CHAPTER-II

THEORETICAL VIEWS

TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

One of the most difficult problems in educational research is that of recognizing effective teachers and discriminating between more or less effective teachers. The teacher is the point of contact between the educational system and the pupil and he plays central role in the educational process. The impact of any educational programme or innovation on the pupil operates through the teacher. It is, threfore, quite accurate to say that effectiveness of a school depends directly on the effectiveness of its teachers. Maximizing teacher effectiveness is a major goal of education.

The teacher is effective to the extent to which he acts in ways that are favourable to the development of basic skills, understanding, work habits, desirable attitudes, value judgements and adequate personal adjustment. But even such an operational definition is really very general and abstract in nature and is not easily translatable into terms relating to specific teacher behaviours. Relatively little progress has been made in supplementing this definition with the details that are necessary for describing teacher effectiveness. This is despite the fact that concentrated and considerable research efforts have been made in recent years to explore the field of teacher effectiveness as is evidenced by the reviews presented by Barr (1946, 1949 and 1952), Castetler and others (1954), Barr and
Most educators and parents do have some idea of what constitutes teacher effectiveness. The conceptualizations of parents, however, are usually vague and far away from specific observable behaviours of teachers and the ideas are highly individualized, with very little agreement existing between different persons. Educators seem to be in disagreement with respect to the specific contributions to teacher effectiveness. However, disagreement and ambiguity with respect to the description of teacher effectiveness is naturally, expected and cannot be entirely avoided, because teacher effectiveness, undoubtedly, is a relative matter. A person's concept depends, first on his acculturation, his past experience, and the values and attitudes he has come to accept and, second, on the aspect of teaching which may be foremost in his consideration at any given time.

Gage (1963) comments that the literature and references on teacher effectiveness are overwhelming and unmanageable. Domas and Tiedman (1950), Rabinowitz and Trevers (1953). Ackerman (1954), however, observed that much of the literature in this field is inconclusive or offers conflicting results. Similarly, Moseman (1988) observes that "with all this research activity, results have been modest and often contradictory. Few, if any, facts are now deemed established about teacher-effectiveness and many former 'findings' have been repudiated".
Ryan (1960) states that literature pertaining to the investigations of teacher effectiveness, though extensive in character, suffers from qualitative pitfalls like poor control of conditions, lack of description of conditions of study, inadequate replication and many other defects and drawbacks both in research and research reports. So, their results are neither flawless nor often comparable to one another. This deplorable observation seems to be a natural product of divergence of opinion regarding "what constitutes teacher-effectiveness".

It is very difficult to realise the decisive concurrence regarding the concept of teacher effectiveness because it varies from one area of culture to that of others. According to Moore and Cole (1957), "the definition of successful teaching probably always depends upon the specifics of the situation in which a given definition is developed". Obviously, what is found applicable in one setting with one type of students, one set of criteria and expectancies, may or may not be applicable elsewhere. The description of teacher effectiveness is another condition which contributes to the existing confusion regarding the nature of teacher effectiveness. The validity of various assumptions and opinions regarding teaching in general and teacher effectiveness in particular cannot be readily studied because there is so little understanding, and so inadequate descriptions or measures of the general class of behaviours and personal and social qualities which characterize teachers. Adequate descriptions of major teacher characteristics, which might provide a basis for studying the relationship of teacher behaviour to varying competence, have not been developed. Unfortunate as this situation is, it really is understandable, for teacher effectiveness is complex and many-sided, demanding a variety of human traits and abilities.
If we know what effective teachers do, or are like, we can teach others to be like that. This is a straightforward uncomplicated approach and seems logically sound. At first, attempts to discover the competencies of effective teachers were highly specific. Several studies were made to demonstrate that the effective teachers had this or that trait, used this or that method.

Teacher effectiveness simply could not be defined in terms of any particular trait or method. In 1959, the American Association of School Administrators failed in its attempt to find some guidelines, which might help them to make practical decisions about a high quality of teaching necessary in carrying on their jobs.

Bowers (1961), Gupta (1976), Arora (1978), Mutha (1980), Bhagoliwal (1982), McGarvey (1983) have been somewhat more successful in discriminating between effective and ineffective teachers by shifting their attention to the general traits or methods used by teachers. They have been able to find fairly stable distinctions in such general terms as, "good teachers are considerate", or "child centered". But this has failed to provide us with the definite distinction. Thus, in response to a question such as "Are enthusiastic teachers more effective?" the answer that has emerged is that it depends on the context and the outcome being considered and one should keep in mind that the relationship may not be a simple linear one and also that it may be affected by the presence of other process variables. Teacher effectiveness, therefore, is not a function of general trait or methods alone.

According to Mitzel's (1982) Encyclopaedia of Educational Research - "The term 'teacher effectiveness' refers to the results a teacher gets or to the amount of progress the pupils make towards some specified goal of education".
One implication of this definition is that teacher effectiveness must be defined, and can only be assessed in terms of behaviours of pupils, not behaviours of teachers.

Despite complexities in arriving at universally accepted definition, some researchers have made attempts to define and measure it.

Barr (1952) explained teacher effectiveness as a relationship between teachers, pupils and other persons concerned with the educational understanding.

Remmers (1952) defined effectiveness as "the degree to which an agent produces effects". Three categories of effect in terms of objects affected were identified for teachers:

(a) The pupil
(b) School operations, and
(c) The school community

Effects on pupils have long been accepted as relevant criterion dimensions of teacher effectiveness. Pupil growth, change, gain, development, learning and the like have often been considered as the ultimate criterion of teacher effectiveness.

Ryan (1949) says that an effective teacher is that who helps development of basic skills, understanding, proper work habits, desirable attitudes, value judgement and adequate personal adjustment of the students.

Anand (1983) conducted a research on teacher effectiveness in schools and concluded that effectiveness may be understood as one's hold on the circumstances as well as on himself, befitting the best of his total adjustment. According to Scriven (1987), "Teachers are meritorious to the extent that they
exert the maximum possible influence towards beneficial learning on the part of their students, subject to three conditions:

(i) the teaching process used is ethical.
(ii) the curriculum coverage and the teaching process are consistent with what has been promised, and
(iii) the teaching process and its forcible effects are consistent with the appropriate institutional and professional goals and obligations.

The term 'teacher effectiveness' is closely associated and generally confused with the terms like, 'pupil learning experiences', 'teacher performance' and 'teacher competence'.

'Pupil learning experiences' refers to the patterns of behaviour of pupils while teaching is going on. This is not a teacher characteristic, but it has a great deal to do with how effective the teacher is, since the amount a pupil learns depends on what the pupil does. Any effect the teacher has on pupil learning must result from some effect the teacher has on the pupil's learning experiences.

'Teacher performance' refers to the behaviour of a teacher while teaching a class. Teacher performance differs from teacher effectiveness. It is defined in terms of teacher's behaviour, what the teacher does, while teacher effectiveness is defined in terms of what the teacher's pupils do. Teacher performance resembles teacher effectiveness in that it, too, is a product of the interaction between certain teacher characteristics and the teaching situation. Teacher performance is often used as a basis from which teacher effectiveness can be inferred.

'Teacher competence' refers to the set of knowledge, abilities, and beliefs a teacher possesses and brings to the teaching situation. Teacher
competence differs from teacher performance and teacher effectiveness in that it is a stable characteristic of the teacher that does not change appreciably when the teacher moves from one situation to another. It resembles teacher performance in that it has also been proposed as a basis from which teacher effectiveness can be inferred: Teacher competence is conceived of as a matter of repertoire. The knowledge, skills, and beliefs in a teacher's repertoire will be referred to as "competencies" that the teacher possesses. A competency is defined in the terms of what the teacher knows, believes, or can do, not in terms of what the teacher can get pupils to do. 'Skill in classroom management' could be a competency. 'ability to manage a class' could not be.

Thus the terms 'pupil learning experiences', 'teacher performance', and 'teacher competence' are not to be confused with teacher effectiveness, though they can be proposed as the basis from which teacher effectiveness can be inferred.

CRITERION OF TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS - AN OVERVIEW

Teacher effectiveness in itself is not an operational criterion. According to Stern, Stein and Bloom (1956), "it is rather a standard of performance in a specific work situation that some individuals are said to manifest". Standards for the basis for these judgements may differ, but they do constitute the administratively sanctioned empirical measures available for the purpose. According to Mitzel (1982), the term "criterion" can commonly be 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. It formulates a base, often of a rather arbitrary nature, and ultimately involving value judgements against
which observations may be made in a comparative way. Calling a particular measure a criterion, thus lends to it connotations of worth and value, although there is no standard accepted definition of a criterion and not adequate measures of it have been developed so far, in teacher effectiveness research.

Barr (1948) and Morsh and Wilder (1954) have classified teacher effectiveness criteria on the basis of methodology used in obtaining the criterion measurements. Mitzel and Gross (1960) defined three newly recognized classes of variables related to teacher effectiveness as:

(i) Product Criteria
(ii) Process Criteria
(iii) Presage Criteria

**Product Criteria**

Product criteria depends for its origin upon the objectives of teaching which are most conveniently stated in terms of desirable changes in the behaviour of a student. Rabinowitz and Travers (1953), Ryans (1949, 1953, 1960) and Remmers (1952, 1953) voted for the assessment of teacher effectiveness through effects on students in terms of gains, growth changes, all of which involve measurements of change in behaviour and some of which can be attributed to the impact of individual teachers. Foshay (1957) suggests translating of ultimate into operational goals. Bloom (1954) advocates the variety in such product criteria and suggests three areas of educational outcomes, cognition, affect and psycho-motor skills.

But the importance of the product criteria has been ignored by the fact that out of 138 studies as summarized by Barr (1948), only 19 used a measure of
student gain as a criterion. Mitzel and Gross (1960) found just 20 such studies. This produces a doubt regarding the measure of student growth as reflection of teacher's skill in the student growth.

Another idea, forwarded by Remmers and others (1952, 1953) is that the teacher competence be evaluated against the teacher's effect on school operations, school community relations and student's learning. True, the role of a teacher is important within the milieu of the school and the community, but it formulates only subsidiary goals which derive their sanctions from the fact that they tend to promote student growth. Clifort (1981), after going through numerous studies noted that the correlation between teaching ability and pupil achievement presented a confusing picture.

A teacher produces unlimited and varied changes in the pupils and hence there are apparent difficulties in the evaluation of these changes. Similarly, pupils mature at different rates and attain different levels of maturity and this in turn affects the amount of knowledge acquired by them. So increase in knowledge can never be attributed to the activities of the teachers alone and thus cannot be used as a measure of teacher effectiveness. Pupil progress may be to some extent due to effective teacher and thorough grounding at earlier stages. It may also be due to habits of accuracy inculcated by other agencies. Obviously, the isolation of a single teacher's contribution to pupil growth, is a complex and practically an unsolvable problem.

As Morsh, Burgess and Smith (1956) have pointed out, "If the student gains are to be used as a measure of instructor's effectiveness, it is necessary to hold constant so far as possible, all relevant variables other than the effects of teaching itself". This rules out the possibility of accepting the increase in
knowledge as the only basis for measuring pupil gains because of practical difficulties in identifying and controlling the variables other than the effects of teaching itself. In other words, what has to be ensured is that the teachers being judged, carry out their teaching with groups of pupils with same intelligence, earnestness for study, educativeness of home and the community, similarity of earlier teachers' influence and learning experiences etc. Reliability and validity of achievement tests add another difficulty.

The approach of pre-testing and post-testing (after a period of teaching by teachers under study) of pupils, and control of certain factors also failed due to the problems of multiplicity of influence and multidimensionability of pupil gain. So it is not surprising to note that out of 1000 studies, only 20 used student as the criterion of teacher effectiveness (Travers 1973). Rest of the studies involved the ratings made by supervisors, independent observers, principals and more commonly by self evaluation. More frequently, researchers have correlated particular teacher's behavioral characteristics with pupil growth as measured on achievement test or by self reports. They analyzed teacher behaviour in classroom itself.

**Process Criteria**

Those dimensions of teacher and student behaviour which are believed to be of any worth in their own right are included in process criteria. They are defined and evaluated in the classroom in terms of conditions or typical situations involving the social interactions of student and teacher. Process criteria corresponding to the teacher performance variables obtained from observations of teacher behaviour would be limited to the extent to which teachers discipline
students effectively, maintain rapport with students, or individualize instruction consistent with student's personality and achievements which form desirable classroom characteristics. Similarly, process criteria obtained from observations of student behaviour, would be limited to the extent to which students exhibit affection for the teacher, attentive listening or conformity to classroom routines.

Mandez (1986) observed that principals' perception of effectiveness of teachers is more acceptable as compared to students perception. Massie (1990) also advocated perception by peers and principals of teacher effectiveness.

Morsh et al (1956) observed that the students appeared to know when they were well taught. Student ratings, therefore, offer some promise for evaluating the teacher. Goodenough (1957) observed that forced choice technique might prove a valuable method of isolating and determining the relative value of various traits of effective teacher. Symonds (1955), Bhagoliwal (1982), McGarvey (1983) and Tell (1983) identified those characteristics which seemed to differentiate superior teachers from inferior teachers. Some of these are:

(a) Superior teachers liked children;
(b) Superior teachers were personally secure; and self-assured;
(c) Superior teachers were integrated;
(d) Effective teachers understood the social and educational needs of a child;
(e) Effective teachers were flexible; and
(f) Effective teachers were sensible.
McKeachie, Lin, and Mann (1971) found that teachers whose students rated them high in 'rapport' tended to be more effective on measures of student's critical thinking.

It is important to bear in mind that in this series of studies no attempt was made to validate any of the characteristics by checking whether pupils taught by teachers perceived as possessing the characteristic did, in fact, learn more than pupils taught by teachers not perceived as possessing it. At best, the lists described characteristics of teachers who impressed others as the 'best' or most effective teachers. The question whether they were in fact 'best' or most effective was neither asked nor answered.

Two implicit assumptions underlie these studies. One is that anyone who has ever been to school is a good judge of teacher effectiveness. The other is that "good" teachers are born, not made.

The first assumption is pervasive even today. It seems to arise from the fact that almost anyone who watches a teacher at work, even for a few minutes, forms an immediate, strong, unshakable impression of how effective the teacher is. The basis of this impression are not clear, but they are vivid, and the phenomenon is universal. The credibility of the approach to the study of teacher effectiveness used in the present research clearly depends on an uncritical non-acceptance of this assumption.

The assumption that teachers are born, not made, is implicit in the nature of the characteristics listed, most of which are recognizable as pre-existing teacher characteristics - as qualities like 'honesty' and 'magnetism' that one does not acquire by taking professional educational courses.
In the research of teacher effectiveness, analysis has generally been devoted to the criterion question itself. University of Wisconsin, USA used seven categories, namely,
(i) In service ratings by superintendents, principals, other supervisory officials, teacher educators, departmental specialists, state departmental personnel and self-rating;
(ii) peer rating;
(iii) pupil gain score;
(iv) pupil rating;
(v) composite of test scores from tests thought to measure teacher effectiveness;
(vi) practice teaching grades; and
(vii) combination or composites of some or all of the above criteria.

Preference was given to self ratings in majority of the studies, followed by pupil gain score.

Presage Criteria

Presage criteria includes both pre-existing teacher characteristics and teacher competencies. The relevance of presage criteria depends upon an assumed relationship to other criteria, either process or product. These criteria are somewhat away from the interplay of behaviours in the classroom. For instance, we may measure a teacher's aptitude with precision, but students do not know or react to that teacher's aptitude score *per se*. Aptitude of a teacher must contribute to classroom behaviours. Such concepts as teaching aptitude, self
concept, personal adjustment and the like have come to stay as appropriate
criteria for teacher effectiveness on the basis of their common sense appeal.

Four types of presage variables have been used more commonly as
criterion in teacher effectiveness studies. These are:

(a) Teachers' personality
(b) Characteristics of teachers in training
(c) Teachers' knowledge and achievement
(d) Teaching aptitude

Teacher training variables like marks in education courses, success in
student teaching and critic-teacher evaluations have been used as presage
criteria. Mitzel and Gross (1960) favour criteria of this type especially those
involving student teaching experiences, because of their relevancy to the
teaching process than those based on personality attributes or a general
competency trait. But the difference between the student-teacher's behaviour
under training and the behaviour in the teaching profession is expected due to the
experience, maturity or other variables intervening after training. Since the
critic-teacher provides training in teaching variables, so it seems to be quite
justified to use such criterion as potential predictors of teacher effectiveness.

There is no denying the fact that the present demands of training,
employing and promoting teachers make educational administration accept,
either implicitly or explicitly, certain criteria of teacher effectiveness. Whatever
the nature of criteria may be, they invariably involve some commitment on these
questions;

(i) Is teacher effectiveness multidimensional or unidimensional?
(ii) Should teacher effectiveness be evaluated primarily against the intellectual, cognitive goals of education or primarily against attitudinal affective goals?

Simms (1988) remarked that both teachers and principals found process criteria to be the most relevant and presage criteria the most feasible. Product criteria was considered the least relevant and least feasible by both groups.

**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 being the person's essence of his existence that is known to him. It includes the entire structure of his being.

Strang (1957) defines 'self concept' as individual's perception of his abilities, his status and role in the other world. This is his concept of the kind of person he is.

In Pathak's (1966) view, 'self concept' as "the organized, consistent, conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the characteristics of the 'I' and 'Me' and the perceptions of the relationship of the 'I' or 'Me' to others and to various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions".

According to Mehta (1968), self-concept is "organized configuration of perceptions of self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities, the percepts and
concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment, the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; the goals and ideas which are perceived as having positive or negative values).

According to Pandit, "self concept is the nucleus around which the entire personality structure revolves in its homeostatic process of maintaining consistency and stability within the individual's personality".

In Stain's (1971) view, the way one perceives and describes one's self on what one may think about oneself is called perceived self. Good (1973) defined it as "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".

According to Deo (1985), self concept is best conceived as a system of attitudes towards oneself. Just as a person, as a result of experiences, forms attitudes which he organises into a self-consistent system and defends against threats and attacks, so the person also forms attitudes towards himself. Self concept consists of all the perceptions, feelings, attitudes, aspirations and values of oneself concerning oneself.

The ideal self is regarded as the highest level of self-concept and provides a standard against which the rest of the self is judged. Strang (1957) regarded this self as the kind of person the individual hopes to be. Smith (1961) defines it as what we would like to be. According to Pathak (1966), "Ideal self is the self-concept which the individual is most likely to possess upon which he places the highest value for himself".

The social self, as described by Stains (1971), 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 our important cognitive factor that affects human behaviour, has been widely recognized today. Sharma (1976) opines that importance of self concept is taking permanent place for understanding and predicting human behaviour. Persons having good self concept 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.

Development of Self-Concept

Self-concept is a life long process that grows and develops continuously in social setting. An individual is not born with a self concept nor does he inherit it, but he forms one as a result of his experience and capacities. Self-concept is a required image of the individual as a result this image changes like any other dynamic behaviour of the individual from early to later stages of his life. Each person possesses multiple self conceptions and it is reasonable to infer that the child and the adult perceive different elements or self conceptions with varying degrees of clarity at different times. Moreover, the process of self-concept development never really ends; it is actively proceeding from birth to death as the individual continuously discovers new potentials in the process of 'becoming'. According to Gate (1968), the child gains a growing awareness of self as he begins his interaction with the significant people in his environment. Strang (1957) thinks that changes in the individual’s self-concept may occur at
any time during his life, but especially at the beginning of each development phase.

**Sources of Self-Concept**

1. **Physical Self and Body Image**

   In early childhood and again at adolescence, emphasis on the physical qualities of the individual are strongly marked and at these periods, physical attributes and deficiencies (both real and imagined) can have considerable effects on the development of a person's overall self concept. Jourard (1963) demonstrated that males had most satisfaction with their bodies when they were big; females were more satisfied with the bodies if they were less tall than normal. A person's height, weight, complexion, eyesight and body proportions become closely associated with his attitudes to himself and feelings of personal adequacy and acceptability.

2. **Feedback from Significant Others**

   All humans need love, acceptance and security. Each experience of love or rejection, each experience of approval or disapproval from others cause him to view himself and his behaviour in the same way. Combs (1971) has emphasized the vital effects of significant others, "As he is loved or rejected, praised or punished, fails or able to compete, he comes gradually to regard himself as important or unimportant, adequate or inadequate, handsome or ugly, honest or dishonest or even to describe himself in the terms of those who surround him.... He is likely, therefore, to be affected by the labels which are applied to him by other people".
3. Sex Roles

Mursell (1954) found that successful sex role identification was related to effective personal social functioning and even to school performance in various subjects. Sexuality is an integral part of the psychic being, and cannot be separated off. Sex role behaviour, feelings and attitudes arise out of the unconscious whirlpool of childhood conflicts and fears, and not out of social reality.

4. Child Rearing Practices

Family is the universal and primary agent of socialization. The first human relationships act as prototypes enabling the child to consider what can be expected later in life in his dealing with others. Behrens demonstrated that a parent's personality style can influence a child's self-concept for better or worse and child-rearing practices are seen as crucial in self-concept development because:

(a) The self concept is learned.
(b) Much of this learning comes from feedback from significant others, particularly parents.
(c) Parents are present most consistently in the important early years; and
(d) The child has a physical, emotional and social dependence on them so that they are in a unique position to influence the child’s learning about himself.

Theories of the Development of Self-Concept

The development of the self-concept does not occur in an all-or-none
fashion which permits us to say that up to one point in time, the child does not possess a self-concept but then suddenly, eureka-like, he has a self-concept and he must come to view himself as a distinct object and be able to see himself as both subject and object. There exist many theories according to which the development of self concept could be viewed from different angles.

Psychological Approach

Quite early, Cooley (1902) provided an account of how self feeling is developed in relation to the individual’s interpretation of physical and social reality. The objects within this reality include the physical body opinions, purposes, possessions, ambitions, or any idea or system of ideas drawn from the communicative life that the mind cherishes at its own. He saw the objects appropriated by self feeling as social in two senses. First, their meaning was furnished by the common language and culture. Secondly, self-conceptions and their associated evaluations were derived from the person’s objective construction of the judgements that significant others held regarding his actions and attributes.

Adler (1924) described self as a highly personalised subjective system through which a person interprets and gives meaning to his experiences. He stressed consciousness as the centre of personality. He saw man as a conscious being, usually aware of his reasons for behaviour, capable of organizing and guiding his actions with complete awareness of their implications for his own self realization. He believes that each human was came into the world with feeling, incomplete and inferior and hence the origin of the drive to attain superiority or self assertion was the motivation of the fear of inferiority. He
observed that there were innumerable possible life styles for achieving that goal. For example, one person may try to become superior through academic success, another may aim to be an athlete and still another tries to achieve a body rapping with muscles. Each has an individual life style and arranges his life in order to achieve the end of being more or less superior to those seeking similar goals. Thus, for Adler the self system originates and develops out of the behaviour employed to manipulate feelings of superiority out of feelings of inferiority.

Horney (1945) propounded that the self system arised out of anxiety. Her ideas were derived from her primary concept of basic anxiety, which she defined as the feeling a child has of being isolated and helpless in a potentially hostile world. A wide range of adverse factors in the environment can produce this insecurity in a child: direct or indirect domination, indifference, erratic behaviour, lack of respect for the child's individual needs, lack of real guidance, disparaging attitudes, too much admiration or the absence of it, lack of reliable warmth, having to take sides in parental disagreements, too much or too little responsibility, overprotection, isolation from other person, injustice, discrimination, unkept promises, hostile atmosphere etc. She argued that any one or combination of these experiences could lead a person to adopt certain strategies to satisfy a neurotic need or needs growing from disturbed human relationships. She classified neurotic needs as:

(a) moving towards people
(b) moving away from people and
(c) moving against people

From these three needs, any one of which could be acquired as a result of trying to solve the problem of disturbed human relationships.
Phenomenological Approach

Lewin's Field Theory

Lewin (1936) the precursor of the phenomenal field approach, conceptualized an explanation of behaviour in terms of field theory. The individual himself is one aspect of the behavioural field and is always subject to field forces, never free to act independently of those impinging forces. So the self concept lies within the life space region, as a core area in the individual's psychological universe. The life space includes the individual's universe of personal experiences such as goals, evaluations, ideas, perceptions, etc. All the variables that determine the direction of behaviour lie in the space or the individual.

Roger's Self Theory

The central points of Rogers' theory are:

1. Man lives essentially in his own personal and subjective world.
2. The self becomes differentiated as part of the actualizing tendency, from the environment, through transactions with the environment - particularly the social environment.
3. It is the self concept, rather than any 'real' self, which is of significance in personality and behaviour.
4. It is the most significant determinant of response to the environment.
5. The development of self-concept is not just the slow accretion of experiences, conditionings and imposed definitions by others. The self-concept is a configuration. Altercation on one aspect can completely alter the nature of the whole.
Once the self-concept has developed, all interpretations and motivations are channelled through it. It resists all efforts at disruption.

**Personal Construct Theory by Kelly (1955)**

Personal construct theory is stated in a very formal way with one fundamental postulate and eleven corollaries. The fundamental postulate states: "A person's processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipate events". A person develops a set of constructs for constituting himself out of past experience. Of course the construct about self may be wrong and lead the subject into the production of neurotic behaviour to maintain the construct in a disconfirming environment. It takes a major act of therapy to modify constructs or ways of interpreting self and environment. The individual may attempt to deal with guilt by revising some of his basic constructs. However, such basic and important constructs are not easily changed and, hence, considerable threat and anxiety may be generated. The person who experiences such feelings may perhaps strive to change his behaviour, attempt to revise his personal constructs regarding the self, or if efforts in these directions are too difficult, he may form constructs which will "rationalise" the discrepancies between his behaviour and his construct system.

**Teacher's Self Concept**

Teachers possess self concepts which affect their own and the pupils' behaviour, their ability to build up sound relationships with the pupils, their style of teaching and their perceptions and expectations of themselves as teachers and of children as learners. Studies by Hart (1934) and Witty (1947) suggest that
teachers who were aloof, overbearing and unable to interact with the learners possessed most negative self-concept and studies by Cogan (1953) and Reed (1953) have revealed that it was the effectiveness of the teacher in creating a warm, supportive, interpersonal milieu which facilitated student performance. The central place of the teacher as an agent influencing the development of self-concept of the student is emphasized with the teacher’s own self-concept which is strongly associated with the type of expectations about pupils he emits, with his teaching style, with his classroom ethos and with his acceptance of others. The teacher should be aware of the pupils perceptions of the environment with their feelings, attitudes, beliefs and perceptions about him and this can be known to him if he has a positive self-concept. Teachers having positive self-concept are always person-oriented rather than event or thing oriented. He should build personal relationship with his pupils. He should be aware of pupil’s difficulties and individual differences and also he should gain more insight into his own teaching behaviour. All these qualities helps a teacher to develop high self-concept. Jersild (1952) pointed out that to gain self-knowledge, one must have the courage to seek it and the humility to accept what one may find. Without self-knowledge, a society can only be erudite, never, wise.

**Teaching Aptitude**

Aptitude is considered to be unique or unusual potential or ability of an individual to acquire general knowledge and skill in many fields and specific knowledge and skill in one field. High or low aptitude in a given area signifies that an individual fits into the requirements of one job better than into another and nothing more.
The term Aptitude, narrowly defined, is the native or inborn capacity of people in tasks requiring intellectual ability and skill. More broadly, it includes the effects of the environmental influences to which they have been subjected.

Even in its narrower scientific sense, however, the word aptitude is by no means consistently and clearly used in the literature on tests. In Warran’s Dictionary of Psychology (1934), it is defined as a condition or set of characteristics indicative of ability to learn. This implies that an aptitude is not necessarily an entity, but rather a constellation of entities and the set of characteristics which enable one person to learn something may even be difficult from that which enables another person to learn the same thing.

The word aptitude is derived from the word 'aptos' which means 'fitted for'. According to Bingham (1937), aptitude is a condition or set of characteristics regarded as symptomatic of an individual’s ability to acquire with training some usually specified knowledge, skill or set of responses such as the ability to speak language, to produce music...". This definition indicates distinctly that aptitude is not a unitary trait.

According to Freeman (1926), an aptitude is a combination of characteristics indicative of an individual's capacity to acquire (with training) some specific knowledge skill or set of organized responses, such as the ability to speak a language, to become a musician, to do mechanical work".

According to English and English (1958), aptitude may be regarded as "the capacity to acquire proficiency with a given amount of training". Here it has been emphasized that the aptitude refers to the capacity of an individual to be skilled in some work, receiving formal or informal training.
In Dictionary of Education by Good (1959), aptitude is defined as a pronounced innate capacity for or ability in a given line of endeavour such as a particular art, school subject or vocation. Thus, in this definition, aptitude refers to an individual's inborn capacities or potentialities which are indicative of some specific abilities.

Thus, aptitude is a capacity to learn certain skills and abilities which are necessary for success in a particular area of work. Teaching aptitude is concerned with the long run satisfaction and success of the teacher on the job. Any one who is to become a teacher needs an intellect capable of grasping not only the subject matter and its place in the curriculum but also the aims and processes of education. Teaching aptitude plays a very important role in teacher effectiveness. Therefore, it is very necessary to define these traits precisely and measure them adequately, so that suitable environment may be provided in the school for the professional growth of the teacher and for allround development of personality of a child.