CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
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Education is an essential concomitant of all human societies. In the overall paradigm of development, education is an important index of human resource development. It is the innermost call of human kind to evolve, innovate and reach its pinnacle. Education is the organized and sustained instruction designed to communicate a combination of knowledge, skills and understanding valuables for all the activities of life. It is universally acknowledged as the master key that alone can open the doors to peace, progress and prosperity, thereby providing the most powerful strategy to face the challenges that the future holds in store for human beings. Education is a catalyst of national development and the rate of progress or decline of a nation is the function of education. The Education Commission (1964-66) has remarked, “The destiny of India is being shaped in her classrooms. In a world based on science and technology, it is education that determines the level of prosperity, welfare and security of people.”

Highlighting the important function of school education Delor’s Report (1996) says, “The new challenges facing education to contribute to help people understand and to some extent come in terms with the phenomenon of globalization and to foster social cohesion must be met from primary and secondary schools onwards”. Schools are the significant formal organizations created for providing education and are expected to perform the role of socializing and educating children according to multicultural globalized society. The persons who are largely responsible for the fortune of these enterprises are the teachers. Teacher is the cornerstone of the arch of education. Delor’s Report (1996) further says, “You cannot have good schools unless you have good teachers. The two are inseparable; it is impossible to have high quality education unless there are high quality teachers”. The success of educational process depends to a great extent on the character and ability of the teachers.
As primary architects of their own classrooms and school practices, teachers are moral practitioners of educational change, undoubtedly the quality of school education is the direct consequence and outcome of the quality of teachers. The *Ministry of Education* (1985) in its document mentions, “Teacher performance is the most crucial input in the field of education. Whatever policies may be laid down in the ultimate analysis, these have to be interpreted and implemented by the teachers as much through their personal examples as through teaching-learning process. Of all the different factors which influence the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the quality, competence and character of teacher are undoubtedly the most significant.”

Any meaningful improvement in the quality of education that students receive is highly dependent on the quality of instructions that teachers provide. In other words, educational effectiveness depends to a great extent on teacher effectiveness. *The Secondary Education Commission* (1953) also points out that every teacher and educationist from experience knows that even the best curriculum and the perfect syllabus remains dead unless quickened into life by the right methods of teaching and the right kind of teachers. For imparting good education a good teacher is needed, all other things related to infrastructure are secondary.

### 2.1 TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

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 judgments and adequate personal adjustment of the pupil.

*Yashpal Committee Report* (1992) states, “The teacher is engaged in the most dedicated task of human engineering with whatever resources and tools are available to him. All fine materials, best textbooks, modern gadgets and laboratory equipments will turn to dust in the hands of an incompetent teacher. Only that teacher who knows his art, has a sense of purpose and has the
necessary enthusiasm to share his learning with his students will deliver the goods.”

Teacher effectiveness means perfection or the optimum level of efficiency and productivity on the part of the teacher. Generally speaking, effect of an ability is observed in the act. An impressive performance indicates the effectiveness of the ability. If teaching ability is teaching potential, teaching effectiveness is the measure of the ability plus the efforts made. Thus, teaching ability is the potential of a teacher.

According to American Educational Research Association (1952), “Teacher effectiveness refers to the capacity of the teacher to realize some of the educational objectives like desired pupil behaviour, abilities, habits and characteristics.”

Good (1959) defines teacher effectiveness as the ability and interaction between the physical, intellectual and psychological interests of the students, context matter, ability of the teacher and the evaluative procedures.

Evans (1961) states, “Effectiveness cannot be a permanent label to be attached to a teacher because effectiveness is the result of the interaction between teacher and the taught.”

Flanders & Simon (1969) define teacher effectiveness in terms of qualities like sense of humor, ability to explain, ability to understand, ability to manage class and helping and being fair with students.

Vogt (1984) relates effective teaching to the ability to provide instructions to different students of different abilities while incorporating instructional objectives and assessing the effective learning mode of the students.

Teacher effectiveness is the ability of a teacher to create a meeting and an interaction between the physical, intellectual and psychological interests of the students. It is the ability of teacher to relate the learning abilities to the development process of learner and to their current and immediate interests and needs. Teacher effectiveness depends on the factors involved in successful teaching which are intricately interwoven with student variables and the
environment factors of the specific systems in which teaching activity takes place.

Teacher effectiveness can be differentiated from teacher performance and teacher competence. ‘Teacher performance’ is related to behaviour of the teacher while teaching a class and ‘teacher competence’ refers to the set of knowledge, abilities and beliefs a teacher possesses and brings to the teaching situation. Teacher effectiveness refers to the effects that the teacher’s performance has on pupils. Another term frequently used is traits that the teacher possesses. These teacher traits describe what the teachers are while behaviors refer to what the teachers do.

2.1.1 Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness

Klausmeier and Ripple (1971) have referred to three criteria of teacher effectiveness: process, product and presage.

Process refers to the performance and behaviour of the teacher, student behaviour and the student-teacher interaction in the classroom. Teacher effectiveness, according to this criterion, is assessed through observation of teacher behaviour and student behaviour.

Product refers to what is learned or the outcomes of learning. Individuals who prefer this criterion think that the best test of teacher effectiveness is how well students achieve. Achievement tests and other measures in the cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains are used to measure teacher effectiveness according to this criterion.

Presage refers to the academic (intellectual ability, training and education) background and personal characteristics of teacher. According to this criterion, teacher effectiveness is assessed from the teachers test scores and ratings usually made outside the classroom.

Product and process are direct determinants of teacher effectiveness, presage being the indirect determinant.
Jenkins and Bausell (1974) have listed 16 criteria of teacher effectiveness. These are:

- Relationship with class (good rapport)
- Willingness to be flexible
- Effectiveness in controlling class
- Capacity to perceive world from students point of view
- Personal adjustment and character
- Influence on students behaviour
- Knowledge of subject matter
- Ability to personalize teaching
- Extent to which verbal behaviour in classroom is student centered
- Extent to which inductive methods are used
- Amount students learn
- General knowledge and understanding of educational facts
- Civic responsibility (Patriotism)
- Performance in student teaching
- Participation in community and professional activities
- Years of teaching experience.

Collins (1990) established five criteria for an effective teacher i.e. an effective teacher is committed to students and learning, knows the subject matter, is responsible for managing students, can think systematically about own practice and is an active member of learning community.

Bhushan and Ahuja (2002) remark that teaching is a system consisting of three types of variables: input, process and output variables.

Input variables include first, the entry status of learner’s capabilities, potential and skills and secondly, the teacher’s equipment, his status of knowledge of subject matter, communication skills, his dynamism and other aspects of personality. The constituents of input variables are the material facilities available in the instructional environment.
Process variables refer to all the components of the teaching learning process. It comprises of content instruction and the media. The content variable includes the sequence and organization of the components of knowledge in the subject matter and continuous inflow of the content through various techniques such as lectures, discussions and questions in expository or enquiry model.

Output variables include the description of terminal behaviour. The desired educational outcomes cover all the cognitive components and the desirable attitudes, the values and also the various types of manual and mechanical skills.

Mathew (2006) emphasizes on continuous reflection and self-assessment as the important criteria for teacher development. Teacher has been termed as “reflective practitioner”, because reflection is an active mental process. The teachers are engaged in four kinds of reflections: The holistic reflection (where the emphasis is upon vision and culture building), pedagogical reflection (which is related to high quality teaching and learning, motivating, supporting and providing feedback), interpersonal reflection (which is about knowing, understanding and interacting empathetically with the students) and intrapersonal reflection (where the focus is on self as a life long learner, self knowledge, self development and fulfillment).

There is no universal criterion for assessing effective teaching. Attempts have been made to assess the teacher effectiveness by measuring change in student behaviour, teacher’s communication style, teacher’s self rating, peer evaluation, class visitation, student rating of instruction and alumni rating. Student evaluation of teacher performance is one of the most controversial techniques used to identify teacher effectiveness. Students lack the maturity and expertise to make judgement about course content or teaching style, students ratings are measures of popularity rather than ability, other variables (such as grade received from teacher, class size, or whether the course was required or elected) affect students ratings (Mohanty, 2006).
2.1.2 Characteristics of an Effective Teacher

Effective teachers are those who achieve the goals they set for themselves as have set for them by others. Effective teachers must possess the knowledge and skills needed to attain the goals and must be able to use that knowledge and those skills appropriately to achieve those goals.

Barr and Emans (1930) have found six characteristics of teacher effectiveness such as classrooms management, instructional skill, personal fitness, professional preparations, efforts towards self improvement in work and ability to work with others.

Alaxander (1960) has outlined the characteristics of an effective teacher as follows: (1) Personal equipment (concern for the individual, emotional stability, enthusiasm, intelligence, integrity, knowledge, personal charm and skill in communication). (2) Ways of teaching (effective relations with individual pupils, adequate planning and preparation, wise use of teaching aids, involvement of pupils in varied learning experiences, active leadership of the learning group). (3) Professional behaviour (helping other teachers of school, cooperating responsibilities, cooperating in educational improvement, strengthening professional organizations, maintaining ethical relations with the school administration and the public).

Ryans (1969) remarked that the concept of effective teaching must be considered to be relative to at least two major sets of conditions: The social and cultural group in which the teacher operates, involving social values which frequently differ from person to person, community to community, culture to culture and time to time and the grade level and subject matter taught.

Ryans (1969) further prepared a list of teacher effectiveness characteristics and concluded that friendly, understanding and responsible, systematic and business-like teachers are more effective.

Rosenshine and Furst (1971) identified teacher behavior variables that contributed to teaching effectiveness as: variability, enthusiasm; task oriented, providing student’s opportunities to learn, using student ideas, amount of
criticism (negatively correlated), using structuring comments, types of questioning, probing student responses and level of difficulty of instructions.

Adaval (1979) has listed following ten qualities of a successful teacher as emerged from his study in order of frequency: friendliness, cheerfulness, sense of humor, honesty, impartiality, fairness, love for children, affectionate, sympathetic intuition, sympathy and understanding, character, moral integrity, uprightness, presence of physical qualities, appearance, impressiveness, sociability, extraversion, love, loyalty, idealism for the profession, Patience, sincerity and earnestness.

According to Medley (1982), the possession of knowledge and skills falls under the rubric of teacher competence whereas the use of knowledge and skills in the classroom is referred to as teacher performance and both are linked with the accomplishment of teacher goals.

Suydam (1983) indicated that effective teachers let pupils know that they are concerned about their achievement; offer encouragement; involve students through questions and discussions; minimize waste time; allow few distractions and interruptions; establish and follow simple, consistent rules; monitor pupil’s behaviour carefully; move around the classroom and give clear directions.

Millions (1987) based effectiveness on the lesson design and method of delivery. If teachers met a preset list of criteria during their evaluation they were deemed effective.

Porter and Brophy (1988) say that the degree to which a given teacher is effective depends to a certain extent on the goals being pursued by that teacher.

Richardson and Arundell (1989) state that effective teacher gives a variety of examples; properly plans lessons; is knowledgeable of subject matter and student learning.

According to Roth (1999) effective teacher acts as a reflective practitioner through the following practice processes:

- An effective teacher questions what, why and how one thinks; asks what why and how others think.
- Emphasizes inquiry as a tool of learning.
• Suspends judgement, waits for sufficient data or self-validate.
• Seeks alternatives.
• Keeps an open mind.
• Compares and contrasts.
• Views from various perspectives.
• Identifies test assumptions, seeks conflicting evidence.
• Puts into different varied contexts.
• Asks “what if.”
• Asks for others ideas and viewpoints.
• Adapts and adjusts to instability and change.
• Functions within uncertainty, complexity and variety.
• Hypothesizes.
• Considers consequences.
• Validates what is given or believed.
• Synthesizes and tests.
• Seeks, identifies and resolves problems.
• Initiates after thinking through alternatives, consequences or putting into context.
• Analyses what makes it work, what didn’t and why.
• Evaluates what worked, what didn’t and why.
• Uses prescriptive models only when adapted to the situation.
• Makes decisions in practice of profession.

Seldin (1999) suggested following characteristics of an effective teacher:
• Treats students with respect and caring.
• Provides the relevance of information to be learnt.
• Uses active, hand on student learning.
• Varies instructional modes.
• Provides frequent feedback to students on their performance.
• Offers real world practical examples.
• Draws inferences on assignments.
• Creates a class environment which is comfortable for students.

Hay McBer (2000) identified 12 teacher characteristics which are organized into four clusters: professionalism, thinking/reasoning, expectations and leadership.

• Professionalism: It comprises commitment, confidence, trustworthiness, respect, commitment to do everything possible for each student, enabling all students to be successful, belief in one’s ability to be effective, to take on challenges, being consistent, fair, keeping one’s word and belief that all individuals matter and deserve respect.

• Thinking/Reasoning: It includes analytical thinking, conceptual thinking, ability to think logically, break things down and recognize cause and effect, ability to identify patterns and connections, even when a great deal of detail is present.

• Expectations: It includes drive for improvement, information seeking and initiative, relentless energy for setting and meeting challenging targets for students and school, drive to find out more and get to the heart of things; intellectual curiosity and drive to act now and to anticipate events.

• Leadership: It includes flexibility, accountability and passion for learning, ability and willingness to adapt to the needs of a situation and change tactics, drive and ability to set clear expectations and parameters and hold others accountable for performance, drive and ability to support students in their learning and to help them become confident and independent learners.

Sullivan (2001) says that an effective teacher is one who demonstrates knowledge of the curriculum provides instructions in a variety of approaches to varied students and measurably increases student achievement.

2.1.3 Dimensions of Teacher Effectiveness

Several researchers have attempted to evaluate teacher effectiveness in terms of dimensions of teacher effectiveness.
Medley (1979) identified five different dimensions of an effective teacher. These are: desirable personal traits, use of effective methods, maintaining good classroom atmosphere, decision making ability and mastery of competencies.

Braslamp, Brandenburg and Ory (1984) recognized following dimensions for teacher effectiveness: Student–instructor interactions, instructor's professional and ethical characteristics or behaviours, student workload, what was learned in the course or curriculum, fairness of grading and the instructor's ability to communicate clearly.

Miller et al. (1989) mentioned five common performance areas for effective teachers: Productive teaching behaviours (which include designing life like situations and activities), organized and structured classroom management, positive interpersonal relationships, professional responsibilities (which include completing duties in a timely manner) and personal characteristics (which includes displaying personality traits such as humor and patience.

Arunachlam (1997) describes ten dimensions related to teacher effectiveness which refer to quality of the teacher acting as advisor and guide, rapport with students, teaching skills, classroom management, motivator, sense of humor, mastery in the subject, involvement in college activities, evaluation, respect to rules of the institutions.


Teacher effectiveness plays a pivotal role in teaching-learning process. Effective teacher provides learning opportunities for students through planning, stimulating activities, frequent evaluations and creating conducive physical and affective classroom atmosphere to encourage learning. Effective teacher possesses vast repertoire of instructional strategies and techniques that reflect
knowledge of the subject. Personality characteristics and interpersonal relations are the other essential factors constituting teacher effectiveness.

2.2 TEACHING STYLE

Teaching is an act of sharing knowledge, values, understanding, skills and competence by the teacher and student. It is a purposeful, dynamic and evolving activity. The teacher brings desired changes in the behaviour of the pupils by the influence of his own personality and the pupil is influenced by following him. In this way this process between teacher and pupils goes on, the efforts of the teacher are called teaching and the task performed by the pupil is termed as learning.

Smith (1960) says, “Teaching is a system of actions to induce learning.”

According to Gage (1963) teaching is interpersonal influence aimed at changing the behaviour potential of another person.

Mursell (1964) says that teaching provides direction to learning experiences. The learning activities are varied and complex and have to be harmonized into a meaningful whole.

In the words of Amidson (1967), “Teaching is defined as an interactive process, primarily class-room talk which takes place between teacher and pupil and occurs during certain definable activities”.

According to Robertson (1987), “Teaching is a generic term which denotes actions undertaken with the intention of bringing about learning in another”.

Thus, teaching is an organization of learning. Teacher sets educational objectives, develops curricula and instructional units, works with individual students as well as groups and tries a whole range of methods of interaction and instruction. Teaching may be described as the stimulation, guidance, direction and encouragement of learning which enables the child to respond to his environment effectively, thus, establishing a harmonious relationship among the teacher, the taught and the subject matter.
Research and practical experiences suggest that good teaching depends on a combination of personality traits, attitudes and knowledge as well as the ability to select and use appropriate instructional methods and techniques. The term “teaching style” has been used to describe this elusive mixture of qualities that characterize individual approaches to teaching (Hayes, 1989).

Teaching style refers to a person’s pervasive instructional qualities that persist even though instructional conditions may change (Fischer & Fischer, 1979).

Gregorc (1979) holds that different teachers bring their own uniqueness to the way they teach, called as teaching style.

In the words of Crow (1980), “A person’s values, beliefs and philosophy can easily be ascertained by the way he or she teaches. The instructional strategies and techniques that are adopted by a teacher bespeak his attitudes about himself, his students, and their respective roles in the teaching-learning process.”

According to Eble (1983), “Teaching style is a characteristic way a teacher goes about his work.”

Butler (1984) describes teaching style as a set of attitudes and actions.

Hansons and Silver (1986) consider teaching style as reflections of the individual value system regarding human nature and the kinds of goals and environment that enhance human learning.

According to Spear and Sternberg (1987), teaching style is important because by adopting a certain style teacher models a certain role for students. It is the mechanism responsible for how a teacher conveys the substance of his/her discipline.

According to Dunn and Frazier (1990), “Any good philosophy of education includes student’s growth and development through at least five central considerations: acquiring basic knowledge and skills, developing a love for learning, learning how to learn, releasing and fostering creativity and developing an increasingly positive self image. The realization of these exemplary goals for students depends in great measure on the development of
teacher strengths in a number of critical areas, which can be defined as teaching style.”

Dunn & Frazier (1990) assume that all teachers approach instruction from the basis of their belief systems. These beliefs involve value decisions that affect style by internally influencing teachers to choose various methods that are compatible with their teaching values.

Heimlich (1990) defines teaching style as the predilection towards behavior in the teaching-learning exchange that comes from values, beliefs, attitudes, aspirations and personal and social histories and cultures.

Grasha (1996) defines teaching style as reflected in how faculty present themselves to students, convey information, interact with learners, manage tasks, supervise work in progress and socialize learners in the field.

Reinsmith (1994) describes teaching style as the teacher’s presence, nature and quality of encounter with students.

According to Salem (2001), “Teaching style refers to the procedures or processes adopted and employed by teachers in order to achieve the day to day objectives of the lesson. It is the conglomerations of one’s views, convictions and approaches on the attainment of maximum results in the teaching learning process. Teaching styles are personal attributes of a teacher. They vary from one teacher to another.”

2.2.1 Dimensions of Teaching Styles

Felder and Silverman (1988) have proposed following dimensions of teaching styles:

- Context: It refers to what type of information is emphasized by the instructor: concrete – factual, or abstract, conceptual or theoretical.
- Presentation: It involves mode of presentation stressed: visual-pictures, diagrams, films, demonstrations or verbal lectures, readings, discussions.
Organization: It concerns how the presentation is organized: inductively—phenomenon leading to principles, or deductively—principles leading to phenomenon.

Student participation: It includes mode of student participation facilitated by the presentations: active—student talk, move, reflect or passive—students watch and listen.

Perspective: It refers to type of perspective provided on the information presented: sequential—step by step progression (the trees), or global—context and relevance (the forest).

Grasha (1996) categorised teaching styles into following:

Analytic/Synthetic Approach: It refers to the ability of a teacher to present and discuss theoretical issues and new development areas from several points of view, discuss points of view other than his/her own and contrasts implications of various theories.

Organisation /Clarity: It means that the teacher has clear course objectives and organizes the information for students to learn, explains materials clearly and is well prepared.

Teacher-Group Interaction: It refers to the extent to which discussions and a mutual sharing of ideas on issues occurs in class and to encourage class discussion and to invite criticism of own ideas.

Teacher-Individual Student Interaction: It concerns that the instructor is approachable, interested in students and respect them, relates to students as individuals and is accessible outside of class.

Dynamism/ Enthusiasm: It refers to the degree to which the instructor is energetic, stimulating and enjoys teaching and is able to demonstrate that he/she enjoys teaching the content.

General Teaching Ability: It relates to the abilities that form a consistent pattern across different instructional styles, the instructor is able to stimulate intellectual curiosity of students, presents material in an interesting manner.
• Overload: It consists of the difficulty of course requirements and the amount of assigned course work.

• Structure: It is the ability of teacher to plan the details of class sessions and to organize according to a schedule.

• Quality: It refers to the concern that the teacher has for the quality of students work and their performance.

• Student-Teacher Rapport: It deals with the nature and quality of teacher-student interaction within the classroom.

Pratt (2002) presents five perspectives on teaching. These perspectives range from a teacher-centered focus to a learner-centered focus. The teacher can employ following teaching approaches:

• Transmission: Teachers focus on content and determine what students should learn and how they should learn it. Feedback is directed to student’s errors.

• Developmental: Teachers value student’s prior knowledge and direct student learning to the development of increasingly complex ways of reasoning and problem solving.

• Apprenticeship: Teachers provide students with authentic tasks in real work settings.

• Nurturing: Teachers focus on the interpersonal elements of student learning-listening, getting to know students and responding to students’ emotional and intellectual needs.

• Social Reforms: Teachers tend to relate ideas explicitly to the lives of the students.

Woods (1995) classified teaching styles into following three general categories:

• Discipline-centered teaching style: In this style the course has a fixed structure. The needs, concerns and requirements of teacher and students are not considered because the course is driven by and depends mainly on the disciplinary content to be presented. The teacher transmits
information, but the content is dictated by some separate authority such as department, syllabus committee or textbook author.

- Instructor-centered teaching style: The teacher acts as a model of the educated person and is regarded as the authoritative expert, the main source of knowledge and the focal point of all activity. The student is the passive recipient of the information already acquired by the teacher.

- Student-centered teaching style: It focuses on the cognitive development of the students. The teacher's goal is to help students grasp the development of knowledge as a process rather than a product. Students create their own conceptual or cognitive models. Content, teaching style and methods are adapted to aid the cognitive and intellectual growth of the students. Student-centered teaching combines an understanding of the way that humans process information with other factors that affect learning such as attitudes, values, beliefs and motivation.

2.2.2 Models of Teaching Styles

There are a myriad of teaching style definitions and instruments developed to assess individual teaching style preferences. An overview of these models is as follows:

**Dunn & Dunn Model** Dunn and Dunn (1979) maintained that teaching styles are comprised of following six major elements:

- **Instructional Planning:** It involves diagnosing learner needs, selecting learning objectives and determining teaching methods and instruction strategies for delivering information.

- **Teaching Methods:** It refers to teacher's behaviour in the classroom to facilitate student learning and interacting.

- **Teaching Environment:** It is related to room design, seating arrangements, learning place and provisions for mobility.

- **Evaluation Techniques:** These include methods such as paper and pencil assessment, observational activities, performance based testing and self evaluation.
- Teaching Characteristics and Classroom Management: These encompass the values and standards held by the teacher, level of perceived importance of information, degree of flexibility provided in teaching learning process.

Educational Philosophy: An overall attitude towards the teaching learning process which form the basis of its belief system.

Each of these elements combined over time form a teacher’s particular style, which differently affects student learning in different settings (Dunn & Frazier, 1990).

While Dunn and Dunn (1979) included teaching methods as an element in their teaching style model, Heredia (1999) argued that teaching styles are separate from teaching methods.

In the words of Heredia (1999), “Teaching styles are supposed to define the behaviours that teachers exhibit as they interact with learners. In applying teaching style categories to their practice, teachers should strive to identify the categories that best characterize them regardless of the methods that they use.”

Dunn & Dunn (1979) define teaching method as a teachers approach to information delivery and choices of interacting with students.

Fischer and Fischer Model  Fischer and Fischer (1979) define teaching style as “a classroom mode, a pervasive way of approaching the learners that might be consistent with several methods of teaching. Teaching styles are categorized as task oriented, cooperative planned, child centered, learning centered, subject centered and emotionally exciting”.

Conti Model  Conti (1989) established that teaching styles comprise of seven factors: learner – centered activities, personalizing instructions, relating to experience, assessing student needs, climate building, participation in the learning process and flexibility for personal development.

Heimlich Model  Heimlich (1990) identified sensitivity and inclusion as the two domains of teaching style. The sensitivity domain is based on the ability of the teacher to sense the shared characteristics of the group learners. The inclusion domain is the teacher’s willingness and ability to utilize techniques to
enhance the learning experiences based on the group’s characteristics. Within these two domains, teaching styles can be labeled as expert, provider, facilitator and enabler.

- **Expert**: This teaching style is subject oriented, seeking efficiency through lectures.
- **Provider**: This teaching style is learner-centered, utilizing group discussions and demonstrations.
- **Facilitator**: This teaching style is teacher-centered, focusing instructions more upon subject matter than learners.
- **Enabler**: This teaching style is learner-centered, encouraging learners to define both the activity and the process.

**Joyce and Weil Model** Joyce and Weil (1992) grouped teaching styles into four families.

- **Social family model**: It focuses on strategies designed to build learning communities and include structured inquiry, group investigation, role playing and jurisprudential inquiry.
- **Information-processing family model**: It includes inductive thinking, mnemonics, advance organizers, scientific inquiry.
- **Personal family model**: It focuses on developing partnerships between teacher and students through non-directive teaching and methods that help enhance student self esteem and self-understanding.
- **Behavioral systems family model**: These are guided by social learning theory and include mastery learning, direct instruction and stimulation.

**Grasha Model** Grasha (1996) developed teaching style inventory by which individuals could determine their preferred teaching styles. These are categorized as expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator and delegator.

- **Expert**: strives to maintain status as an expert by displaying detailed knowledge, oversees, guides and directs students with frequent references to information and facts.
• Formal Authority: gains status among learners because of knowledge, position as a senior person in the field and whatever formal organization roles might be held, oversees, guides and directs by referencing the correct, acceptable and standard ways to do something.

• Personal Model: believes in leading through personal example, oversees, guides and directs by showing learners how to do things by encouraging them to observe and then emulate teacher’s approach.

• Facilitator: incorporates a flexible approach to lesson delivery, oversees, guides and directs learners by asking questions, exploring options, suggesting alternatives and helping them to develop criteria to make informed choices about course of action.

• Delegator: uses a student centered approach towards teaching by encouraging students to take responsibility and initiative while developing their capacity to function in an autonomous fashion.

Research findings of Grasha (2002) have indicated that most faculties exhibit a blending of styles that become dominate in teaching. Grasha (2002) found that these five teaching styles converge into four different clusters.

• Cluster-1 Expert/Formal Authority: This cluster tends towards teacher-centered classrooms in which information is presented and students receive knowledge.

• Cluster-2 Personal Model/Expert/Formal Authority: This cluster of teaching styles refers to a teacher-centered approach that emphasizes modeling and demonstration. Their approach encourages students to observe processes as well as context.

• Cluster-3 Facilitator/Personal Model/Expert: This cluster of teaching styles presents a student-centered model for the classroom. The teacher designs activities, social interactions or problem solving situations that allow students to practice the processes for applying course content.

• Cluster-4 Delegator/Facilitator/Expert: This cluster places much of the learning burden on the students. Teachers provide complete tasks that required student initiative and often group work to complete.
Clusters 1 and cluster 2 can be clubbed under teacher-centered clusters and cluster 3 and cluster 4 fall under student-centered clusters.

**Benzie Model** Benzie (1998) describes four basic teaching styles that operate on a continuum, where the characteristics of each style range from being teacher-centered on the left to the student-centered on the right.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s experience</th>
<th>Learner’s experience</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td>Suggestive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative</td>
<td>Facilitative</td>
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- **Assertive style**: In this style teacher gives directions, asks direct questions and gives information. It is driven by a lecture mode with the teacher being active and the students being passive.
- **Suggestive style**: Here teacher suggests alternatives, offers opinions and relates personal experiences.
- **Collaborative style**: In this style teacher elicits student ideas, explores student ideas and invites personal experiences. There is greater emphasis on student involvement.
- **Facilitative style**: In this teaching style teacher asks open, reflective questions, elicits student feelings, offers feelings and encourages/uses silence.

**Canfield and Canfield Model** Canfield and Canfield (1999) categorized teaching styles into social, independent style, applied and conceptual style.

- **Social Style preference**: It indicates social interaction between students and between student and instructor in the design and delivery of group discussions and teamwork oriented instruction.
- **The independent style**: In this style, teacher prefers to set self-paced situations in which students develop and pursue individual goals.
- **The applied style**: It focusses on realistic, authentic situations and working experiences.
- **The conceptual style**: The teacher prefers highly organized, language oriented activities such as reading and lecture.
Salem Model  

Salem (2001) classified teaching styles as following:

- **Visual Teaching Style**: The teacher presents the lesson through pictures, sketches, diagrams, graphs or other related illustrations.
- **Auditory Teaching Style**: The teacher lectures or gives oral explanations most of the time.
- **Tactile teaching Style**: The teacher adopts “hands-on” activities.
- **Kinesthetic Teaching Style**: The Teacher engages the students in physical movements as they learn the subject.
- **Group Teaching Style**: The teacher adopts group interaction and group discussion techniques in the teaching of lessons.
- **Individual Teaching Style**: The teacher requires individual recitations, individual projects, assignments etc.

The teachers exhibiting different teaching styles attempt to create in classrooms socio-psychological climate in consonant with their styles, (Schultz, 1982). Good teaching depends on a combination of personal traits, attitudes and knowledge as well as ability to select and use appropriate instructional methods and techniques.

Knowledge of teaching styles will provide feedback to the educators for their performance in the classroom. It will help the teacher to know about positive and negative aspects of teaching thus, providing reinforcement for the positive points and an understanding for required modification and improvement in the teacher effectiveness.

### 2.3 PERSONALITY

Personality is the sum total of characteristics that differentiate people or the stability in a person’s behaviour across different situations.

According to Allport (1937), “Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psycho-physical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.”

Guilford (1959) defines personality as a, “person’s unique pattern of traits. It is the integration of an individual’s characteristic into a unique
organization that determines and is modified by his attempts at adaptation to his continually changing environment."

According to Callahan (1966), personality may be viewed as the dynamic organization of those traits and characteristic patterns of behaviour that are unique to the individual.

In the words of Cattel (1967), "Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation."

Holt (1971) says, "Personality is purely a matter of social perception - it is meaningless to speak of anyone's personality apart from the particular people who interact with him, get impression about him."

According to Maddis and Mischel (1976), "Personality is the relatively stable and distinctive style of thought, behaviour and emotional responses that characterize a person's ability to adapt to surrounding circumstances."

Rauf (1976) describes personality as a dynamic organization of all the constituent traits of an individual and is unique combination of physical, mental, social and moral into a well knit whole of an individual personality.

Sherman (1979) states, "Personality is the characteristic pattern of behaviours, cognitions and emotions which may be experienced by the individual and/or manifest to others."

Pervin (1980) says, "Personality represents those characteristics of the person or of the people that generally account for consistent patterns of responses to situations."

Thompson (1986) says, "Personality is the theoretical construct employed to focus attention on the individual as an integrated striving organism. It involves (1) the overall organization and the relative potencies of his psychological needs: (2) the manner in which he customarily tries to satisfy these needs, the various psychological-adjustment functions and: (3) the ways in which his individual style of living affects other personnel."

According to Hall and Lindzey (1989), personality consists concretely of a set of scores or descriptive terms that describe the individual being in
terms of variables or dimensions that occupy central position with the particular theory utilized.

According to Carver and Scheier (2000), personality is a dynamic organization, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create a person’s characteristic patterns of behavior, thought and feelings.

Ryckman (2004) defines personality as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations and behaviours in various situations.

Thus, personality is the entire mental organization of a human being at any stage of his development. It embraces every phase of human character, intellect, temperament, skill, morality and every attitude that has built the course of one’s life.

2.3.1 Personality Types

In the 1920s the idea of personality type was being explored by leading scientists and philosophers. Personality types are synonymous with personality styles. Personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of people. Personality typology assesses the personality as a whole. It does not study personality in fragments of traits. A type is simply a class of individuals said to share a common collection of characteristics. Type does not focus upon a single attribute but upon a syndrome of characteristics which are assumed to go together. For example, introverts could be described as people who share characteristics such as shyness, social withdrawal and a tendency not to talk much, while extroverts share a tendency to be outgoing, friendly and talkative. Personality type theory aims to classify people into distinct categories. Types refer to categories that are distinct and discontinous e.g., a person may be one or the other.

A trait is a simple behavioural pattern, a disposition or tendency to behave in a describable way. Traits are conceived of as being possessed by every individual to a greater or lesser extent so that when it is said that an individual is very unaggressive, the trait of “aggression” is still relevant to him. According to Allport (1937), a trait is more generalized than a habit, is dynamic
and determinative in behaviour, may be viewed either in the light of the personality which contains it, or in the light of its distribution in the population at large and cannot be proved non-existent by the sheer fact that some acts are inconsistent with it. Traits are generic terms covering all the general possibilities of action. They are viewed as more or less discrete characteristics which involve a particular level or particular quantity or propensity or probability for behaving in a certain way. Traits are usually assumed to be continuous, and varying in quantity, so there is usually an attempt to draw some sort of isomorphic relationship between the individual’s behaviour in a situation and the presence of a certain degree of the trait. Traits are not permanent or static characteristics of an individual because personality is undergoing perceptual change and also it is difficult to quantify traits as there is no zero reference and equality of units in trait measurement.

According to McClain (1987), “Personality type is an identifiable pattern in the manner that an individual prefers to perceive and make judgments. The type theories hold that it is possible to classify individuals into psychological or physical characteristics which they exhibit. On the other hand, personality trait is a particular quality of behaviour which characterizes an individual in wide range of his activities and is fairly consistent over a period of time.”

Personality ‘type approach’ differs from personality ‘trait approach’ on the personality dimension of ‘introversion-extraversion.’ A personality type approach says that an individual is either an introvert or extrovert. A personality trait approach says that an individual can be anywhere on a continuum ranging from introversion to extraversion, with most people clustering in the middle and fewer people towards the extremes. Type theory overlooks multi-dimensional and continuous nature of personality traits. Individual differences may be qualitative and quantitative, there may be differences in the qualities possessed by people and the quantity of the traits as believed by trait theory. Personality type approach has simple applicability and
a person centered relevance. Personality type conception has important implications for the kind of measures used to characterize personality.

2.3.2 Personality Type Taxonomies

The typological approach aims at describing personality in terms of types and traits and relating them to human behaviour. Charak Samhita of Ayurveda 3000 B.C. classifies people on the basis of three elements called doshas i.e. Vata, pitta and Kapha. Greek physician Hippocrates 400 BC proposed a typology based on fluid or humour i.e. sanguine, phlegmatic, choleric and melancholic. Sheldon (1940) used body build (somatyotypes as the basis of personality types i.e. ectomorphic, mesomorphic and endomorphic and related them to temperament and behaviour. http://www.wilderdon.com/Personalitv/L6-1Personality Types.html, 07/22/06.

Jung (1971) categorized people into definite personality types based on the outward and inward flow of their libido i.e. life energy. Jung (1971) asserted that a person’s psychological make-up (psyche) is always working on two levels: the conscious and the unconscious. Moreover, a person’s conscious and unconscious states are self-balancing, that is when conscious side or attitude becomes dominant, then the unconscious will manifest in some way to rectify the balance. Jung divided psychic energy into two basic general attitude types: introverted and extraverted. The extraverted attitude is oriented towards the external, outer world. The people who prefer this attitude would like to spend time interacting with the outside world, than dealing with the inner world of subjective experiences and mental events. The introverted attitude is oriented towards the inner, subjective world. People who prefer this attitude like to spend time in quite contemplation and reflection. In addition to the two attitudes of extraversion and introversion, Jung identified four basic psychological functions; thinking, feeling, sensation and intuition. A person’s preferred function being dominated and conscious, while the non-preferred function is auxiliary and unconscious.

According to Jung, thinking and feeling are rational functions because both of these functions evaluate and experience, they reason, decide and judge,
whereas sensation and intuition functions are irrational because they simply gather information and perceive the nature of things. They do not reason or decide or judge. Jung accordingly arranged these four functions as two pairs of opposites. Each person has a main natural conscious orientation towards one of the four functions, in which case the opposite function would be represented and compensated within the person’s unconscious. The two basic attitudes extraversion-introversion, when combined with four functions produce eight Jungian Types: Extroverted Thinking, Introverted Thinking, Extroverted Feeling, Introverted Feeling, Extroverted Sensation, Introverted Sensation, Extroverted Intuition and Introverted Intuition.

According to Jung, both introvert and extrovert tendencies are ordinarily present in the personality of an individual but one of them is found to be dominant, thus making the person into a particular type. Moreover, an individual may also be seen to shift from one orientation introvert or extrovert, to the other e.g. an introvert may behave in a gregarious fashion in response to some particular environmental situation and vice-versa.

Hans Eysenck (1952) described extraversion-introversion as the degree to which a person is outgoing and interactive with other people. These behavioural differences are presumed to be the result of underlying differences in brain physiology. Eysenck proposed that extraversion was caused by variability in cortical arousal; introverts are characterized by higher levels of activity than extroverts and so are chronically more cortically aroused than extroverts. Because extroverts are less aroused internally they require more external stimulation than introverts.

Myers and Briggs (1962) extended Jung’s types by adding a judging/perceiving function to the personality classification and thus, doubling the number of personality types to sixteen. Introversion (I)-Extraversion (E), Sensing(S)-Intuition(N) Thinking(T)-Feeling(F) and Judging(J)-Perceiving(P). An individual’s type is expressed as one of the sixteen possible combinations of these preferences.
The trait of extraversion-introversion is a central dimension of human personality. Extraversion is the act, state or habit of being predominantly concerned with and obtaining gratification from what is outside the self. Extroverts tend to enjoy human interaction and are enthusiastic, talkative, assertive and gregarious. Extroverts take pleasure in activities that involve social gatherings, enjoy risk taking and often show leadership qualities. An extrovert is energized when around other people. An extrovert is fluent in speech, free from worries, likes to work with others, friendly, not easily embarrassed, interested in outdoor activities, governed by objective data, flexible and adaptable, neglectful of ailments and personal belongings, aggressive, unscrupulous and popular with people.

Introversion is the state of or tendency toward being wholly or predominantly concerned with and interested in one’s own mental life. Introverts tend to be quiet, low-key, deliberate and relatively non-engaged in social situations. An introvert is energized when alone. An introvert is better in writing than speech, inclined to worry, likes to work alone, rather reserved, easily embarrassed, fond of books and magazines, more influenced by subjective feeling, lacking in flexibility, careful about ailments and personal belongings, submissive, scrupulous and not popular with people.

To conclude, the theories of personality types imply that each individual has a natural conscious orientation that falls into one psychological type or the other in each of the four areas described by Jung i.e. one individual is primarily extroverted or introverted, sensing or intuitive, thinking or feeling and judging or perceiving. People’s preferences for each of these functions vary, with these differences giving rise to the individual differences among people. Extraversion and introversion have their own special dynamics and both attitudes have progressive and regressive properties (Ryckman, 2004).