CHAPTER III

PROBLEM

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Teaching behaviour may be studied at different levels,
depending upon the purpose to be served by the inquiry (64).
Perhaps the most elementary form of inquiry is what may be
called "natural history". Another form of investigation is
to make an effort to discover the correlates of a given
phenomenon. Inquiries of this kind are usually referred to
as correlational studies - studies requiring no deliberate
variation of conditions. There have been many such studies
of teaching behaviour done mainly in order to find ways of
identifying and predicting teaching. At the third level
of analysis, the determinants of teaching behaviour become
the objectives of inquiry. Rigorous studies at this level
proceed by hypothetico-deductive methods - wherein definitions
and postulates become the logical bases of the hypotheses
to be tested experimentally.

The problem of the present research, "Personality, Attitudes and Classroom Behaviour of Teachers" is a study of the first and second levels mentioned above, wherein four dimensions of teacher behaviour and one dimension of student behaviour are identified, and correlated with personality traits and attitudes of the teacher and a prediction is made on the basis of these variables.

The four dimensions of teacher behaviour are I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, and Teacher's Accepting Behaviour of Student's Ideas (Category 3, one of the components of indirect behaviour). The one dimension of student behaviour is student Initiation (Category 9, one of the two categories of student talk or behaviour).

These dimensions of behaviour are adapted from Flanders Interaction Category System. The system is made up of 10 categories (refer Table 1 in Chapter Four) of which 1 to 7 are for teacher talk, 8 to 9 for student talk, and the last for silence, pauses or confusion. Teacher talk is further divided into indirect and direct influence. Categories 1 to 4 (Accepts Feeling, Praises or Encourages, Accepts or Uses Ideas of Student and Asks Questions), are meant for indirect influence. Categories 5 to 7 (Lecturing, Giving Directions, and Criticizing or Justifying Authority) account for direct influence. Category 8 is meant for Student Response and Category 9 for Student Initiation.

I/D ratio is the proportion of indirect behaviour to direct behaviour including content emphasis, whereas i/d ratio is content free and reflects affective behaviour only. I/D ratio is computed by adding the frequencies in categories 1 to 4 and dividing them by the total of frequencies in categories 5 to 7. Similarly, i/d is obtained by totalling the frequencies of categories 1, 2 and 3 and dividing by the frequencies in categories 6 and 7. T/S ratio is the proportion of Teacher Talk to student talk which is obtained by adding the frequencies in categories 1 to 7 and dividing them by the total of frequencies in categories 8 and 9. Since the observation periods of teachers varied they affected the frequencies in categories 3 and 9 (Teacher's Accepting Behaviour of Student's Ideas and Student Initiation) and therefore to maintain uniformity among them, they were converted into percentages. The percentages were obtained dividing the frequencies in categories 3 and 9 by the total number of frequencies in 1 to 10 and multiplying by 100.

Before describing the dependent and independent variables of the study and before formulating the hypotheses it is considered desirable to be clear about the definitions of personality traits, attitude, and teacher behaviour accepted for the present study.

Personality Trait

"A trait is the learned tendency of an individual to react as he has reacted more or less successfully in the past

in similar situations when similarity motivated"(60). Trait psychology endeavours to explain recurrent responses and consistencies in behaviour. In terms of this definition a trait is a function of heredity, learning, similar situations, and similar motivation.

Attitude

There are several popular definitions given by different social scientists of the term attitude. One definition is that an attitude is a tendency to act (14). Baldwin (31) defines it as readiness for attention or action. Remmers and associates (75) define it as feeling for or against something. According to Thurstone (27) an attitude is a degree of positive or negative affect associated with some psychological object. By psychological object he means any issue under study such as school, church, education system etc. The definition, accepted in present work is the last one given by Thurstone.

Teacher Behaviour

Ryans defines teacher behaviour as the behaviour or activities of persons as they go about doing whatever is required by them, particularly those activities which are concerned with the guidance or direction of the learning of others. According to Flanders teacher behaviour can be defined as those acts of the teacher which occur in the context of classroom interaction. Since teacher behaviour

directly affects student behaviour and brings a change,
Flanders calls it teacher influence. There are two types of
influences that the teacher generates during the course of
teaching. They are direct and indirect. Direct influence
restricts the freedom of action of students to take part in
teaching learning process, while indirect influence increases
freedom of action, thereby allowing students to take active
participation in teaching-learning process. Since present
inquiry makes use of Flanders system the same definition of
teacher behaviour is retained.

IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM

What is the importance of the problem ? What are its
objectives ? Questions of this sort often arise whenever any
research is undertaken. It is obvious and known to all
people concerned with teaching that it depends on teacher
behaviour, the process, the ways, the modus operandi the
teacher adopts in imparting knowledge and several similar
factors. Teaching is composed of several different activi-
ties which are varied, complex, fluid, and continuous. In
order to have a better insight into and a better understanding
of teaching to make improvements in it, it is necessary to
identify and describe the various dimensions and variables of
teaching behaviour. The present work is distinctive from
two points of view. Firstly, it differs from the traditional
method of studying teacher behaviour which involves value
judgment. Instead, it uses observation technique which

enables one to record the teacher behaviour objectively
and accurately. Secondly, it makes an effort to determine
the relationship between teacher behaviour and his personality
and attitudes; for once significant relationships are
determined between teacher behaviour and personality and
attitudes, it will be easy to predict teacher behaviour or
behaviour patterns.

DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT
VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

In the present investigation I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S
ratio, Category 3 (Teacher's accepting Behaviour of Student's
Ideas) and Category 9 (Student's Initiating Behaviour) are
studied as dependent variables, while personality and
attitudinal variables are studies as independent variables.
In all there are 15 independent variables - seven personality
traits and eight attitude measures. The personality traits
are (1) Active, (2) Vigorous, (3) Impulsive, (4) Dominant,
(5) Stable (Emotionally), (6) Sociable, and (7) Reflective.
The attitudes are those that are toward (8) Management,
(9) Parents, (10) Other Teachers, (11) Democratic Administra-
tive Procedures, (12) Pupils, (13) Democratic Classroom
Procedures, (14) Teaching Profession, and (15) Education.

DESCRIPTION OF DEPENDENT VARIABLES

I/D RATIO, i/d RATIO, AND T/S RATIO

In a classroom situation the possibility of continuing
interaction between teacher and pupils exists. This inter-
action can be either with reference to a particular topic of
discussion or the interaction is because of communication
process between the teacher and students. Whereas the inter-
action generated through the discussion of a particular topic
is highly related to the content of the topic and therefore
is characterized by specificity, the second type of inter-
action is more general as the basis for it is the nature of
communication rather than the content of communication.
Flanders Interaction Category System has provided for the
measurement of both the types of interaction. I/D ratio
measures the first type of interaction whereas i/d ratio
measures the second type of interaction. I/D ratio will be
desirable measure of interaction wherein the researcher
proposes to measure the classroom behaviour of teachers of a
particular subject. This, however, does not mean that I/D
ratio cannot be used when the content differs. I/D ratio
can also be used in measuring interaction disregarding the
nature of content. i/d ratio is a desirable measure when
the interaction generated through the communication process
of a general type is to be sonsidered. The i/d ratio is a
good measure of the affective climate. In addition to these
two measures a third measure giving a measure of the classroom

communication is T/S ratio which is actually a comparative
measure of teacher's talk to student's talk. A higher value
of T/S ratio indicates a teacher dominated class whereas a
lower value of T/S value indicates a greater involvement of
pupils in the teaching-learning process.

TEACHER'S ACCEPTING BEHAVIOUR OF
STUDENTS' IDEAS - CATEGORY THREE (C_3)

A teacher can respond to ideas expressed by pupils by
(a) acknowledging the pupil's idea by repeating the nouns
and logical connectives just expressed; (b) modifying the
idea, rephrasing it, or conceptualizing it in the teacher's
own words; (c) applying the idea, using it to reach an
inference or taking the next step in a logical analysis of
a problem; (d) comparing the ideas, drawing a relationship
between the pupil's idea and one expressed earlier by either
pupil or teacher; and (e) summarizing what wa
s said by a
pupil or a group of pupils. In the Flanders Category System
all of these different teacher responses are included in
Category 3. However, as one proceeds from responses (a) to
(e) above, it is highly probable that more elapsed time
would be required, the further down the list one goes.
Because more time is involved two or more coded 3's are often
used with teacher responses like (b) through (e) which
distinguishes them from the more superficial (a) response.

The incidence of category 3 appears to be associated
with above average classroom measures of both content
achievement and positive pupil attitudes towards school work
and the teacher. Conservative and restrained use of this
category by an observer should enhance its diagnostic
utility. Category 3 is used most frequently, when the
cognitive orientation of the teacher incorporates ̶i̶t̶ the ideas
expressed by the pupils. When there are many 3's in the
profile of one observation, compared with another, the
appropriate inference is that the higher incidence of 3's
indicates that the teacher attended to pupil ideas and
integrated them into the classroom discourse through his own
active response statements. In this way the pupils are
encouraged to take the initiative so there can be more
teacher response. Here are some illustrations of category
3 statements set in the context of class discussion.

 (1) S : "The rain on the desert would make many
      plants grow".

     T : "Mary thinks plant would grow because of the
      rain. Would you agree or disagree, Jerry ?

 (2) S : "The rain on the desert would make many
      plants grow".

     T : "O.K., that is one suggestion, who has another?"

 (3) S : "People would come to live on the desert and
      there would be cilities and everything".

     T : "Jane thinks that fertility of the soil is
      necessary to support a high concentration
      of people".

In item 13, the teacher acknowledges Mary's statement
and refers it to another pupil to support, modify, or
refute. This would be coded 3, since the teacher is
attending to pupil's ideas and asking questions based on
pupil ideas. It must be borne in mind that a teacher
question based on pupil ideas is not coded 4 (asks questions).
Item (2) is much more difficult, since it comes very close
to rejecting rather than using a pupil idea. For example,
should a teacher continue to use this response, it seems
quite probable that after about the third or fourth time the
pupils would talk less enthusiastically. On the other hand,
if it was agreed that many ideas were to be suggested in a
kind of brain-storming pattern, and if each idea were being
written on the black-board, then the teacher's response in
(2) might be seen by most of the pupils as acceptance and
utilization of their ideas. As it stands this statement
should probably be classified with a 4.

Item (3) raises a host of problems concerned with
synonyms, paraphrase, abstracting, and subtle changes of
meaning. In (3) Jane did not say what the teacher said.
Jane's ideas were translated by the teacher into his own
terms, presumably in order to push toward certain preferred
concepts which the teacher has in mind. The issue is whether
the teacher is introducing a new idea, which would be coded
5 or whether the teacher is building on Jane's idea which
would be coded 3. Based only on the evidence at hand, it
looks like too big a leap in abstraction and the teacher

statement could be coded as a 5. To give another example, suppose a teacher asks about the causes of World War II. A list of events is given by one student, and the teacher refers to these events by using the word "provocations" a word that the pupil did not use. How this is to be coded will depend on the circumstances, but the discussion does suggest a criterion. When a teacher makes use of an idea in such a way that you think the pupil would no longer recognize it as the one he suggested, do not use category 3. It may well be that one of the more important functions of teaching is to help youngsters so that they cluster their own ideas into a set, define the characteristics of that set, and then given it a label, thereby learning the power and efficiency of abstracting by actual practice. When the teacher takes over this function a most teachable moment may have been lost, even though useful new concepts have been introduced.

STUDENT INITIATION - CATEGORY NINE (C_9)

Pupil talk in terms of pupil initiation is coded with this category. There are several dimensions which help to separate pupil-response (Category 8) from pupil initiation (Category 9). Consider predictability of the answer, for example :

(1) T : "What is meant by 'county seat'?"

    S : It is the place where the county government exists".

(2) T : "What did you find most interesting about this unit on governmental systems ?"

    S : "I thought the way the lobbyists operate was very interesting."

Just from knowing the question in (1), one can predict that a correct answer will be a definition which should refer to "county seat". Question (2) is more open and even though it calls for an opinion, so many different answers could be given that the pupil has the opportunity to take some initiative. Thus, in (1) one would code the answer 8 and in (2) 9. It is helpful to think of teacher questions along a continuum of narrow to broad and use these impressions as ones for anticipating subsequent pupil statements.

Another dimension which enters into separating 8's from 9's is the voluntary embellishment or enlargement of a topic. Here the pupils' answer provides more information than was required by the question. For example :

(3) T : "Bill, did your family go camping this summer too ?"

    S : "Yes, we went camping up in the Northern part of the state, and you should have seen what happened the night a bear came prowling around the garbage cans ! "

The sequence code symbols to record all statements in
(3) would be 4, 8 and 9. A shift from 8 to 9 is more common
when pupils feel free to express their ideas. First, the
teacher's question is answered, then the pupil embellishes
the answer with additional information.

Another aspect of identifying 8's and 9's is the
contrast of indifference or conformity versus the expression
of will through independent judgment. Consider the following :

    (4) T : "Do you think we should plan a picnic ?"

        S : "Oh, I dunno. It's O.K. with me, I guess."

          (On the other hand, another pupil might say)

    (5). S : "Well, we have had several picnics and the
            weather is beginning to get worse. I think
            we should plan something interesting that
            we can do inside."

The code sequence in 4 would be 4, 8, but in (5) the
pupil statement reflects an independent judgment and can be
coded 9.

Another dimension which separates 8's from 9's is the
element of creativity and higher mental process compared
with non-creative and lower mental processes. However, a
pupil statement can sound creative when it is merely repeated
from memory. This is equally true of generalizations,
theorizing, the interpretation of data and synthesizing.
Consider these statements :

T : "What makes you think that our population has
more than doubled during this period ?"

(6) S : "It shows it on that graph in our book,ah, here
on page 67."

T : "What about the chart ? What part supports your
argument ?"

(7) S : "Well, it says in the book that the chart shows
that the population has more than doubled."

T : "O.K., thank you, Jim. Jane, what do you think ?"

(8) S : "Well, the bars in the chart shows that the
population is doubled. You can tell by the
height. But it is not clear where the another
got his figures, so we really do not know
whether to believe the graph or not."

The pupil responses in (6) and (7) reflect dependence
on the teacher's questions and on the authority of the book,
inspite of the efforts of the teacher to solicit the pupil's
own opinion and interpretation. Only in the last part of (8)
is there evidence to support the coding of the pupil initiation.

Distinguishing between 8's and 9's depends somewhat on
the purposes of the observation. Usually, teachers and
observers would like to infer, from the proportion of 9's
compared to all pupil talk something about the freedom of
pupils to express their own ideas, to suggest their own

approach to a problem, and to develop their own explanations
or theories. This may be accomplished more effectively when
the observer is conservative in his use of 9. For example,
not only will he use 8's when the evidence is clear, but he
will also use 8 for all cases in which there is some
reasonable doubt about 9. In this way, he reserves 9 for
those cases in which he is confident.

High relativity between observers in the use of 8 and 9
requires additional training, fairly constant communication
among observers, and usually live observation settings.
Distinguishing between 8's and 9's from a votce tape recording
is often very difficult if not possible.

One of the weaknesses of FCS is that category 9 is
the only code symbol which can be used for off-target remarks
by pupils, counter dependent statements, and resistance to
compliance. This is both cooperative as well as uncooperative,
initiation falls into the same category.

DESCRIPTION OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES -
PERSONALITY TRAITS

Active (A)

A person scoring high in this area usually works and
moves rapidly. He is restless whenever he has to be quiet.
He likes to be "on the go" and tends to hurry. He usually

speaks, walks, writes, drives, and works rapidly even these
activities do not demand speed.

Vigorous (V)

A person with a high score in this area participates in
physical sports, work requiring the use of tools, and outdoor
occupations. The area emphasizes physical activity using
large muscle groups and great expenditure of energy. This
trait is often described as "masculine" but many women and
girls will score high in this area.

Impulsive (I)

High score in this category indicates a happy-go-luky,
daredevil, carefree, acting on the spur-of-the-moment
disposition. The person makes decisions quickly, enjoys
competition, and changes easily from one task to another.
The decision to act or change is quick regardless of whether
the person moves slowly or rapidly (Active), or enjoys or
dislikes strenuous projects (Vigorous). A person who doggedly
"hangs on" when acting or thinking is typically low in this
area.

Dominant (D)

People scoring high on this factor think of themselves
as leaders, capable of taking initiative and responsibility.
They are not domineering even though they have leadership
ability. They enjoy public speaking, organizing social
activities, promoting new projects, and persuading others.

They are the ones who would probably take charge of the situation in case of an accident.

Stable (E for Emotionally Stable)

Persons who have high stable scores usually are cheerful and have an even disposition. They can relax in a noisy room, and they remain calm in crisis. They claim that they can disregard distractions while studying. They are not irritated if interrupted when concentrating, and they do not fret about daily chores. They are not annoyed by leaving a task unfinished or by having to finish it by a deadline.

Sociable (S)

Persons with high scores in this area enjoy the company of others, make friends easily, and are sympathetic, cooperative, and agreeable in their relations with people. Strangers readily tell them about their personal troubles.

Reflective (R)

High scores in this area indicate that a person likes meditative and reflective thinking and enjoys dealing with theoretical rather than practical problems. These people are usually quiet, work alone and enjoy work that requires accuracy and fine detail. They often take more than they can finish and they would rather plan a job than carry it out.

DESCRIPTION OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES -

TEACHERS' ATTITUDES

Attitudes are acquired, they are not born. They are formed in relation to situations, objects, persons or groups. Teacher's attitude toward management, parents, pupils and other teachers can best be understood by studying the various types of interaction and relationship the teacher has with them. In the following paragraphs these relationships are described.

Teachers and Management

If we look at the social hierarchy of the school, we find a clear-cut distinction in the positions of the teacher and the administrator (17). The teacher is near the bottom and the administrator near the top. The principal of the school is accepted by most teachers as the supreme authority of the school, "After all, he is the principal, he is the boss, what he says should go, you know what I mean .... He is the principal and he is the authority, and you have to follow his orders, that is all there is to it". But the teacher is subordinate not only to the principal. He is sometimes subordinate to specialists and always to superintendent and members of the Board of Education. In some ways he is subordinate to parents.

One of the first jobs of the teacher, then, is to strike a balance to the power structure of the school. He must be on good terms with the principal, the specialists, the superintendent, parents and members of the Board of Education. In accomplishing this diplomatic feat the teacher is in the position described in Crest-wood Heights, "He has to accomplish his end without antagonizing any of the numerous specialists encompassing his path, both within and marginal to the school system. More difficult still, he must attempt to please without appearing to do so. Like his opposite member the budding junior executive, if he tries too hard he runs counter to the maturity values which call for a high degree of independence and individuality. Yet if he does not try at all, he runs the risk of being thought apathetic, uncooperative, or lacking the professional interest.

The teacher is not his own boss. In contrast to the successful lawyer, dentist, doctor, or architect, he has restricted freedom of individual action. He does, however, have security of tennure in most places, whereas other professional practitioner do not. Nor does the teacher have any say in the election of his various bosses. The lawyer and doctor, although subject to strict control, do possess some power in electing officers of the professional association which regulates the practice of law and medicine. Thus other professionals are afforded a wider freedom of action than the teacher.

Perhaps the most crucial teacher-administrator relation-
ship is that between teacher and principal. Teaching and
learning take place in the local school and it is here that
relationships are most crucial in creating a proper climate
for learning. The relationships that the teacher and
principals develop among themselves determine the organizatio-
nal climate of the school.

Teachers and Parents

In the present teacher relationship two adults are
deeply involved in the well-being of the child, with the
parent having a prior claim (17). The child's progress in
a sense, is the progress of the parents. The teacher's
professional progress also depends upon his ability to help
the child. With two adults so deeply committed to one child
the relationship between them is obviously vital to each
and capable of either gratifying understanding or tragic
misunderstanding.

At first glance it may seem that the respective roles
which parents and teacher play in relation to the child are
well defined. Yet each does not know exactly what the other
should do. In other words, the role expectations of one for
the other may not correspond. A teacher, for example, is
educated to take a sincere interest in the child's personal
development, but the parent may interpret this interest as
an invasion of privacy.

Most parent-teacher interaction focuses on the child's performance, and no topic is closer to the heart of either. In this case, it is the teacher who is the judge of the performance, not the parent. In this most crucial matter of job, it is the teacher who is the dominant figure in the interaction.

Many parents approach the teacher with feeling of inadequacy about rearing their children. The parent is barraged by experts who advise him about the "Do's" and "Don'ts" of child rearing and who increase the parents sense of frustration and failure. Now comes the teacher perhaps in a teacher conference, to remind the parent again how frustrating raising children can be. "I am always depressed after I talk to Bobby's teacher," commented a parent. "I feel that everything I have done is wrong and that I should consult a child psychologist."

These factors in parent-teacher relations, taken together, have increased the reliance of the parent on the teacher. This subtle change is coming over the relationship but it is unlikely that either parents or teachers would think of this way. Yet more and more the teacher is a specialist who has knowledge about the child which the parent does not possess. The increasing use of achievement tests, aptitude tests, and personality profiles places the teacher in possession of data about the child which the

parent knows is crucial, but may not understand. Further,
most schools are taking more and more responsibility for
the socialization of the child beyond formal classroom
learning. That sphere of the child's life over which
teachers presumably have some control frequently encroaches
on that sphere over which the parent has control.

Teachers and Students

The teacher-student relationship is the focal point of
all education (17). The schools exist to prepare students
to take their place socially and vocationally in the adult
word. Whether they achieve that purpose depends to a great
extent upon the quality of the interactions among teachers
and students.

The teacher works with the student on a face to face
basis, there is intensely personal contact. Persons holding
administrative, supervisory or specialists positions rarely
know the student in such an intimate way as does the teacher,
who sees the student in all of his moods and behaviours.
Other people in the school tend to think of students as
types; the teacher thinks of them as persons.

The teacher's professional relationship with his students
is probably closer to that of social worker and his clients.
The social worker acts as a professional agent of the
community in a medicating role to counsel, advise, and refer
cases to specialists for help. He is not free to make final

decisions, but he can recommend. The teacher assumes that
final responsibility for the child rests with the home,
other specialists, or higher authorities. But the teacher
knowing the child as a good social worker knows his client,
makes a valuable contribution in teaching, guiding, and
making available to the student the specialized help of others.

Although the relationship of the teacher to the student
is prescribed and restricted, we should not forget that the
teacher does have freedom to work with the student in the
classroom and the class is the most powerful unit of social
interaction in the whole school. Although the teacher may
be subordinate to the social hierarchy of the school outside
the classroom, within the class he is superordinate. Subject
to the ideology of the school, he is free to teach as he
wishes, to deal with his students in his own way and on his
own terms. No matter what orders the syperintendent or
principal may issue or what advice the specialists may give,
the teaching function does not rest with them - it rests
with the teacher who deals daily with students face to face.

Indeed it is face to face relationship which presents
the teacher with one of his greatest problem - he may be
misrepresented by his students. What the teacher says in
the classroom is subject to more than the usual number of
chances for misunderstanding in communication. First the
teacher frequently deals with subject matter about which
there is disagreement in the community and about which

strong pros and cons may exist. Second the students with
whom the teacher talks are at an age when discriminating
judgements are difficult to make. They tend to see complex
matters as black and white. Third the student may delibera-
tely distort what is said as a reaction to the teacher's
authority or for some other personal purpose. All these
factors condition the teacher's face to face relationships
with students.

Interaction Among Teachers

Most of the school's business is conducted among
teachers whose interactions may be either the formal or the
informal kind (17). On the formal level teachers relate to
one another in a number of ways. They may work on school
committees, jointly supervise student activities and
curriculum programmes and teach together as members of a
team.

On the informal level teachers are more or less in
constant contact with one another and natural groupings and
loyalties arise. In these groupings we best see the informal
social system among teachers. Some of the factors which
stimulate the development of these group relationships are
as follows :

Proximity of Classrooms and Grades Taught : Teachers
whose classrooms are close to one another and who teach

similar grades or subjects tend to see one another frequently,
compare notes, and exchange ideas. This year, for example,
a fifth-grade teacher may have the same group of children
and of course parents, that the fourth-grade teacher had
last year. These teachers have much to talk about and can
do so on an informal confidential basis. Informal groups
tend to spring up naturally among lower elementary, upper
elementary, junior high, and senior high school teachers
because they are likely to teach near one another and have
similar professional interests.

Age of Teachers : Teachers whose ages are similar tend
to group themselves together in the informal social system
of the school and are likely to have more in common than
might at first be suspected. They probably attended college
at about the same time and were exposed to similar educational
authorities and philosophies. The older teachers may look
askance at modern practices, and the younger teachers may
refer to the "old fogies" on the faculty.

Length of Service in the School : Closely related to
age is length of service in the school. Teachers who joined
the faculty at about the same time have served about the
same number of years are likely to feel a close relationship
when a new principal is appointed; for example they judge his
actions in terms of the principal who was on the job when
they came to the school. Anything new tends to be evaluated
in terms of factors existing when they joined the faculty.

Length of service and age usually influence a teacher's "traditional" or "progressive" leanings. The older teachers who are usually dominant in the school's informal social system, generally stress order, firmness, and discipline. They are likely to oppose permissiveness. Younger teachers tend to be more idealistic and liberal in their educational points of view. They incline to be "student centered" in their approach to teaching while older teachers are more "subject centered". This teaching philosophies provide a basis for informal group relations within the school. Attitudes toward the principal, specialists and parents also provide a basis for grouping and interaction in the school among the teachers.

Democratic Administrative Procedures

Democratic administrative procedures are the outcome of democratic style of leadership (51). There is frequent reference to the need for democratic administrators or leaders in school administration. It is felt that schools are part of the democratic cultulral matrix and therefore they should reflect this way of life.

Democratic leadership is characterized as that situation where particular emphasis is placed on group and leader participation in the formulation of policies which serve as guidelines for institutional operations. The key-stone of

of democratic leaderships is that the formulation of policy should involve those who are to be influenced by it. This, of course, means that teachers and others deliberate with administrators and from such action educational policies develop. It does not mean that teachers only, or lay people only, or school board members only decide questions of policy.

Teachers to-day feel that they have a right to participate in the determination of policies related to matters of particular concern to them. This is particularly, true in such areas as curriculum, salary schedules, working conditions, and other aspects of educational planning. Teachers who report opportunities to participate regularly and actively in making policies are much more likely to be enthusiastic about their school system than others who report limited opportunity to participate. To this extent democratic leadership can promote a higher degree of faculty morale. It is a means by which the creative talents of many teachers can be tapped and for that reason is called creative leadership, as well as democratic leadership.

The assumptions which underlie democratic administration are : (1) universal respect for an individual's worth and dignity, regardless of his race, creed or social status, (ii) increasing emphasis upon ways and means of cooperating for the common benefit and (iii) stress on the development of each individual's potentialities in so far as they do not conflict with the common welfare (47). If these assumptions

are accepted it follows that all the personnel of a school must be fairly represented in policy-making and appraised. It follows too that persons should be assigned to tasks in which their special aptitudes may be utilized most effectively and that the facilities should be arranged to serve best the needs of the entire community.

In large schools especially, principals, are often tempted to sacrifice the rights of the individual to participate in school management for a type of control by a few highly selected individuals which guarantees efficient administration with little waste motion. When this is done, the control ceases to be democratic, although it may be benevolent. In order to keep the control democratic, the principal must constantly strive to have it exercised both by and for the individuals who constitute the school group.

Democratic Classroom Procedures

Some of the attitudes that are commonly considered democratic are faith in the worth of each child, confidence in the soundness of pooled opinion, belief in the ability of children to face and solve their own problems, and patience with the comparative slowness of democratic procedures (13). It might well be observed that no teacher claims democratic procedures are particularly easy. Those who have tried them know that they pay dividends in terms of pupils' steady improvement in socially oriented conduct.

Some of the more democratic procedures in the classroom are (i) allowing pupils to discuss and choose (under direction) the activities and purposes of the class, (ii) permitting pupils understand the necessity for certain behaviour rather than demanding conformity to imposed regulations, (iii) providing opportunities in accord with the individual's ability to comprehend and profit from them, (iv) working with pupils on cooperative and congenial basis, (v) taking time to talk with and listen to those who wish to participate, and (vi) encouraging cooperative group work.

If democratic methods are difficult and cumbersome, it might be well to ask ourselves why so much stress should be placed on freedom and self-determination.

An answer is suggested by Lawrence K. Frank (35) :

> Is the police state, controlling irresponsible citizens, to be our idea of a planned society or are we going to try to develop and educate personalities who can and will be responsible for maintaining and advancing social order ? These are the basic questions we face in every darea of group life, especially in our educational programmes for children, for youths, and for adults. Here the crucial issue is whether we will seek to rear obedient submissive individuals who will bow to authority or to foster personalities capable of self-discipline and friendly cooperative living.

Democratic procedures are likely to go far in meeting such fundamental human needs as the desire for independence, the desire for companionship, the need for recognition, the need for security (security being dependent upon the person's

ability to meet and solve problems) but so too is growth toward better mental health, the reward of which is a richer life.

Experiments have been conducted which suggest that democratic classroom procedures can improve the teacher's effectiveness (57). In one experiment children between the ages of four and twelve years were allowed to try a modified form of self-government. They dealt with infractions of their rules severely - more severely than do teachers. This placed the teacher in the advantageous position of protector and defender of the transgressor rather than disciplinarian. Thus, the good-will and confidence of the children were won. Rapport gained in this manner enables the adult to exercise greater control over the child (67).

Democratic practice probably should not be justified in terms of the teacher's advantage. Since democracy depends on the participation of the individual in the solution of common problems, it should be a function of the school to provide much experience. Modern schools have accepted this responsibility and encourage youngsters to participate in degrees appropriate to their social and intellectual maturity.

Teaching Profession

Through their experience with teachers, psychologists and educationists have realised the importance of attitudes

of the teachers toward teaching profession and the effect of
these attitudes on their professional performance (70).

In an educational institution there is a continuous
interaction going on between pupils and pupils, pupils and
teachers, teachers and teachers, and between management and
teaching staff. The impact of these interactions result in
moulding the professional attitudes of teachers on the one
hand and the pupils' attitude toward educational institution
on the other. A healthy attitude on the part of the teachers
toward the teaching profession is a desirable trait that an
educational institution cannot afford to neglect in its
members. Again a wholesome attitude of all the teachers of
a school contributes to keep harmonious organization of the
teaching personnel. Educational administrators are finding
such measurement of attitudes useful in their task of
improving professional efficiency of their teachers.

Different people find different things that appeal to
them in teaching profession (92). For some people, it is the
opportunity to indulge a taste for books and ideas and the
experience of moderate autonomy. For others, especially for
those devoting themselves to neglected groups, there is a
sense of high adventure in helping the oncoming generation
to develop its potentialities. Because of this feature
teaching has a powerful attraction to those who have a
strong sense of social responsibility and who shrink from

the exploitation of other people. Few people can doubt the
social importance of some degree of education and the
teacher can feel sure that he is engaged in an important
social enterprise.

Competition although by no means absent, probably
operates with less ferocity in teaching than in many
professions. Typically there is less objective need to cut
the other fellow down in order to enjoy moderate success.
Certainly, there is less of a clear tradition of competition
in which the besting of a colleague is an essential part of
the game, and the teacher, more than most people, can go
about his work without worrying too much about what the
other fellow is upto.

In satisfying the very human need for esteem, the
teacher has a somewhat ambiguous position. He often feels
lack of appreciation on the part of general public. In many
respects, however, the teacher has a fair opportunity to
meet the need for the esteem of others. He is in a good
position to secure the good opinion of his students. True
he usually cannot work directly toward this goal, but very
often in the course of his daily work, he may find incidental
evidences of high regard from his students or less frequently
in the form of statements or formal testimonials.

The term "Education" may be interpreted to connote the
"process" through which experience or information is gained,
or it may be used to indicate the results of such training,
or the "product" of the learning process (23). Using either
connotation of the term, "education" implies experience,
insight, and adjustment on the part of the learner as he is
stimulated toward growth and development.

Education is concerned both with the development of the
individual and with the welfare of his society (34). For the
individual, education should provide opportunities for maximum
development of his talents and his potentialities for happiness.
In doing this, it should "prepare every member to continue to
the fullest to the welfare of his society".

Educational view points quite reasonably are presumed to
be important factors in determining what shall be taught in
the schools of a particular community and how it shall be
taught (79). The composite of education view-points, or the
"educational philosophy", accepted by an administrator and
his supervisory and teaching staffs defines the objectives
of teaching to which a school system is committed. The school
system expects individual teachers to conduct their classes
in keeping with such defined objectives.

In practice, however, the educational view points of an
individual teacher may or may not conform to the objectives

of the school system in which he is employed. Furthermore, because of lack of real understanding of the implications of view points held, or inability to translate the view points into classroom behaviour, a teacher may not actually conduct his classes in keeping with the view points he professes about educational matters. Nevertheless, one might expect a teacher committed to a particular set of educational view points to behave differently in specified school situations from a teacher committed to some different educational view point. Or to put it briefly, it seems reasonable to assume that teacher behaviour is influenced by the educational values held by the individual teacher.

With the assumption that beliefs in particular goals and practices serve as motivating conditions which help to determine teacher behaviour, the investigator chose this variable to study its relationship with his classroom verbal behaviour.

RATIONALE FOR SELECTING PERSONALITY
AND ATTITUDINAL VARIABLES

The selection of personality traits and attitudinal variables as predictors can be justified on various grounds. Firstly, teacher's personality and attitudes have been considered to be important determinants in the making of a good or successful or effective teacher. Since the problem of teacher effectiveness is complex and there is no clear-cut

agreement among researchers on the nature of effective traits,
each investigator has his own criteria of effectiveness.
Thus, the problem of teacher effectiveness has been attacked
from various angles. Some have studied personality of the
teacher from the view point of administrators, experts, and
school supervisors. Some have studied from students' point
of view, while a third group has studied teachers personality
in relation to its effect upon students.

R.B. Cattell (97) collected from 208 directors,
inspectors, head and assistant teachers and others lists of
traits which they regarded as important in a teacher and
boiled them down into 22 major categories given here in order
of frequency of mention (1) personality and will (confidence
and leadership, (2) intelligence, (3) idealism, (4) general
culture, (5) kindness, friendliness, (6) enthusiasm,
(7) knowledge of psychology and pedagogy, (8) classroom
technique, (9) persuance, (10) self-control (stability morals),
(11) enterprise, courage, adventure, (12) sympathy and fact,
(13) open-mindedness, fairness, (14) sense of humour and
cheerfulness, (15) orderliness, (16) knowledge of subject,
(17) outside interest, (18) physical health, (19) presence
(appearance and voice), (20) alert mind, inquiring, critical,
(21) social fitness, manners, and (22) conservatism, respect
for tradition.

Crow and Crow (23) cite the following desirable traits
among teachers : (1) interest in pupils, (2) ability to

motivate learning, (3) stimulation of thought, (4) sympathy,
(5) sincerity and a sense of justice, (6) adaptability and
consideration ofor others, (7) cheerfulness and enthusiasm,
(8) breadth of interest, (9) good judgement, and (10) self
control.

From the students' point of view following traits are
considered to be important in a teacher (90) :

1. Being courteous, friendly, and approachable;
    recognizing a student and speaking on meeting;
    really liking the students.

2. Possessing a sense of humour, being willing to
    smile, laugh and enjoy a good joke.

3. Showing interest in all students appreciating
    and being sympathetic with their study efforts.

4. Giving help kindly, sincerely, and patiently.

5. Keeping good order.

Teacher's personality does affect the personality of
students has been proved by empirical findings. Boyanton (97)
found small correlations between the scores of 73 teachers
on a neuroticism questionnaire, and the average scores of
their 11 to 12 year pupils. The much more thorough researches
of Anderson and Brewer (4) at the University of Illinois
recorded "dominative" and "integrative" features of a teacher's
classroom behaviour. They showed that under the more
integrative teachers the behaviour of junior school children
is characterized by greater spontaneity, initiative and

cooperation. The over-dominant teacher produces a vicious
circle of troublesomeness, and further repression.

Getzels and Jackson (38) have devoted about 18 pages on
review of studies on teachers' attitude in the Handbook of
.Research on Teaching, edited by Gage. Most of the studies
reviewed have used the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory
(MTAI).

All these studies very clearly bring out the importance
of teacher's personality and attitudes. A question may be
raised as to why only Active, Vigorous, Impulsive, Dominant,
Stable, Sociable, and Reflective traits have been selected
for this study. There are two answers for this question.
In the first place, except Sociable trait and to certain
extent Stable trait no other traits mentioned above have
been correlated with teacher behaviour. Secondly, many
researchers (as can be seen in the review of past studies)
have selected personality traits which describe the individual
in terms of psychotic or neurotic tendencies (e.g. schezoph-
renic, hypomania, etc.). Such traits cannot be used for
normal individuals. The traits which the investigator
selected are meant to characterize only normal well adjusted
individuals. Since majority of us including teachers are
normal and well adjusted it is a matter of speculation
whether the teachers' verbal behaviour is influenced at all
by their tendencies of being active, vigorous, impulsive,
dominant, stable, sociable or reflective.

Regarding attitudes the author's impression from the review of past studies is that these attitudes (attitude toward management, parents, teachers, etc.) have not been correlated at all with teachers' classroom verbal behaviour as measured by Flanders technique and therefore their inclusion in the present study is fair and just.

HYPOTHESES

Keeping in view the objectives of the investigation following null hypotheses were developed :

1. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, Teacher's Acceptance of Student's Ideas (Category 3 or C_3) and Student Initiation (Category 9 or C_9) are not related to "Active" trait of teacher's personality.

2. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to "Vigorous" trait of teacher's personality.

3. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to "Impulsive" trait of teacher's personality.

4. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to "Dominant" trait of teacher's personality.

5. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to "Emotionally Stable" trait of teacher's personality.

6. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to "Sociable" trait of teacher's personality.

7. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to "Reflective" trait of teacher's personality.

8. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to teacher's attitude toward "Management".

9. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to teacher's attitude toward (pupil's) "Parents".

10. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to teacher's attitude toward "Other Teachers".

11. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to teacher's attitude toward "Democratic Administrative Procedures".

12. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to teacher's attitude toward "Pupils".

13. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to teacher's attitude toward "Democratic Classroom Procedures".

14. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to teacher's attitude toward "Teaching Profession".

15. I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 are not related to teacher's attitude toward "Education".

In addition to testing the above hypotheses, it is also aimed to get the answer to the following questions :

(1) To what extent all the 15 independent variables taken together help in predicting I/D ratio, i/d ratio, T/S ratio, C_3 and C_9 ?

(2) What is the impact of personality traits on direct and indirect behaviour of the teachers ? In other words, do the means of direct and indirect teachers on the seven personality traits differ significantly from each other ?

Now we proceed to Chapter 4 wherein the sample, procedure and statistical methods to test the above hypotheses are discussed.