2: Organizing for Instruction

Making organizational arrangements to implement the curriculum design grouping students and planning class schedules are examples of programmes related to this task.

Task 3: Staffing

Selecting and assigning the appropriate instructional staff members to appropriate activities in the organization. Programmes related to this task include recruitment, screening, testing and maintaining personnel records.

Task 4: Providing Facilities

Designing and equipping appropriate facilities for effective use by instructional staff members. This includes programmes for school building planning and developing educational specifications for equipment.

Task 5: Providing Materials

Identifying, evaluating, selecting and securing utilization of materials for instruction that make for efficient and effective instruction.

Task 6: Arranging for In-service Education

Arranging for activities which will promote the growth of instructional staff members to make them more efficient and more effective.
Task 7: Orienting New Staff Members

Providing new staff members with necessary information and understandings to maximize their chances of initial success with a minimum difficulties. This is closely related to in-service education.

Task 8: Relating Special Services

Relating the special service programmes to the major instructional goals of the school. This involves indentifying those services which have the greatest contributions to make the instructional programme developing policies and working relationships which facilitate instruction, and organizing for the maximum utilization of special service staff competencies for instruction.

Task 9: Developing Public Relations

Developing relationships with the public in relation to instructional matters. This task is concerned with informing, securing assistance and avoiding undesirable influences from the public in relation to the instructional programme.

Task 10: Evaluating

Planning organizing and implementing activities for the evaluation of all facets of the educational process directly related to instruction.

All activities of supervision may be put under one or more of these major tasks. These are not mutually exclusive categories of tasks, but they do provide a structure for analyzing supervision as a major function.
Clinical Supervision

Another type in the area of instructional supervision which has drawn the attention of the researchers is the clinical supervision.

The purpose of instructional supervision is to facilitate learning of pupils. Adequate instructional supervision therefore is concerned with making provision for all of the conditions which are essential to effective learning through effective teaching.

Effective teaching and effective learning concern with teaching learning behaviour of teachers and students. Almost all of the teaching learning activities are performed in the classroom because teachers and students have to spend their time for establishing a learning goal in the classroom and work toward that goal.

To accomplish improvement in the teacher’s classroom instruction, clinical supervision is of paramount importance.
Clinical Supervision Defined

Cogan (1973), defines clinical supervision as the rational practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor on the basis of the programme procedures, and strategies is designed to improve the students learning improving the teachers classroom behaviour.

Flanders (1976), sees clinical supervision as a special case of teaching in which at least two persons are concerned with the improvement of teaching and at least one of the individuals is a teacher whose performance is to be studied. It seeks to stimulate some change in teaching to show that a change did in fact take place and to compare the old and new patterns of instruction in ways that will give a teacher useful insight into the instructional process.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979), say that clinical supervision refers to face to face encounters with teacher about teaching usually in classroom with double barrelled intent of professional development and improvement of instruction.
Goldhammer et al. (1980), mention that clinical supervision is that phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face interaction of teaching behaviours and activities for instructional improvement.

Operational Definition of the Clinical Supervision

In this study, the investigator has used the term clinical supervision as the supervisory activities which have been practiced by the heads of the department who acted as supervisors and the teachers in selected subject areas viz. Thai language, social studies, and science subject for the improvement of instruction and students' learning. In addition, it involves relationship between teacher and supervisor based on mutual trust, understanding and commitment for personal and professional growth of teachers. The investigator followed Goldhammer's Model of the clinical supervision which involved data analysis of teacher performance through supervisors' direct observation of class-room teaching in accordance with the cycle of supervision i.e. pre-observation conference, observation, analysis
Goals of Clinical Supervision

On the basis of the concept of clinical supervision, the goals of clinical supervision are:

1. Improvement of instruction afforded to pupils through change of teacher's behaviour.
2. Developing of self-concept in the teacher and the feeling of security in teaching.
3. To provide clinical assistance dealing with specific exceptional problem situations.
4. To improve teacher's class-room performance.
5. To develop in-service growth of the teacher.
6. To develop intellectual curiosity in the teacher.

The Characteristics of Clinical Supervision

The clinical supervision is:

1. A technology for improving instruction.
2. A working relationship between teacher and supervisor.
3. It is goal-oriented, combining school and personal growth need of teachers.
4. It requires mutual trust, as reflected in understanding, support, and commitment for growth.
The Components of Clinical Supervision

1. Observation
2. Analysis
3. Conferencing
4. Feedback for the teacher and supervisor

Techniques Used in Clinical Supervision and Class-room Observation

Observation is a fundamental element in clinical supervision. In a sense, observation creates opportunities for supervisors to help teachers test rightly depending on their own perceptions and judgement about their teaching.

One of the well-known class-room observational instrument as a research tool was developed by Flanders (1963) for the observer to record on an ongoing basis, the actual events taking place in the class-room, known as Flanders's Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC). The teacher and supervisor may use Flanders's systematic observation in analyzing teacher behaviour, investigating pupil-teacher interaction patterns, quantifying verbal behaviour, and studying the relationship between identified teaching styles and pupil
More recently structured observation were used by Chissom (1987) to observe the work behaviour of elementary school teachers. In this study, the teachers were observed in the class-room by a single observer for five days a week.

Peterson et al. (1987), developed Florida Performance Measurement System (FPMS), as a measure of teacher's class-room behaviour followed by systematic evaluation, (analysis of data) and feedback for the teachers on their performance. The FPMS can be used as summative instrument as screening device to identify deficient areas of teacher performance. These areas can then be observed with formative instrument which provide more specific information leading to accurate feedback and remedial assistance.

The Clinical Supervision Model

Goldhammer et al. (1980), present the basic model that refers to the sequence of clinical supervision. A collection of such sequences is called the cycle of supervision. A sequence of clinical supervision consists of the following five stages each with separate
and distinct rationale and purposes:

Stage 1: The Pre-observation Conference

This stage is mainly intended to provide a mental and procedural framework for the supervisory sequence to follow. It serves the following purposes:

1.1 To confirm and nurture the teacher-supervisor relationship
1.2 To understand teacher's frame of reference and to establish the goals for teaching, for modifying plans according to concepts existing in the supervisor's frame of reference. (In this process, the supervisor learns just what the teacher has in mind, and the teacher is able to test and increase the self-fluency by verbalizing ideas to supervisor)
1.3 To rehearse the teaching instructional behaviour (lesson plan of action)
1.4 To create an opportunity for last-minute revisions in the lesson plan
1.5 To reach explicit agreements about reason for supervision to occur in the immediate situation and about how supervision should operate

Stage 2: Observation

The supervisor observes the lesson for creating opportunities to help teachers in various ways as follows:
2.1 To be in close proximity with the teacher and the pupil when salient problems of professional practice are being enacted

2.2 To analyse the lesson with respect to the problems identified beforehand if they emerge afresh

2.3 To provide a model of systematic observation for the teacher when opportunities to observe other teachers arise

2.4 To help teachers test reality of their own preceptions and judgements about their teaching, for independent objective self analysis by ascertaining whether supervisor's observations tend to confirm or oppose his own

Stage 3: The Analysis and Strategy

The purposes for analysis and strategy are as follows:

3.1 To make sense out of the observational data, and to make them intelligible and manageable

3.2 To plan the management of the supervision conference to follow, that is to determine what issues to treat, which data to cite, what goals to aim for, how to begin, where to end, and who should do what. The plan should culminate in behaviour that teacher finds useful. The analysis provides possibilities for teacher to be vigorously engaged in examination of teacher's work and to function autonomously rather than dependently in framing decisions that effect the work

The strategy exists for the sake of efficiency:

3.3 To motivate the teacher to feel that teaching is important. To provide continuity in supervision

3.4 To invest teacher's confidence in supervision
To develop self-strategies of the teacher before the conference is to enable the teacher to compose ideas beforehand.

Stage 4: The Supervision Conference

This conference is held:

4.1 To help the supervisor test impressions of the teacher's condition, and to plan for future teaching

4.2 To serve simply as a time to offer reassurances and to make decisions about what should happen next

4.3 To train the teacher in the techniques for self-supervision

4.4 To provide sources for rewards for the teacher's work

4.5 To deal with an array of factors that may affect teacher's vocational satisfaction, and the attainment of technical competency

Stage 5: The Post-conference Analysis

This stage provides for analysing the supervisor's practical behaviour as rigorously as the teacher's professional behaviour analysed, after the supervision conference is over.

Recent Research Studies in Clinical Supervision

Systematic research in the field of clinical supervision has come up only recently:

Mayfield (1983), investigated the effect of clinical supervision on pupil achievement in reading. The result revealed that there were differences between
the clinical supervision and non-clinical supervision group. The clinical supervision group scored higher on the reading composition test.

Powel (1983), explored the relationship existing between clinical supervision and certain teaching attitudes. He found that where clinical supervision was successfully implemented, carefully monitored, and supported by the central office administration, attitudes of teachers were more positive toward supervision. Teachers believed that the supervision was useful.

Gerald (1984), conducted a case study of the implementation of the Hunter Clinical Supervision Model for judging instructional effectiveness. He found the implementation of the Hunter Model had a positive impact on teachers' and principals' acquisition of knowledge and refinement of their teaching skills.

Cameron (1985), examined the relationship between clinical and traditional supervision models and teacher need strength. One of the interesting results found was that clinical supervision helped the lower-order, and teachers' desire to improve their teaching skills. The
higher-order-need teachers continue their desire for professional development.

Davie (1986), found that schools that were not using clinical supervision, when compared to those that were, had a greater discrepancy between the perceptions of principals and teachers regarding the performance of instructional supervisory activities. He concluded that schools using clinical supervision got the benefits on support, observation, and feedback activities.

Gibson (1986), assessed the effectiveness of clinical supervision. He found that instructional behaviour of the teacher improved after exposure to clinical supervision.

Foley (1987), studied the relationship between attitudes towards clinical supervision and effective teaching behaviours. The finding revealed that if an organization supported staff development of instructional and supervisory skills for both teachers and supervisors, clinical supervision had a greater opportunity to achieve improvement of instruction.
There is another research study by Mauser (1987). The purpose of this study was to examine the predictive validity of the teacher perceiver interview as related to teacher effectiveness as judged by the teacher's immediate supervisor. The findings showed that the elementary teacher proved to be more child-oriented, while the junior high and senior high teachers were judged to be more subject-oriented by their supervisors.

Noriega (1988), studied the improvement of teacher performance in order to identify the teacher's strengths and weaknesses. The study also measured the feelings of self-efficacy of teachers which refers to the extent which teachers believe that they have the capacity to affect student performance. Findings revealed that high-gain teachers rated themselves significantly higher than their supervisors rated them on 18 out of 25 effective teaching criteria.

It also appears that high-gain teachers have a strong belief that they have control of factors that influence students' successes and failures in the classroom.

Didham (1988), measured the effect of a computerized supervisory feedback system on student
teacher at Bowling Green State University. Results from the study indicate that student teachers were already in the higher developmental stages (of content and pupil awareness) at the beginning of their student teaching experience and remained thereafter ten weeks of student teaching. For the control group, no differences were found in any of the other areas of pupil, self, or content awareness.

Steinhaus (1988), studied clinical and non-clinical supervision practices in Wyoming Schools for the purpose to recommend supervisory practices that would improve teaching and learning. From an analysis of the data, the following conclusions can be drawn: (1) Teachers who experience clinical supervision are more satisfied with supervision they received than teachers who did not receive clinical supervision; (2) Teachers who had non-clinical supervision did not their individual teaching performance higher than teachers who had clinical supervision and (3) There is evidence that clinical supervision was more effective than non-clinical supervision.

Bartlett (1988), determined the perceived
effects of clinical supervision on the perceived professional self-worth (professionalism) of the elementary school teachers.

The results revealed that the professional self-worth of elementary school teachers could be enhanced using clinical supervision. Teachers who were clinically supervised, perceived themselves as more effective and altered their teaching styles as a result of clinical supervision.

The researcher concluded that clinical supervision can be used to affect professional self-worth of teachers, to cause teachers to change their teaching strategies. Additionally, more clinical supervision conferences increase the sense of professional self-worth and perceived effectiveness up to a maximum 9-12 conferences.

Belgrad (1988), in his study of effective teachers' pedagogical knowledge and decision-making practice, found that the effective teachers largely credited their continuing education course work or in-service training, combined with clinical experiences, as most resourceful in developing their skills as instructional decision makers. These teachers
identified in-service education in the theoretical areas, integrated with a programme of clinical supervision, as being of the greatest importance in their professional development.

Research findings on clinical supervision, reflect that the clinical supervision practices affect the improvement of instruction which refers to the professional growth of the teacher and student achievement.

Teacher Effectiveness

Despite an enormous amount of available literature on the subject of teacher effectiveness, no universally acceptable definition can be given to an "effective teacher".

Undoubtedly, there have been both good and poor teachers since the beginning of man's social life. The number of competent teachers in the schools today probably is sizable. But since usually very little is known about such teachers or what makes them effective professional education has not been able to take advantage of an understanding of their characteristics.
and modes of performance to the goal of improving teacher training and teacher selection procedures.

True, it may be said that teaching is effective to the extent that the teacher acts in ways that are favourable to the development of basic skills understanding work-habits, desirable attitudes, value judgements and adequate personal adjustment of the pupils. But even such an operational definition is general and abstract and is not easily translated to teachers' behaviours.

Barr (1952), enumerated teacher effectiveness by remarking that teacher effectiveness may be essentially a relationship between teachers, pupils and the other persons concerned with the educational understanding all effected by limiting and facilitating aspects of the immediate situation.

Remmer's (1952), definition of effectiveness is the degree to which an agent produces effect, as an object effects on (a) pupils, (b) school operation, (c) the school community. Effect on pupils has long been accepted as relevant criterion dimension of successful teacher. Pupil's growth change, development learning and the like had often been considered as the ultimate
criteria of successful teacher. But the effect of school 
operation and community had not have similar accuracy as 
criterion of teacher effectiveness.

Mitzel (1955), states the task of identifying 
effective teachers or effective teaching is crucial to 
the teacher education, certification selection and 
promotion in so far as teaching contributes to the 
social welfare to ultimate human survival.

Flanders and Simon (1969), define teacher 
effectiveness as an area of research which is concerned 
with relationships between the characteristics of 
teachers, teaching acts and their effects on the 
educational outcomes of class-room teaching.

From the above points of view of different 
authors, one may conclude that the concept of teacher 
effectiveness is a multi-dimensional factor. A single 
factor is not an index of a teacher being effective or 
ineffective.

Research in teacher effectiveness has a number of 
recurrant themes restricted elements of which are 
usually part of every study performed in the area. The 
core theme assumes that a teacher's knowledge, attitudes
or other characteristics are correlated with the teacher's class-room teaching process which, in turn, effects changes in student behavior and/or achievement.

Alexander and Saylor (1950), surveyed pupils' reactions to teachers and made analytical studies of good teaching. The following important factors of a good teacher have emerged which relate with: (1) job satisfaction, (2) personality, (3) interpersonal relationship with students and other people, (4) attitudes toward students, (5) professional attitudes, (6) methods of teaching, (7) class-room climate, and (8) professional development.

Van Dalen and Brittell (1959), feel that a teacher works with a different personality and must conduct himself properly with each of them. Therefore, a great degree of the effectiveness should be observed in the teacher's relationship with (1) pupils, (2) parent, (3) community, (4) administrator, and (5) colleagues.

Hamachek (1971), suggests one more of the following dimensions of teacher personality and behaviour for the appropriate investigation of teacher effectiveness: (1) personal characteristics, (2)
instructional procedures and interaction styles, (3) perception of self and (4) perception of others should be investigated for teacher effectiveness.

Ongley (1975) found that some students praised a highly conscientious teacher who covered the syllabus thoroughly in well planned lectures.

Scott (1977), explored some parameters of teacher effectiveness. The findings indicate that effective and ineffective teachers show objective and quantifiable behavioural differences both in terms of the structure and quality of their behaviour. An effective teacher's behaviour appears to be organized into longer, more continuous, more smoothly flowing wholes than does that of an less effective teacher.

Dimensions of Teacher Effectiveness

The review of researches in teacher effectiveness, reveals that there are many components and characteristics of teacher effectiveness, which may be summarised as: job satisfaction; personality; interpersonal relationship with students and other people; attitudes toward students; professional attitudes; method of teaching; class-room climate; professional
development; teacher's relation with pupils, parent, community, administrator, and colleagues; personal characteristics; instructional procedures and interaction styles; perception of self; perception of others; well-prepared course and well-planned lecture; quality of teachers' behaviour.

Operational Definition of Teacher Effectiveness

Review of the researches on teacher effectiveness with regard to the dimensions and characteristics provided an insight to the investigator to define the concept of teacher effectiveness. Teacher effectiveness is multi-dimensional phenomenon. It includes such common dimensions as planning and mastery of the subject matter; method of teaching rewards and punishment; motivation to facilitate learning experience; evaluation; classroom organization; classroom climate; attitude towards students; interpersonal relationship with colleagues, with parents; attitude towards profession; job satisfaction; and motivation for personal and professional growth. All these dimensions reflect the teacher effectiveness and the same have been used in the present research.
Research on Various Dimensions of Teacher Effectiveness

Attitude towards Students

Good teaching involves close teamwork between the teacher and the class. Effective learning does not occur unless a feeling of mutual respect exists in the classroom. The teacher should inspire students, and work with them to create and maintain a pleasant attractive learning environment, free from tension and confusion. Relation in such a classroom is always harmonious. The good teacher is cordial, cooperative, and honestly enthusiastic, but he always remains dignified and calm in his contact with students.

Lieberman (1956), mentions that the primary characteristic of a good teacher is to take a strong interest in children. It is often regarded as the foundation of teaching success.

Power (1971), studied the interaction of four male science teachers with 150 eight graders. He found that generally bright successful students were more frequently chosen to respond to the teacher and received more positive reinforcements than their classmates. Power also noted what he called 'Social alienation
syndrome' among students who had low general ability, were individualistic and were sensitive. These students tended to be seated at the rear of the class-room and were rarely called upon. These rejected students frequently received teacher praise when they did have an interaction with the teacher.

Halpin and Goldenberg (1973), studied the attitudes of the convergent and divergent undergraduate future teachers toward students. The results were found that the more divergent future teachers saw students as self-disiplining, provided close personal teacher-student relationships mutual friendship and respect. They also viewed learning and class-room behaviour in psychological rather than moralistic terms and they felt that teacher-student interaction should be a two-way channel. They stressed flexibility in status and rules, a democratic class-room climate, and the importance of the individual. In contrast, the convergent student teachers were more authoritarian, more pessimistic, more likely to prefer impersonal rather than highly personal relationships, and more likely to view behaviour in moralistic terms rather than to try to understand it.
These research studies may not directly concern with the attitudes toward students, but the information is useful for the teachers in the ways they approach teaching and act in the classroom.

Interpersonal Relationship with Colleagues and Parents

A fully effective teacher establishes agreeable relationships with school supervisors, administrators, colleagues, and parents. Mutual understanding and respect eliminate many unnecessary irritations that breed faculty friction, and make it easier to develop and overall school climate that give the maximum learning experiences to students. Also, the effectiveness of many methods of teaching is dependent upon cooperative relationship with the home.

Ryan's (1960), reported several studies which are in agreement when it comes to sorting out the differences between how good and poor teachers view others.

He found, among other things, that outstandingly 'good' teachers rated significantly higher than notably 'poor' teachers in at least five different ways with
respect to how they view others. The good teacher had:
(1) more favourable opinions of students, (2) of
democratic class-room behaviour (3) of administrators
and colleagues, (4) a greater expressed liking for
personal contacts with other people, (5) and more
favourable estimates of others. They expressed the
belief that very few students have behaviour problems,
very few people can be influenced in their opinions and
attitudes toward others by feeling of jealousy, and that
most teachers are willing to assume their full share of
extra duties outside of school.

Attitude towards Teaching Profession

Attitude towards teaching profession means the
teacher's interest in his profession in working with
people. The influence of interest should be much
stronger than his transitory desire 'to teach' or to
earn money on graduation. It should be rooted in a long
record of concern for others, of good working
relationships with persons of all age groups. If the
teacher is highly interested in the teaching profession,
he must strive to raise professional standard, feel
contended and satisfied with the profession. He will
enjoy teaching.
There are studies which report the correlations between attitudes and various aspects of teaching.

Buch (1959), surveyed the attitudes of teachers toward the teaching profession. The results indicated that in general training has a favourable effect on the attitude of teachers toward their job. It was found that the women graduates are favourably disposed than men graduates.

Coladarci (1959), reported that those teachers who had over five years' teaching experience and upper class teachers held more favourable attitude towards the teaching than the less experienced, lower class teachers, rural teachers and men teachers.

Woodtke and Wallen (1965), state that teacher's attitude effects not only the behaviour of students but also their academic achievement.

Sharma and Singh (1972), found that teachers having greater period of service in education have less favourable attitude towards modern approach in teaching than new teachers. It was also revealed that teachers who attended seminars, workshops, referesh courses had more favourable attitude towards teaching than those
who are cut off from modern developments in education.

Quinn (1976), used five instruments to study the effect of achievement motivation training upon the self-concepts, attitudes, and perceptions of teachers. The results of teachers' attitudes toward their work showed that out of the fifteen individual items regarding tasks beyond contractual obligations that a teacher would willingly perform, twelve items showed changes in a positive direction while two of those items showed a statistically significant change at the .05 level or better.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as a worker's affective response to his total work role and is a measure of the fulfilment of motivating needs.

Wiles (1967), mentioned about teacher's job satisfaction that they must be most frequently concerned with: security and a comfortable living; pleasant working conditions; a sense of belonging; fair treatment; a sense of achievement and growth; recognition of contribution; participation in deciding
policy; and opportunity to maintain self-respect.

There are many research studies that show what makes a teacher satisfied with his job and his school.

Friedlander (1965), stressed the importance of achievement, recognition and challenging assignments as major aspects of job satisfaction.

Halpin (1966), stressed that the nature of work itself and the opportunity it affords for advancement as important factors.

Wolf (1967), considered achievement and advancement in addition to security as important in job satisfaction.

Provence (1979), studied the relationship between secondary school supervisors and teacher job satisfaction with 484 secondary school teachers. The results showed that supervisor's support was related with teacher's job satisfaction.

Dodds (1982), studied the relationship between teacher perception of job satisfaction and specific factors of teacher effectiveness. The result revealed a strong relationship between teacher effectiveness in the
Burke (1983), studied the relationship between the principal's leadership and the teacher's perception of organizational climate and job satisfaction. It was found that most of the school climates were perceived by the teachers as more closed than open. Additionally, most of the teachers were generally satisfied with their work, with their supervisors and their co-workers. Teachers were decidedly less satisfied with their pay. Finally, the openness of building climate was directly correlated to higher satisfaction scores.

Killah (1987), investigated the motivation of secondary school teachers based on Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory of job satisfaction and motivation. The results concerned with job satisfaction showed that the first three satisfiers were: (a) inter-personal relation with principal, (b) with students, and (c) with peers, other staff, and parents. In addition, older teachers were more satisfied and fulfilled than the younger ones.

Research evidences would be helpful to know how important the different components of the job are to the incumbent, and how satisfied the teacher is with each of the components if the teachers have positive
Motivation for Personal and Professional Growth

Motivation in education is very important because it is a significant factor contributing to achievement.

Maslow (1954), states that man's greatest motivation comes from within, in the desire to grow, to improve, and to fulfill himself as a human being.

Consequently, McClelland (1961), describes the motivation behaviour as being characterized by (1) moderate risk taking, as a function of skill rather than chance, (2) energetic or novel instrumental activity, (3) individual responsibility and accountability for behaviour, (4) the need for knowledge of results, and (5) anticipation of future possibilities.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983), feel that teachers with a strong need for achievement have much to contribute to school effectiveness. Therefore, the teacher who wants to succeed in teaching profession, must motivate oneself for professional growth.

Some research studies are available related to
the motivation for personal and professional growth.

Lawler (1973) suggests that work motivation is the relation between actual rewards for performance and perceived equitable rewards. This view predicts that when perceived equitable rewards exceed actual rewards dissatisfaction would result and vice versa.

Lortie (1975), notes that teachers do not have the educational experiences to enable the collegial support need to combat the negative influences of classroom isolation and uncertainties about personal teaching effectiveness. Strong student collegial groups organized to bolster enthusiasm and maintenance of each other's sense of efficacy could educate students in the development of collegial relationships. As suggested in McClelland's motivation change programme (1987), group support is crucial for the maintenance of motivation, and it could be a vital component of a teacher education programme dedicated to the development of teacher efficacy.

Ashton (1984), addresses the topic of teacher efficacy: a motivational paradigm effective teacher education. She defines 'teacher efficacy'. It refers to the extent to which teachers believe that they have the
capacity to effect student performance. She emphasizes that the concept of teacher efficacy should develop the teachers who possess the motivation essential for effective classroom performance.

Ellis (1987), explored the relationships among job design supervisory behaviour, and teacher motivation. The results revealed that teachers in the sample with high needs for growth and achievement saw greater meaning in their jobs and assumed greater responsibility for their jobs than did those with low growth needs. It was also found that teachers who perceived a high degree of presence of the core job dimensions were more internally motivated than those who did not.

These research findings indicate that motivation is a response in a person's needs to a specific goal that he seeks. The teachers with a strong need for achievement, have the potential to give fully and in a spirit of excellence to the school and its efforts. When the achievement motives are associated with the teachers, teaching effectiveness, and professional growth can be expected.
Criterion of Teacher Effectiveness

The term criterion refers to any set observations that may be used as standards for evaluative purpose. In this sense a criterion measure of teacher effectiveness is a basis used in assessing the ability of teaching on various dimensions which indicate the improvement of teacher's teaching efficiency and class-room teaching behaviour.

There are various methods and criteria suggested by researches of education for the assessment of teacher effectiveness.

Morsh and Wilder (1954), and Barr (1948), have classified teacher effectiveness criteria on the basis of methodology used in obtaining the criteria measurements, that are students' marks, principal's behaviour.

Killey and Fiske (1951), classified teacher effectiveness on the basis of product, process and presage criteria. Uptil now all the researchers on 'teacher effectiveness', have plunged towards the same product, process presage as criteria for assessing the teacher effectiveness. Discussion about the meaning of
each criterion and related studies are presented one by one.

Product: Product criteria depend upon teaching goals which are most economically stated in terms of change in student's behaviour. A phenomenon has also been observed that the effectiveness of teachers is judged by the results their students show in final examination. Hall (1964), says that fully certified teachers are more effective, when pupil achievement scores are used as criteria.

Remmers (1954), also proposed that teacher competence should be appraised in the light of teacher's effect on school operations as well as their effect on student learning. Rabinowitz and Travers (1953), Ryans (1949), and Remmers (1952), have given convincing argument in favour of assessing teaching effectiveness through such effects on students, as student gains, student growth or student changes, all of which involve measurement in change of student behaviour and some of which can be legitimately attributed to the impact of individual teachers.

Bloom (1954), have given an idea of the variety of such product criteria that suggest educational
outcomes in three domains i.e. cognition, affect, and psychomotor skills.

Johnson (1955), found a wide margin of error in evaluation and prediction of teacher effectiveness, despite the overwhelming attention of the research workers it had attracted.

Fattu (1962), lamented the measurement of commonly agreed upon teacher effectiveness criteria and concluded that studies using predictor or criteria of variables had reached a dead end since no relationships could be established between teacher characteristics and pupil outcomes.

Summing of all the above research studies, it comes to the light that the product criteria of teacher effectiveness is not a valid measure of teacher effectiveness. Except a few, a number of contradictory studies have revealed that there is no significant relationship between teacher characteristics and pupil outcomes.

Process: The process criteria are those aspects of teachers and students' behaviours which are believed to be worth while in their own right. They are described
and measured in the class-room in terms of conditions or typical situations involving the social interactions of teachers and students.

Process criteria obtained from observation of teachers' behaviours would be the extent to which the teachers discipline students effectively maintains rapport with students, or individualized instruction consistent with students' potentialities and achievement, which are desirable class-room characteristics. Neither teacher behaviour nor student behaviour alone can be studied as process criteria because interaction between teachers and students is the predominant aspect of the process of learning. In fact, teaching learning situation is so complicated that it is difficult to employ process criteria for evaluating teacher effectiveness.

Flanagan's (1961), method for the development of process criteria for teacher effectiveness hold promise. Process criteria obtained from observations of students' behaviours would be the extent to which students' exhibit affection for the teacher as alternative listeners or conformity to the class-room routines. Those who place process criteria ahead of product
criteria are, according to Ebel (1955), afraid of the possible findings that a new learning technique does not yield a better educational product than some old technique used for the same purpose.

Morrison (1966), found significant relationship between teacher influence and adjusted pupil achievement scores of language usage, social study skills, arithmetic computation, and problem solving and attitudes. Nelson (1964), found similar support in a study of learning linguistic skills.

Herman (1967), in study to determine the specific kinds and time lengths of activities in which three groups of fifth grade children viz. above average, average, and below average, were engaged from the time of social studies period began until it ended, attempted to assess the teacher-pupil verbal behaviour, which occurred during the observations. He found that the teachers of the above average group were indirect i.e. they use more praise, questions and acceptance of pupils' ideas than they used lecture, commands and criticism in their verbal behaviour patterns; the teachers of the average group were nearly neutral i.e. one direct statement in verbal behaviour patterns; and
the teachers of below average group were direct in their verbal behaviour patterns.

The review of above studies reflect that teacher's responsiveness, teacher's acceptance and use of student ideas or opinions, and flexibility of teacher influence in the class-room, are positively related to pupil achievement in different content areas, as well as a number of other outcome variables like attitude, independence and self-direction, verbal recall, creativity, incidence of thought provoking questions, manipulative skill etc. Therefore, process criteria is considered valuable for assessing the teacher effectiveness.

Presage: Presage criteria though far removed from the goals of education, are used in the bulk of research on teacher competence. Their relevance depend upon as assumed relationship to other criteria, either process or product. These criteria are somewhat away from the interplay of behaviour in the class-room. For instance, we may measure a teacher's intelligence, personality or emotions with precision. These traits must give rise to class-room behaviour, which in turn becomes the mediator of process and product criteria.
Ackerman (1954), discussed this point very well. Such concepts as teacher intelligence, personal adjustment, character and the like have come to stay as appropriate criteria for teacher effectiveness on the basis of their common sense appeal. Thus, it is common sense that prescribes that most effective teachers are the ones who are most intelligent, are well-adjusted, are emotionally mature and have the greatest strength of character.

Summing up the ideas concerned with the criteria of teacher effectiveness, it can be said that the most appropriate method of evaluating the effectiveness of a teacher is to observe him in action, that is, to see him when he is actually teaching in a class. In that situation, we can judge his intellectual efficiency, grasp of the subject matter, level of knowledge or achievement, power of communication, attitude towards students, quality of interaction with students, dealings with students which may be indicative of his personality traits. At the same time, we can observe student gains, changes in their behaviours and their reactions to the personality of the teachers. This method of evaluating teacher effectiveness, undoubtedly involves all the
three types of criteria that is product criteria, process criteria, and presage criteria.

Student Achievement as a Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness

It is a fact that student achievement is an indirect indication of teacher effectiveness. If the teachers intend to improve their teaching efficiency, their efforts could bring about higher achievement of their students. Numerous research studies concerned with teacher effectiveness and student achievement prove his fact.

Domino (1971), studied an interaction between student's achievement orientation and the teaching style. The results indicated a clear interaction effect. Students taught in a manner consonant with their achievement orientation, obtained significantly higher means on the multiple-choice items, on factual knowledge ratings of their essay answers, and on their ratings of teacher effectiveness and course evaluation, than peers taught in a dissonant manner.

Rosenshine and Furst (1978), have written a useful review of research studies and have identified
five teacher characteristics consistently associated with gains in pupils' achievement. The first two characteristics are teacher enthusiasm and business-like orientation. The third is teacher clarity. The fourth is variety in teaching. The fifth is the extent to which the teacher provides opportunities for pupils to learn the curriculum content covered in the achievement tests, or the teacher's ability and preference for classroom activities focused on the kinds of cognitive learning usually measured in achievement tests.

In recent years researchers have made a concerted effort to identify teaching behaviour that facilitates pupils' learning in specific curriculum areas. Much of this research has focused on reading and mathematics instruction at the primary school level (Bennet, 1976).

A large-scale research study was conducted in the US by Berliner and Tickenoff (1976), in which modules on the teaching of reading and mathematics at both primary and secondary level were prepared by the researchers and in which teacher effectiveness was measured in terms of pupils' gains on standardized achievement tests. They identified twenty-one teachers' behaviours between effective and less effective teachers.
Cantrell et al. (1977), studied the relationship between teacher knowledge, attitudes, and class-room teaching on student achievement. The results indicate that it is possible to link teacher knowledge of behavioural principles and teacher attitude profiles to indices of both teacher class-room process and differential student achievement.

Good and Grouws (1979), investigated the effectiveness of an experimental mathematics teaching programme. They concluded that teachers and/or teaching methods can exert a significant difference on student progress in mathematics.

Saracho and Dayton (1980), studied relationship of teachers' cognitive styles to pupils' academic achievement gains. The results indicated significant effects on gains due to teachers' cognitive styles. The pupils with field-independent teachers showed greater achievement gains than pupils with field-dependent teachers.

Garlinger and Frank (1986), made a review and mini-meta analysis on teacher-student cognitive style and academic achievement. Findings suggest that field-independent students show greater achievement when
matched with similar teachers.

Additionally, Rosenshine and Berliner (1978), in a view of recent research on teaching, suggest that the effective teacher is one who is able to demonstrate the ability to bring about intended learning goals, the two critical dimensions of effective teaching being intent and achievement. Without intent, pupils' achievements become random and accidental rather than controlled and predictable. However, intent is not enough by itself. Without achievement of his intended learning goals, the teacher cannot truly be called effective. In order to be effective in bringing about intended learning outcomes, Smith (1969), has suggested that a teacher should be prepared in four areas of knowledge:

1. Command of theoretical knowledge about learning and human behaviour.
2. Display of attitudes that foster learning and genuine human relationships.
3. Command of knowledge in the subject-matter to be taught.
4. Control of technical skills of teaching that facilitate the pupil's learning.

It is evident from the research studies mentioned above that parallel to other factors, student
Intelligence

The concept of intelligence has been defined in various ways. Some prominent psychologists who developed mental ability tests defined intelligence as follows:

Binet (1916), regards intelligence as primarily a collection of faculties i.e. practical sense, initiative judgement, and the ability to adapt oneself to circumstances.

Terman (1916), defines intelligence as the ability to think in term of abstract ideas.

Goddard (1946), characterizes intelligence as the degree of availability of one's experiences for the solution of immediate problems and anticipation of future ones.

Wechsler (1958), defines intelligence as the aggregate of global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment.

Thorndike (1960), states intelligence is the
power to make good responses from the point of view of truth or fact. An intelligent person, in his point of view, is the one who is able to come up with the right answers to difficult problems.

Piaget (1960), considers intelligence as a general mental adaptability of the organism to environment or to a limited aspect of it.

Bolton (1976), feels that intelligence is a function of the total personality. An understanding of intelligence cannot be achieved by analyzing it element by element. It is intrinsically interrelated with emotional feelings, attitudes, moods, well-being, and experiences. It cannot live an independent life; it can only be defined, and of course, measured, as a functioning part of a unit called the person.

However, Stoddard (1943), has the most comprehensive definition of intelligence, as the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by difficulty, complexity, abstractness, economy, adaptiveness to a goal, social value, and the emergence of originals, and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and a resistance to emotional forces. In this
definition, several attributes of intelligence have been specified.

In the present study, the intelligence of the teachers was measured by Raven's (1962), Advanced Progressive Matrices (APM).

The APM was arranged to assess a person's capacity for observation and clear thinking or with a time limit to assess the efficiency of his intellectual work.

Teacher Effectiveness and Intelligence

According to definitions, intelligence is one of the most important factors of human life. It is the ability to make successful and rapid adaptation to new situations and to learn from the environment experiences to react accordingly. Jobs are categorized according to the level of intelligence needed for the purpose.

Intelligence plays a significant role in teaching-learning conditions. A teacher with higher intelligence may have better chances to be successful in one's profession. An intelligent teacher may be active, alert, and dynamic in the class. He knows how to tackle
the problems in the class-room and accept and meet the challenges. He can direct the students according to the need of the individual and society.

An intelligent teacher is the one who is sensitive to the needs and requirements of the students and accordingly plans and organizes instruction suitable to all in a single attempt. The teacher with superior intellectual ability will solve the problems and cultivate problem-solving abilities in his students, he innovate ideas, directs his students to think constructively and mould one's own environment according to the needs.

A number of research studies show that the intelligence test scores with a single indices of primary abilities and aptitude are also good predictors of teaching success. Bloom (1956), has pointed out that general intelligence in useful for predicting performance on a great range of intellectual and cognitive tasks. Kakker (1965) and Balram (1965), found that intellectual efficiency and teaching skills are significantly correlated with each other. Raina (1965), in an attempt to predict the successful teacher, concluded that prediction can be improved if
intelligence scores are combined with teaching scores. Richey (1966), found that those teachers with average or slightly above average intelligence are likely to be good teachers.

After exhaustive study of publications dealing with success in teaching, Adaval (1979), revealed that intelligence is an important factor for determining one's aptitude for teaching. Adaval (1979), also suggested that in India the IQ of secondary school teachers ranges from 90 to 110.

There is another recent research study in the area of teaching profession in relation to intelligence by Mathema (1988). It revealed differences between teachers and drop-outs on the variable of intelligence. Drop-outs were found to be more intelligent than the teachers. This study shows that teacher effectiveness may not bear relationship with high level of intelligence conceivably there might not be any correlation between the IQ and the teacher effectiveness within the group. But this would not justify the general conclusion that intelligence is not related to teacher effectiveness. At certain levels perhaps differences in intelligence may not correlate very high with teacher
effectiveness. To say that superior intelligence is secondary or unimportant, is a mistake and it needs further investigation, which the present study aims at.

Self-Concept

The term self-concept is so widely used in the field of education and psychology that in its most native sense, it can be generally understood as the person's ideas, feelings, and attitudes about oneself i.e. how one perceives one's ownself. It is the sum total of the person's ideas about who and what he is, what appears to be, what he thinks himself to be and what others judge him to be. The self is the person's essence of his existence that is known to him. It includes the entire structure of his being. It has many aspects.

Strang (1957), defines it an individual's perception of his abilities and his status and role in outer world. This is his concept of the kind of person he thinks he is. According to Staines (1971), the way one perceives and describes one's self or what one may think about one self is called perceived self. The self-concept according to Good (1973), means the individual's
perception of himself as a person, which includes his ability, appearance, performance in his job and other aspects of his daily life.

Ideal self is also regarded as the highest level of self-concept and provides a standard against which the rest of the self is judged. Strang (1957), regards this self as the kind of person the individual hopes to be. Smith (1961), defines it as what we would like to be.

The social self or other self as Staines (1971), calls it, is our awareness of the way others think of us and perceive us to be. It is the recognition which we get from our mates.

Self-concept as an important non-cognitive factor that affects human behaviour, has been widely recognized today. Sharma (1977), presents his view that importance of self-concept is taking permanent place for understanding and predicting human behaviour. Persons having good self-concepts are proved by the research work that they are not anxious, generally better adjusted, more effective in groups, more honest, and less defensive. High self-concept plays a very important role in the achievement of goals.
Teacher Effectiveness and Self-concept

The teacher today is to meet the new emerging demands of the society. Teacher behaviour has always been of vital importance and a significant part in the development of the child's personality. Maladjusted teachers and teachers whose personality patterns are not conducive to pleasant and harmonious relations with children are actually detrimental to the optimum personal growth of their pupils. Inability to establish rapport with children leads to ineffective learning situations, disciplinary problems and undesirable attitudes of both teachers and pupils.

There are some research studies that throw some light upon the relationship between self-concept and teacher effectiveness.

Kakker (1965), and Balram (1965), made an assessment of intellectual efficiency and self-acceptance of teacher-trainees as related to their skill in teaching. They concluded that both intellectual efficiency and self-acceptance are significantly correlated with teaching skill.

Veldman and Kelly (1968), investigated about the
problem "Personality correlates of a composite criteria of teaching effectiveness", and found that effective teachers were considered by their pupils to be more friendly, yet more completely in control of their classes. They indicated a greater degree of self-acceptance as well as social dominance among effective teachers when compared to the ineffective teachers.

Sharma and Mahesh (1979), found that effective teachers employ more accepted feelings, praise and encourage, ask questions, pupil response initiation categories in their class-room teaching, whereas ineffective teachers use more direction, authority lecturing and silence/confusion categories in their teaching.

These research studies have suggested somehow a positive and significant relationship while others show a negative relationship between self-concept and teacher effectiveness. Firestone (1973), in a teacher effectiveness study, found that there is no difference in self-concept of student teacher judged to be effective or non-effective by the university supervisors.

The studies mentioned above attempt to show that
teacher effectiveness and self-concept bear significant relationship. A teacher effectiveness in any situation depends on the way the teacher perceives the situation, his self-concept being the part of that perceived situation. If the teacher possesses high self-concept and the discrepancy between perceived and ideal self is not high, he will be regarded as a well-adjusted person. The present investigation was an attempt in order to see the effect of self-concept on effectiveness in teaching.

Emergence of the Study

In 1983, there was a follow-up of curriculum development programme. The Planning Division, Department of General Education, Ministry of Education, Thailand (1985), gave its report. It was found that secondary schools faced with many problems in curriculum development, such as: (1) curriculum implementation, (2) evaluation, (3) student's achievement, (4) teaching behaviour, and (5) materials, audio-visual aids, and innovatory systems. These problems directly affect the educational school administration. The Department of General Education takes the responsibility in educational management of secondary schools, emphasizes in
For increasing learning opportunities of the students, therefore, the Department of General Education, launched a project for the Individualized Supervision Development in Secondary Schools during 1984-85. The programmes are:

1. Selection of nine secondary schools in 12th Regional Education Division to be the pioneers in this pilot project. The schools are:

   Banna 'Nayokpittayakorn', Pakpleewittayakarn Muangnakornnayok Daddarunee Bangpakong 'Bawonwittayayon' Paikaewwittaya Cholburi 'Sookkhabot' Auang-Sila- Pittayakom Banbung 'Manoonwittayakarn'

2. Training the principals and teachers as key persons of the pioneer schools for Individualized Supervision Development in Secondary Schools course.

3. The pioneer schools practised the Individualized...
Supervision Development.

4. Follow-up, research, and evaluation of the project.

5. Extension of the Individualized Supervision Development into all secondary schools in Thailand.

After 1985, the programme was carried on in all the secondary schools in the country.

Today, it can be said that the secondary schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of General Education, Ministry of Education, may have perceived the concept of the Individualized Supervision Development in the right way, as the investigator herself during the period 1985-1986 was actively involved in the implementation and progress of the programme.

As such according to the policy of the Department of General Education and the school functions of the secondary schools in Thailand, the instructional supervision was strongly emphasized for the improvement of the student learning by improving class-room teaching behaviour of the teachers.

For establishing the goal, the teachers are encouraged to use clinical supervision and acquaint
themselves with the concept and methods. Thaipanit (1984) pointed out that clinical supervision has been developed and extensively practised at every school level in America for almost twenty years, but it has never been actually practised in Thailand. There are few clinical supervision practises in secondary schools in Thailand. Also, few research studies about clinical supervision have been conducted.

Keeping this in view, the investigator thought it worthwhile to conduct research to find how well the clinical supervision was being implemented and practised to improve class-room teaching behaviour of the teachers and student's learning, and whether or not teacher effectiveness is improved by clinical supervision.

Statement of the Study

The study under investigation therefore, was entitled as:

Effect of Clinical Supervision on Teacher Effectiveness in Relation to Intelligence and Self-concept of Secondary School Teachers in Thailand.
Significance of the Study

The present research findings will be helpful in providing supervisors with useful information when working with teachers seeking to improve their effectiveness. This study will have bearing on relationship between effective supervision and teacher effectiveness. Teachers and supervisors will accept the policies more since they have had a part in their development. They will be significant contributors to their work in a team. They will be able to give greater emphasis on self-evaluation and self-correction. There will be a greater feedback for teachers on the output of their teaching efforts. The result of this study will contribute to the teachers and supervisors to promote professional growth, and effective teaching which lead to effective learning of the students.

Objectives of the Study

The study was carried out with the following major objectives:

1. To study the effect of clinical supervision, intelligence, and self-concept on teacher effectiveness.
2. To see the concordance between the ratings given
by the supervisors (heads) and the self-ratings of the teachers on teacher effectiveness.

2.1 To see the differences in the improvement of teaching of Thai language, social studies, and science subject.

3. To study the effect of clinical supervision on academic achievement of the students.

3.1 To study whether or not there was any improvement in the semester-end academic performance of the students studying different subjects i.e. Thai languages, social studies, and science subject after the experiment of clinical supervision of the teachers was over.

4. To evaluate teaching behaviour of the teachers in the class-room.

Another objective of the study was to construct and standardize a scale to measure teacher effectiveness as considered essential for the study by the investigator.

Hypotheses of the Study

Based on the above objectives, following hypotheses were launched:

1. Teacher effectiveness improves as a result of clinical supervision.

1.1 Teacher effectiveness is a function of intelligence and self-concept i.e. teachers with high intelligence and high self-concept have higher effectiveness in teaching.

2. No significant differences exist between the
self-ratings of teachers and ratings of supervisors (heads) on teacher effectiveness.

2.1 Teachers teaching different subjects i.e. Thai language, social studies, and science responded differently to clinical supervision.

3. Academic achievement of the students improves significantly as a result of clinical supervision of the teachers.

3.1 There exist significant differences in the improvement of academic achievement of students studying Thai language, social studies, and science subject.

4. Clinical supervision has a positive effect on the improvement of teaching behaviour of the teachers.

4.1 Clinical supervision has differential effect on the teaching behaviour of the teachers of different subjects.

Delimitation of the Study

1. The study was delimited to the higher secondary schools only under the jurisdiction of the Department of General Education in 12th Regional Education Division, Thailand.

2. The study was further delimited to 3rd, 4th and 5th level of secondary schools.

3. The subject areas selected for study were only Thai language, social studies, and science subject.