A study of the influence of Home background, culture, personality, self concept and attitude factors on the Teaching Performance of Student Teachers.

by

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my late father,
Sibotshwa Ngwenya.

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Abstract

The study is an exploratory research centred on criteria, other than academic attainment that might be used for identifying entrants to teachers colleges who are likely to become effective classroom teachers. Five Cultural and personality variables were identified as follows: Home Background, Cultural Universals, Attitude to Teaching, Personality and Self Concept. Three scales were designed by the researcher to measure Home Background, Cultural Universals and Attitude to teaching. Standardized tests were used for the measurement of personality and self concept variables. Final year Teaching performance scores were collated and this data represented the dependent variable to the five independent variables mentioned here. The investigation covered a sample of 529 final year students from six Colleges of Education/Advanced Teachers' Colleges in Northern Nigeria. For an exploratory research it was found necessary to analyse the results with several different methods: the Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was backed by Regression and Multiple Classification Analysis.

The study report showed that Personality variables and Home Background variables had no statistically significant relationship (or influence) on teaching performance. Three of the independent variables, Attitude to teaching, Cultural Dimension and Self Concept showed

significant statistical relationships with teaching performance.

As expected, it was concluded that the conventional method of selecting, "teachers college entrants by their academic achievement is not adequate. Attitudinal scales, Self Concept and Cultural Dimension scales could identify the candidates that are likely to become effective and dedicated classroom teachers. The need for further research to sharpen tools for selection of candidates to teachers college was identified.

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CHAPTER I

1.1 INTRODUCTION

1.1.1 Current changes in the Nigerian Education System

Recent developments in secondary education in Nigeria as envisaged in the National Policy (1981), which are aimed at both quantitative and qualitative development of education will seem to require a close look at teacher education in general and selection procedures in particular.

Firstly, the change in school structure envisages a 3-year Junior Secondary School followed by a 3-year Senior Secondary system which is planned to absorb up to 70 per cent primary school-leavers. Secondly, the envisaged change in content aims at both vocational and academic curricula. The system is designed to make education both terminal and continuining - terminal in the sense that it will provide the student with some basic knowledge and necessary skills that will make him employable. At the same time, the 3-3 secondary education system should lay the foundation for those who are capable academically, technically and vocationally to benefit from higher education. Furthermore, secondary school places should be created to absorb the products of the universal primary education scheme.

1.1.2 Expected effects of changes in teacher education.

The developments mentioned above have far-reaching implications for teacher education. In view of the changes in school structure and content and in view of the massive

expansions occuring in the Nigerian education system, it has become necessary not only to train teachers in particular qualitative ways but also to produce them at accelerated rates. In this respect, the National Policy on education (1981, 33) has echoed Cyril Beeby's assertion (1966, 13) that 'no education can rise above the quality of its teachers'. By implication, it is not enough to produce the teachers in their numbers, they must also be capable of producing desirable learning out-comes. Such effective teacher functioning must include the techniques the teacher employs, the personality and the teaching situation in which the teacher functions (Peck and Tucker, 1933). In the same vein, the National Policy specifies both cognitive and attitudinal objectives for education which it is envisaged should produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient teachers (Federal Ministry of Education, 1981 par. 58a).

1.1.3 Admission Policies of Teachers' Colleges.

One of the major assumptions in the prescriptions of the National Policy on Education, 1981 is that the admission policies of Teachers' Colleges would take cognisance not only of the cognitive capabilities of the candidates, but also cultural, attitudinal and personality traits that may be deemed to be desirable for an effective teacher's role. Present practice of recruitment of teacher-trainees is based on some academic criteria to the exclusion of personality and cultural qualities, which seem to be necessary in view

of the objectives, of social development, political integration and economic dynamism that education is expected to help produce in Nigeria. To produce manpower needed by the country or to transmit culturally valued knowledge, the teacher is the central figure. It is for this reason that some criteria be identified for determining qualities in teachers that are essential in enabling them to help their pupils to derive maximum benefit from schooling.

1.2 Rationale for the study

1.2.1 Justification for the study

A search for selection criteria for teacher-trainees has received a great deal of attention but evidence from massive research in the field to identify entry characteristics of effective teachers is inconclusive. This may be due to a number of factors such as the interaction of a host of variables and the over-emphasis on the cognitive element. Research is an on-going exercise and the most justifiable source of this study is the doubt that exists from the inconclusive findings of previous studies in the field. On the other hand, effective teachers must possess certain attitudes and competences; and some criteria need to be formulated to guide teacher educators and selectors into teachers' colleges to identify those who are likely to give maximum benefit to children in our schools. For instance, research evidence has revealed that teachers who are warm and friendly positively influence their pupil's

achievement, while hostile and emotionally unstable teachers have an adverse effect. (Rochio and Kearney, 1956; Moskowtz and Hayman, 1976). This implies a need for highly selective methods for recruiting teacher-trainees.

Baikie (1981, III-IV) observed that

> "teachers in this country are selected from 'failures'. If a youngster fails in entering junior secondary school, he can enter the lowest teacher training school. If he fails to get into secondary school itself, he goes to the next level of teacher training. If he fails to get into university, then he goes into our highest teacher training. By a system of progressive selection this country ensures that its schools will be staffed by failures".

On the other hand, the shortage of qualified teachers in the primary and secondary schools in many states of Nigeria and the increased demand for teachers at all levels in the education system are well known facts. In the 1977-78 session, Nigeria's primary schools had an estimated enrolment of 10 million with the average number of pupils per Grade II teachers (certified and failed) at 75.2 for the federation (Federal Republic of Nigeria: Implementation Committee for the National Policy on Education 1978-79, 58).

A closer examination of the teacher supply problem in Nigeria reveals its complexity. Despite the need for more teachers, the desertion rate is alarming. Research serves the purpose of either raising issues about a situation or providing tentative solutions to problems. A research of this type intends to raise issues about teacher education.

In specific terms the selection of teacher-trainees seems to be unsatisfactory at the present time. The researcher believes that the constant need for teachers may be due to a high turn-over and drop-out from the teaching profession and these would be ameliorated if the selection of potential teachers is scientifically based as it is hoped that teachers who remain in teaching seem to have more job satisfaction than those who leave the profession. (Beeby 1966, 103-104). The real dillema is that, although Nigeria urgently needs well qualified and competent teachers in very large numbers, the fact still remains that entrants to Teachers' Colleges and Faculties of Education are selected from the bottom group of the academic ladder, (Baikie 1981, III-IV). There is therefore a need to select the 'best' of the 'failures' for admission into teacher training institutions, who, it is hoped, will be committed to the profession and are likely to stay on. Selection from the 'failures' may well be more effective without being restrictive if academic performance is not the only yardstick. Admission to teacher training institutions it seems, for most, merely a means of continuing their education so that they acquire the social status which they would otherwise have missed because of their failure to enter secondary schools and other institutions. The use of personality characteristics would broaden the criteria for selection into teachers' colleges and probably exclude those not likely to stay on the job.

1.2.2 Lack of commitment among student teachers.

Some of the reasons given by the undergraduate Bachelor of Education students at Ahmadu Bello University (Graber 1978, 22-23) may shed some light on why teachers desert the profession. Statements like "My teacher interested me very much" or "I liked the way the principal conducted himself" or "I liked the academic gown" reveal how out of touch with the reality of the teaching situation the first year B.Ed. students were. The question is whether the NCE students are any different. Teaching is a complex and very demanding profession and if the student starts initially with rosy expectations, then when he finds the actual teaching more taxing and requiring him to expend more energies and resources than he is capable of, then he is likely to abandon the profession. In Graber's same research, some of the female subjects wished to be nurses although they were training as teachers. Some even admitted that they were training as teachers because of the financial support they received from the government. Similar findings were made by Abiri (1976). The trainee teachers admitted that they were in the training institutions because of failure to get elsewhere, not because of their love of teaching. Simply admitting people into teacher training institutions to fill the urgent need for teachers even though they have negative attitudes towards teaching appears to be a stop-gap measure glossing over the real problem which is that the country is

not really solving the problem of teacher supply by training enough teachers, but that those so trained do not stay in the profession either largely because of lack of commitment to the profession or end up deserting due to frustration because they did not possess the personality characteristics essential for survival in the teaching profession in the first place. The argument here is that the admission policies of Advanced Teachers' Colleges should take cognizance not only of the cognitive abilities of the candidates, which are themselves low compared to other professions, but that in the light of this problem attitudinal and personality traits that may be deemed desirable for an effective teacher's role should be given adequate weightage in the modes for selection.

In view of the inconclusiveness of various studies and the lack of empirical data to clarify the ambiguities and disagreements, it would seem that there is an urgent need for research in this area and the present study may be justified in these terms.

A search for selection criteria for teacher-trainees should incorporate cultural variables. Each of the major ethnic groups in Nigeria (Ibo, Yoruba and Hausa) have criteria for adjudging the most successful member of that society. It is possible to compare solution to problems in the societies using common elements, the uniformities, as the basis for the comparisons.

1.3. Statement of the problem

In Nigeria today selection of candidates for admission to teachers' colleges is based largely on academic qualifications. This criterion alone seems inadequate in the present circumstances of high turn-over of the few effective, qualified teachers in the schools. It seems there is the need to search for other kinds of criteria that are likely to facilitate the identification of teachers who will not only stay in the profession but also those who will be effective classroom teachers. Specifically, this study focuses on the investigation of the potential effect on classroom teaching of selected measurable personality characteristics and cultural variables of the would-be teacher from randomly selected Advanced Teachers' Colleges in Northern Nigeria. The research addressed the following questions:

1. What are the relationships between personality characteristics and cultural variables, if any, and the attainment of high grades in teaching practice in the Nigerian Certificate in Education?.
2. What is the relationship, if any, between home background factors and performance in practical teaching by student teachers?
3. Is there any relationship between the student teachers' attitudes to teaching and their performance in teaching practice?

1.4. Basic Assumptions

Studies in human traits and characteristic are based inevitably on a great deal of assumptions. This study assumes that it is possible to identify some characteristics common to all NCE student teachers who attain high grades in teaching practice by correlation or regression analysis of selected variables such as personality, self concept, attitudes to teaching, 'cultural regularity , home background, and teaching practice grade; and that these common characteristics could be useful in establishing some kind of guidelines for the selection of candidates for admission into teachers' colleges.

1. That teacher attainment in practical teaching can be predicted from the knowledge of such variables as attitude to teaching, home background; personality traits, cultural variables and self concept.
2. That such personality characteristics are constant over time in the individual teacher and serve to explain his behaviour in response to a variety of situations.
3. That such properties as laid 'within' the teacher are not amenable to direct observation in the same way that behaviour can be observed.
4. That the teaching practice grades obtained by the students are valid and reliable indicators for important inferrences on the future performance of student-teachers.

1.5 Critique

The measurement of candidates' personality traits and other psychological and cultural characteristics as predictive tools for recruitment into the teaching profession is fraught with problems. The underlying assumptions ignore other important inputs for the education and training of the teacher. The experiences provided for the students as preparation before they go to teach in the schools may vary from institution to institution. Besides, the study apparently assumes all schools to be identical. In response to these drawbacks, it can be argued that there is some minimum standard expected of teachers' colleges and that there is hardly any substantial anomaly in the inputs for the training of teachers at the NCE level, as ensured by the fact that each institution is affiliated to a university for purposes of quality control.

The assumption that the grades obtained by students from their teaching practice are valid and reliable does not bear semblance to the realities of the case; research evidence seems to indicate otherwise. For instance Hore (1971) found that in practice teaching, grades awarded to female students by male supervisors favoured those who were physically attractive. Hamlish and Gaier (1958) also found that in awarding grades for practice teaching, college instructors were also biased in favour of students with similar attitudes to their own. Teaching practice grades constitute a dependent variable that will be investigated

and this calls for caution in the interpretation of the findings.

Recent research stresses that teacher characteritics are alterable: warmth, authoritarianism, hostility - and even intelligence and physical aptitudes are influenced by early learning and can be altered through appropriate educational experiences in later life. This study is however concerned with the entry behaviours of candidates at that point in time.

1.6 The Problem

The object of this study was to identify non-academic characteristics of student-teachers who attain high performance in practical teaching which might help in the process of designing a more comprehensive set of criteria for selecting candidates into teacher training institutions in Nigeria. The aim specifically was to investigate the potential effect on classroom teaching of selected measurable personality and socio-cultural variables of the student-teacher.

To arrive at this evidence it was necessary to administer a number of tests and to survey the state of existing admission policy. The choice of methods and techniques is crucial to the attainment of these objectives. The formulation and testing of hypotheses were found essential to the study as put succinctly by Goode and Hatt (1952) that "hypothesis states what

we are looking for". If the concept of basing selection into teachers' colleges on academic achievement is taken as given, then it should be possible to formulate additional hypotheses. These, when tested, are either accepted or rejected and in turn constitute further tests of the original theory:

1. There is no significant relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and home background factors.
   i. There is no significant relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and the parents or guardian's educational level.
   ii. There is no significant relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and the parents or guardians' income level.
2. There is no significant relationship between the NCE final teaching practice performance and cultural universalities.
3. There is no significant relationship between the final teaching practice performance and attitude to teaching.
4. There is no significant relationship between final teaching practice performance and self concept.
   i. There is no significant relationship between the NCE final teaching practice performance and motivation.
   ii. There is no significant relationship between the NCE final teaching practice performance and task orientation.

iii. There is no significant relationship between the NCE final teaching practice performance and problem solving.

iv. There is no significant relationship between the NCE final teaching practice performance and class membership.

5. There is no significant relationship between the NCE final teaching practice performance and personality factors.

i. There is no significant relationship between the NCE final teaching practice performance and extraversion.

ii. There is no significant relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and neuroticism.

Significance here refers to statistical significance.

1.7 Definition of Terms

In this study a number of terms have been used that generally conjure a variety of meanings among psychologists and social scientists. The definitions that follow reflect the senses in which the terms have been used in the study.

a) Self Concept. the way in which an individual perceives self, in particular the person's motivation, orientation towards tasks at hand, approach to

problems and the way the person perceives his/her worth among peers.

b) Personality: The meaning of 'personality' as used in psychological literature is by no means universally agreed upon. Many modern writers on personality shy away from definitions but instead try to delimit the areas of study implied by the word. For the purpose of this study, the definition put forward by Helson and Bevan (1967, 486) is adopted. They define personality as ". . . . the traits, qualities or characteristics which are presumed to exist in some people in general". In particular Eysenck's (1967) view of personality influences this study; his two major personality traits are adopted.

   (i) extraversion (E) The extravert is fond of excitement, is sociable and lively.

   (ii) neuroticism: (N) The neurotic is anxious, worrying, moody and unstable.

c) Attitude: It portrays "the sum total of a man's inclinations and feelings, prejudices or biases, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats and convictions about any specific topic" (Thurstone and Chave 1929). For this study attitude to teaching is regarded as pre-dispositions to react in a favourable or unfavourable way towards teaching as a profession.

d) Home background: Under home background is included those variables in the home that influence educational attainment and success, these are the socio-economic status of the parents; the father's occupation; the educational level of the parents; the educational environment of the home which include reading material available in the home and the content level of discussions that take place between the parents and the children.

e) Teaching Attainment - When student teachers go to the schools on teaching practice, their teaching performance is assessed by their supervisors, and this assessment covers various skills which include:

(i) The written lesson notes; lesson objectives whether they are clear and obtainable; the arrangement of the lesson whether it is logical and sequential.

(ii) Lesson presentation - the student teacher's ability to motivate children; his/her mastery of the subject; questioning techniques; treatment of students responses; arrangement of class activities; effectiveness of teaching aids and time management.

(iii) Class management skills - the student teacher's ability to keep order in the classroom and rapport with the pupils.

(iv) Evaluation of the work assigned to the pupils - its quality, adequacy and relevance. Also included is the quality of the student teacher's correction and evaluation.

(v) Teacher's personality - the student teacher's comportment and appropriateness and neatness of dress. The student teacher's voice is also assessed for its clarity, audibility and modulation.

(vi) The teacher's expression - the student teacher's speech, language usage and fluency are also evaluated.

f) Cultural Universalities: This term refers to the way in which the version of the culture found in different ethnic groups groups in Nigeria are systematically related to one another. In Nigeria this includes the traditions and main features of of each of the three major ethnic cultures that are comparable to any other ethnic culture in Nigeria which Mead (1955) refers to as "cultural regularities".

1.8 Summary

Teachers play a key role in the development of any education system.

a) In Nigeria most of the recruits into teacher training institutions are those who have failed to get into other institutions of higher learning.

b) Nigeria's effort to train adequate teachers for her educational institutions is being frustrated by the high rate of trained teachers who leave the profession for other lucrative jobs.

c) The country's policy of admitting anybody who has the academic qualifications into teacher training institutions, may not in the long run, be solving the problem of teacher shortage because as long as those who train as teachers do not do so for the love of the profession, they may end up leaving the profession as soon as they get jobs of their liking.

d) Academic qualifications alone are not enough as a means of selecting entrants into teacher training institutions. Some variables such as personality traits, self concept and attitude to teaching should be considered.

CHAPTER II

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Theoretical Background

2.1.1 Introduction: The central issues of this study concern the question of what constitutes an effective teacher and how he can be identified before admission into a training institution. Studies like this have the function of clarifying issues or producing evidence to help people make decisions and distinctions. An important problem is how to translate teacher effectiveness into a measurable variable, and this is so largely because teachers are often seen as models for the young, sources of values, attitudes, styles of behaviour, as well as intellectual stimulators and sources of enlightenment. The teacher may see himself primarily as a dispenser of sympathy and understanding or as a peer group facilitator and mediator but his pupils still see his job essentially as teaching, that is, instructing and explaining (Musgrove and Taylor, 1969, 12) practical teaching is a requirement for the award of teachers' certificates in most parts of the world, as in Nigeria. The criteria used by teacher trainers for the assessment of their students on teaching practice would indicate in some measure the values inculcated in teacher training. A cursory inspection of characteristics assessed would lend support to the suggestion made by Musgrove and Taylor (1969, 13) that inspite

of the

> "doubts and conflicts amongst trainers of teachers today, they appear to be unanimous in the importance they attach to sympathetic understanding of children and to establishing a happy and harmonious relationship with pupils inside (and if possible outside) the classroom".

The federal government of Nigeria sees education 'as an instrument par excellence for effecting national development', (National Policy on Education, 1981) and this document is explicit on the prescriptions for teacher education which includes fitting the teacher "into the social life of the community and society at large and to enhance their commitment to national objectives". An injunction such as the foregoing seems to add more confusion to the dilemmas of teacher trainers in rapidly developing countries where quantity is as crucial as the qualitative improvement in the kind of teachers needed for the changing societies. One of the major resolutions of a high-powered conference on high level teacher training held at the University of Ibadan in 1970 was to affirm its faith in the teacher as the "keyman in the entire educational programme". The conference, perceived teacher education as a means

> "to help the individual teacher to grow and develop as a person, provide him with the skills and professional abilities to motivate children to learn and help him in acquiring the right understandings, concepts, values and attitudes necessary not only to survive in the school room, but also in the society in which he lives".

(my own emphasis). These aspirations have been reiterated in the National Policy on Education (Federal Ministry of Education, 1981 par., 58). If personality traits and

positive attitude formation are required of teachers when they have been trained then it would seem desirable to provide suitable ways of selecting the right kind of input. In 1970, the question was posed as to whether there should be a career guidance and aptitude testing for all entrants to colleges of education before admission, but the issues implicit in the details were too crucial for the conference; they gave the question a cautious nod by suggesting that career guidance and aptitude testing should be a part of the continuous assessment of the teacher trainee (Aderalegbe, 1970, 131). A new kind of teacher is being sought and the theoretical basis of this search deserves a brief discussion. The essential function of education is to contribute to the process of socialisation by transmitting much of the culture of a society to each new generation. Societies are differentiated by their possession of more or less distinctive cultures which encompass language, ethical values, style of clothes, social and economic aspirations, religious and political ideals. It is within the context of socio-cultural considerations that an education system may be understood. The relevance to classroom teaching and learning of social analysis has been stressed adequately (Kay, 1975; Inglis 1975). Within any given school system, both teachers and pupils are part of a culture which while undergoing significant change, persists in cherishing certain traditions

and actions. Inglis (1975) believes that

> "teachers need to find and are trying to shape a frame of mind, a state of consciousness which is better able to cope with the world as they find it" (1975, 103).

On the basis of this position, Inglis argues for teacher education to be centrally concerned with questions of culture. The point of view elaborated by Inglis on the central role of the teacher in the business of transmitting culture is found by this researcher to be particularly attractive for hypothesizing an explanation for the problem of selection criteria for teacher education.

2.1.2 Teaching effectiveness

The question of what constitutes an effective teacher and how he can be identified before admission into a training institution has eluded many researchers in Africa. It seems likely that the paucity of research on this topic is a reflection of the inertia of using academic achievements for selection to the exclusion of personality factors. One other possible reason for lack of progress in this field of research is the problem one would encounter in translating teacher effectiveness into measurable variables other than academic output of the taught. Attempts to measure teaching effectiveness have often used pupil achievement as an index of teacher success (Bennett 1976; Dawson 1968; Coleman 1966; Popham 1971; Maclure 1965). Pupil achievement is usually only a measurement of subject mastery,

such as Bennett's (1976) study which concentrated on Reading, Mathematics and English or as in the case of the often-quoted 'payment by results', the Revised Code of 1862 (Maclure 1973). Measurability implies accountability; teachers might be judged on their ability to produce results in learners rather than on the many bases now used as indices of competence. Pupil achievement has become a way of judging teacher effectiveness largely because it is based on 'hard' data, yet this method is devoid of the modalities we are looking for. There are certain types of learning outcomes which do not easily lend themselves to measurement. Creativity and originality are difficult characteristics that may be attributed exclusively to teacher effectiveness. Beside pupil behaviour changes there are other types of behaviour changes which are important such as changes in parental attitudes and community values. Teachers are expected to be academically and professionally sound, showing deep and wide knowledge of their subjects and high level of classroom management skills. Unfortunately a teacher may possess all these skills and still remain ineffective in his teaching. In seeking explanations for this phenomenon some researchers (Coates and Carl, 1976) have blamed it on the lack of certain personality traits which are believed to be crucial for every teacher. Unlike Coates (op cit) Vernon (1953, 51-75) would maintain that teachers are diverse in their

psychological traits like any other professional group and that "it is fallacious to talk of the teaching personality; as something distinct and consistent". Vernon's view does not seem to be strongly held anymore. There is some evidence that there are some measurable similarities in the traits and attitudes of all teachers, at least enough to establish some stereotype (Coates and Carl, 1976). In fact some educators agree that teacher personality and mental health as they are reflected in the classroom behaviour are more important than the teacher's knowledge of the subject matter and method of teaching (Coates and Carl, op cit.). A confusing ambivalence of purpose often sabotages discussions of assessment and grading of pupil achievement. The issue implied here relates to who is responsible for learning - the teacher or the student. Colin Kefford (1970) cited in Rowntree (1974: 134) describes the teacher's position in this way:

> "Perhaps the biggest single weakness of teachers is their reluctance to put their teaching methods on trial. If their pupils succeed in public examinations, teachers congratulate themselves on the efficacy of their teaching. If their pupils fail, excuses are sought out: the pupils are of poor quality this year; the pupils did not work hard enough; the exam paper was badly devised. How seldom does one ever hear a teacher with the honesty to admit that his teaching methods may have been at fault."

If a teacher thinks his role influences his students in any respect then he must accept some share of the responsibility for learning. In this discussion we are interested

in the responsibility that devolves on the teacher more specifically the factors that contribute toward the teacher's effectiveness. It is plausible to suggest that an attempt to predict teacher effectiveness variables should extend beyond the investigation of pupil achievement; certain personality and attitudinal criteria need to be studied.

2.2 Personality

2.2.1 The problem of definition

The meaning of personality as it is used in the psychological literature is by no means clear or agreed upon. Many modern writers on personality avoid the definition of personality per se but instead try to define the areas of study implied by the word. In other words, a definition of personality reflects the kinds of problems the researcher has decided to study and generally reflects the empirical methods he intends to use to investigate these problems (Statt 1967, 341; Pervin 1970, 2; Hall and Lindzey 1970). Those interested in personality are particularly concerned with differences among people - why some achieve and others do not, why some perceive things in one way and others in a different way. Personality theorists attempt to understand behaviour through the complex interaction among the different aspects of the individual's functioning.

Personality can be defined in terms of characteristics (traits) of the individual which are directly observable in his behaviour or in terms of characteristics, such as unconscious processes, which are inferred from his behaviour. Each definition tends to emphasize different kinds of behaviour and the use of different techniques for investigation. It is clear that we lack a universally accepted definition of the term and that each investigator, according to Stott (1967, 334), tends to formulate his own definition emphasizing the particular facet of the concept that suits his own disciplinary bias as that is consistent with the material he has to present. For the purpose of this study, Pervin's (1975, 3) view is adopted as a working definition:

> "Personality represents those structural and dynamic properties of an individual or individuals as they reflect themselves in characteristic responses to situation".

While recognising that all people are similar in some ways, it is generally agreed that individuals differ on a large number of traits. Since we all differ in our behaviour, these differences may be said to reflect different personalities. Pervin's (ibid) definition is quite broad but it identifies a number of important points. Firstly, it indicates that personality includes both structure and dynamics, that is, personality is characterized both by parts and by relationships among these parts in which sense it can be viewed as a system. Secondly, whatever

the nature of the functioning of the system, personality is ultimately defined in terms of behaviour that may be observed and measured. Thirdly, personality is characterized by consistencies across all individuals and across groups of individuals or even by consistency within a single individual. Personality expresses consistency and regularity. Finally, the definition reminds us that people do not operate in a vacuum - they respond to and express themselves in relation to situations. Procedures for systematically gaining information relevant to the personality of individuals have been classified and categorized in figure 1. Based upon the use of three dimensions for the classification of tests: structured-non structured, disguised - non disguised, voluntary - objective. Pervin (1975) identifies test categories as projective, subjective, psychometric, and objective-behavioural. Proponents of each assessment technique or each group of techniques are all able to argue for the virtues of their own approach and to point out the limitations of the alternatives. The non-structured - structured dimension appears to be critical to our understanding of alternative ways of assessing personality. This dimension is related to the clinical-statistical or clincial-empirical dimension. Clinical types of theories, which place great emphasis on the variability of human behaviour and the importance of

individual differences, tend to be associated with non-structured tests. On the other hand, empirical types of theories, which emphasize consistencies across individuals and employ rigorous experimental procedures, tend to be associated with structured tests. According to Pervin's classification (see Table 2.1) the disguised-non-disguised dimension appears to be most relevant to the non-structured tests, while the voluntary-objective dimension appears to be best suited to the structured tests.

2.2.2 H.J. Eysenck's Theory

This area of personality has generated a welter of literature and a rich diversity of theories. For this study, Eysenck's personality dimensions (1957, 1960, 1967, 1971) were adopted. This section will briefly outline Eysenck's work. Eysenck (1960) defines personality in a way which, he admits, owes much to Allport, as

> "the more or less stable and enduring organisation of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique which determine his unique adjustment to the environment".

Eysenck finds the concepts of trait and type both relevant for the purpose of describing personality. Traits are made up from habitual responses by the individual while 'type' is a more inclusive concept which refers to a group of traits which are correlated with one another.

2.2.3 Eysenck's personality dimensions:

Eysenck asserts that three dimensions are sufficient to account for the variance of human personality: extraversion (E): the extravert is fond of excitement, he is sociable and lively while the introvert is quiet and retiring; neuroticism (N): the neurotic is anxious, worrying, moody and unstable and psychoticism (P): solitary, cruel, inhumane, insensitive, sensation-seeking. Psychoticism is only important in the development of psychotic neural disorders, it is not very important in the personality of normals. Normal people score around the mean for both extraversion and neuroticism. Two tests have been developed by Eysenck for the measurement of extraversion and neuroticism - the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI), and the Junior Eysenck Personality Inventory (JEPI).

2.2.4 Eysenck's theory of personality

As a result of his research, Eysenck (1971) has elaborated his personality dimensions into an explanatory theory in contrast with the more descriptive system used by Raymond Cattell (1957). Eysenck's personality dimension, extraversion and neuroticism are linked with physiological factors in the nervous system. Neuroticism is positively related to the excitability of the automatic nervous system (which controls reactions such as heartbeat and

temperature regulation); thus highly neurotic people are excitable, quick to respond to stimuli. Extraversion is negatively related to conditionability. Briefly, conditioning is the process whereby a stimulus evoking an involuntary response is associated with another stimulus. Eysenck's theory is that extraverts are slow to condition and lose their conditioning easily. Eysenck's approach to personality is nomothetic, that is, it is concerned with formulating laws about people in general. He believes that the only legitimate object of scientific study in this field is an attempt to classify human behaviour rather than to understand the individual. This is in contrast to Allports approach (1963). Allport considers that our attention should primarily be directed to individuality. The conflict over different standpoints emanates from controversies in the scientific method. Those who believe that the psychology of personality is nomothetic are eager to discover general laws which will enable us to predict the behaviour of all individuals. They believe in scientific explanation based on objective evidence, and they utilize precise methods such as standardized questionnaires. From the idiographic standpoint standardized precise measures ignore the question of how these traits inter-relate to form the unique individual. The idiographic theorists are interested in how the pieces are cemented together in an individual

case, no two individuals being alike. The writer believes that although these two approaches appear irreconcilable in the study of personality, each one has something to offer. Allport aims at understanding with his idiographic approach; Eysenck at prediction and control. As Holt (1962) points out, all highly developed sciences aim at control through understanding. There is no doubt that if we conceive of personality in terms of dimensions, extraversion and neuroticism are the two largest and most commonly found.

2.2.5 Objections to Eysenck's theory.

There are logically and empirically based objections to the theory: Logical: Conditionability is not the same thing as social learning. For example, if a person's eyeblink to a puff of air is quick to condition to a buzzer, his other responses, including social ones, are not equally quick to condition. Empirical: Eysenck believes, for instance, that the criminal is highly extraverted. Not all criminals are highly extraverted. The group of criminals reared in criminal families and neighbourhoods may well have learned the mores of their society only too well. One may conclude that the wide ramifications of Eysenck's theory need to be taken cautiously.

2.2.6 Approaches to the study of personality

In section 2.2.1 of this chapter the point was made that the definition of personality depends on one's theoretical orientation. This view is generally adopted in this study. The basic assumption underlying the study is that individuals differ on a large number of traits or variables. The ultimate explanation of personality given by any theorist will depend therefore on his particular preference for one field of investigation rather than another. Theory refers to explanations of how things come to be as they are, and also of what might be expected in the future (Moore 1974, 6; Handley 1973; Hall and Lindzey 1957). The researcher is interested in the uniformities or patterns that are discernible in our experience. In trying to make sense of our world the researcher embarks upon the task of establishing the existence of such uniformities where they are not obvious and to plot the connections between one set of uniformities and another. Thus a theory of personality must be made up of statements about personality and the relations of the elements to the whole should be clear. A theory should be logically consistent, that is, it must be clear how one element is logically related to another. It must be possible to discover objects or events in the real world to which the concepts used in the theory correspond.

2.2.7 Theory and the study of personality.

Theory is important if we want to understand and explain human behaviour. The present state of theory in personality is not only inconclusive but often confusing, but as Pervin (1975) notes, it is on the basis of past failures that we will have to build future successes. Theories of personality are expected to explain the structure, the processes of organism functioning, and the growth and development of these structures and processes. The fundamental assumption in all theories of personality is that individual differences exist and that these differences can be measured. Different theories of personality tend to lead to different techniques of personality assessment. It is necessary to understand not only theories and techniques of assessment but also the intimate relationship between the two. Theories of personality often differ in the kinds of units or structural concepts they use to describe personality. Concepts such as 'trait' and 'type' have been in common use: 'trait' as noted in section 2.2.2 refers to the consistency of an individual's response to a variety of situations, for example, rigidity, honesty and emotionality. The concept of 'type' refers to the clustering together of many different traits and in this way, implies a greater degree of uniformity and pattern to the behaviour of people, for example, individuals have been described as being introverts or extroverts.

Concepts of growth and development are related to the concepts of structure and process in a theory of personality. Growth and development must be interpreted to account for changes in structure from infancy to maturity. A theory of growth must describe the process through which development occurs and must outline the factors for various patterns of growth. The experiences an individual has as a result of his membership in a particular culture are significant among the environmental determinants of personality. The institutionalization of some behaviour patterns means that most members of a culture will have certain personality characteristics in common. Cultural forces exert considerable influence in personality functioning especially in the way they affect our needs and means of gratifying them, our relationships to authority, our self concepts, the major forms of anxiety and conflict we experience, and the ways in which we deal with them, (Kluckhohn, 1949). Within the same culture or social class there are other environmental factors that lead to considerable variation in the personality functioning of the members. Beyond the conformity to certain patterns of behaviour regulated through cultural forces, there are significant differences among families that are critical for personality development. Each pattern of parental behaviour is of significance for the personality development

of the child (Becker 1964). Along with environmental factors, genetic factors play a major role in personality, particularly in relation to that which is unique within the individual (Allport, 1937, and 1962) such as intelligence and temperament. Theories of personality vary in the weight given to genetic and environmental factors, in the importance attached to questions concerning growth and development, and in their interpretations of the mechanisms through which personality development occurs. To summarize, we may understand personality as being determined by an interplay of genetic, cultural, social class, and family forces. It is the task of any personality theory to account for the development of structures and patterns of behaving. The field of personality is filled with issues that divide theorists along sharply defined lines and lead to alternative, competing schools of thought, largely because different personality theories tend to lead to and be influenced by different kinds of data.

Table 2.1 adapted from Pervin (1975), shows a summary of the relationship between some theories of personality and the kinds of techniques used for collecting data.

Table 2.1. Some suggested relationships among assessment techniques and theories of personality

Test Category	Test Characteristics.	Illustration.	Theoretical Approach	Illustrative Theory & Theorist
Projective	Non-Structured, disguised	Rorschach TAT	Psychodynamic.	Psychoanalysis Freud
Subjective	Non-structured or Semi-structured, undisguised	Interview Q-sort Rep.Test	Phenomenological.	Self-Rogers Personal - Kelly
Objective Behavioural.	Structured, objective.	Behavioural assessment.	Learning	Learning Theory - Skinner.

By and large, the presence of personal bias and an element of arbitrariness in theories of personality constitute a problem for objectivity:

> "An apparently arbitrary element, compounded of personal and historical accident, is always a formative ingredient of the beliefs espoused by a given scientific community in a given time" (Kuhn, 1970, p.4).

2.2.5 Personality and teacher effectiveness:

The evidence on the relation of personality variables to success in teaching is still inconclusive and a large part of the difficulty seems to lie in the highly complex nature of the criterion embodied in the term 'teacher effectiveness'. Quite obviously, this is not a unitary concept in terms of behaviour and roles. A very wide range

of activities are implied in the broad term 'teacher'. These activities may range from making a child feel secure on his first day in school to solving theoretical problems. The same person may be excellent at one of these tasks and be totally incompetent at the other.

Much more complex is the term effectiveness. Knowing what criterion for effectiveness is still a problem. Pupil achievement, being measurable in terms of number of examinations passed, has been common criterion, but we know that there is more to effective teaching than getting pupils through examinations. Another mark of an effective teacher is his being liked by his pupils. The problem again is that one may be popular without making any significant contributions to one's pupils' intellectual growth. The role of the teacher is so diverse and the criteria of effectiveness so subjective that it is hard to know where to start.

Getzels and Jackson (1963) have said that very little is known for certain about the relationship between teacher personality and teaching effectiveness. Scanning through the literature, two prerequisites for teacher effectiveness seem to stand out (Birkinshaw 1935; Leeds 1956; Rocchio and Kearney 1956; Singh 1969; Moskowitz and Hayman 1976). The first is intelligence; this relates to the power to discern and utilize relationships, without which good teaching would be impossible. Crocker (1968) believes that

above a certain minimum level, I.Q (intelligence quotient) has no measurable effect upon teaching ability. The second is a capaoity for making good human relations; teaching implies first and foremost human interaction.

2.2.9 Extraversion and teaching

Using over 3,000 women teachers in rural and urban areas throughout England, Birkinshaw (1935) carried out one of the earliest investigations in the field of teacher effectiveness. One of the main conclusions of this research (Birkinshaw's) was that the extravert was the more successful teacher because he/she likes to share the interests of other people and to share his/her own interests with them, and this action is a necessary part of teaching. The introvert, on the other hand, who would naturally shy away from contact with the world was unlikely to succeed as a teacher.

Using the Maudesley Personality Inventory (MPI), Singh (1969) found that in his sample of 302 teachers those specializing in Education had the highest mean score in extraversion compared with students specializing in humanities, science or social science. It is possible to deduce from this that teaching attracts extraverts.

In their attitudes, Eysenck has found extraverts to be more tough-minded and introverts more tender-minded, that is, the introvert is more likely to be against punishments, flogging of criminals and other such practices. He is more idealistic and has a keener religious and ethical sense. In a study by Warburton et al (1963), the most successful student-teachers had tender-minded educational attitudes. They score high on source trait I on Cattell's 16PF test which suggests a high degree of sensitive imagination and aesthetic fastidiousness. In view of this link between introversion and tender-mindedness, Warbuton's study seems to suggest that a good teacher has more in common with the introvert. On the other hand, Davis and Satterly (1969), working with students of a college of education, found that a high score on Factor I correlated with poor teaching. In this study they concluded that higher than average sensitivity militated against a high teaching grade.

In the absence of more conclusive evidence relating to extraversion - introversion and teaching ability, one can only speculate and continue to research into possible connections. One might reasonably expect the extravert to be more successful, at least initially, in a job essentially concerned with relations with other people whilst the introvert would succeed where the subject-matter

is more important. Putting it simply, the extravert should make better primary/junior secondary school teachers and introverts better senior secondary/university teachers. It seems that the level at which the teaching is being carried out is a very relevant variable. In view of the inconclusiveness of studies in the extraversion - introversion dimension in teacher effectiveness it seems we should need Warburton's suggestion (1963) that, in selecting potential teachers, stability is more important than the extraversion - introversion dimension.

2.2.10 Stability and teaching

Research with a variety of personality tests has produced evidence that points in one direction: stability and teaching success are positively correlated independent of the level at which the teaching is taking place. Birkinshaw (1935) found that emotional stability was essential for a teacher to be successful; Barr (1945) found that "personal emotional and social adjustment" was a major factor in predicting teaching efficiency, and other studies have confirmed this link (Solomon, 1967; Schmid 1950; Moore and Cole 1957; Davis and Satterly 1969) found that Homerton students who gained low teaching grades were high in anxiety, making their behaviour tense, excitable and restless. Being co-operative and friendly, both of which are signs of good adjustment, are frequently cited in studies

of the good teacher. It is of course difficult to say whether teaching well was the cause of being well adjusted to one's work or its effects. It seems likely that, stability, whether brought about primarily through temperamental or environmental factors, is clearly related to success in teaching. According to Eysenck (1969) the stable person is likely to be controlled, reliable, even-tempered, calm, easy-going, carefree and a leader - traits best fitted to make a successful teacher.

2.2.11 SUMMARY

(a) The main problem in identifying the would-be effective teachers lies in how to define effectiveness and how to translate this effectiveness into measurable variables.

(b) Although pupil attainment has been used to measure teacher effectiveness, it measures only subject mastery, other aspects of learning like those concerned with the affective domain cannot be measured this way.

(c) There is no agreed upon definition of personality researchers define personality to reflect whatever problem they wish to solve,

(d) Eysenck's theory of personality has been explained and contrasted with Allport's idiographic approach.

(f) Evidence from literature seems to suggest that extraverts make good primary school and junior secondary school teachers and introverts better senior secondary and university teachers.

(g) Emotional stability has been found to be one of the major personality characteristics of an effective teacher.

.2.3 Attitude to Teaching.

2.3.1 The concept of attitudes:

Attitudes are important objectives in every educational activity because they are linked with motivation and perception. The teacher's aim is to influence the attitudes of his pupils, a job he can do effectively only if his own attitude towards teaching is positive. Attitudes have a dual role in education for they are both learned and they influence further learning. The concept attitude is defined either as acquired patterns of response predisposing a person towards specific behaviour in similar given situations, or as aspects of a person's cognitive structure indicative of his intellectual, emotional and motivational orientations towards some event or object. Thurstone and Chave (1929) would use the concept of attitude 'to denote the sum total of a man's inclinations and feelings, prejudices or biases, preconceived notions, ideas, fears threats and convictions about any specific topic'. Allport's definition of attitude is the most widely quoted:

> "A mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting, a directive influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related". Allport (1935)

Oppenheim(1966) suggests that three components can be discerned in the use of concept attitude.

(i) a cognitive content - thoughts, opinions, beliefs

(ii) an affective content - feelings and emotions.

(iii) a conative-effector-content-tendencies to act .

According to Berkowitz (1975, 289) there are three basic usages of the term 'attitude'. The simplest concept holds that an attitude is an evaluation of feeling or reaction. This view (held by Thurstone 1931 and Droba 1933) holds that a person's attitude towards some subject or issue is the favourableness or unfavourableness of his feelings towards it. Another school of thought, represented by such people as Allport, (1935) conceives of an attitude as a readiness to respond in a particular way with regard to the attitude subject or issue. This school of thought sees attitudes as rooted in motivation and emotion and as existing as a continual potential towards behaviour as is implied by Allport in his term "state of readiness" For example, a teacher's favourable or unfavourable attitude towards a particular ethnic group will affect, probably unconsciously, her grading of work written by a student from that ethnic group. Attitudes provide the emotional base of most of our inter-personal relations. Whether attitudes are overt and expressed verbally or implicit and not expressed at all they function as motives and initiators of behaviour (Sargent 1950). Finally in the broadest approach of all, another group (largely cognitive, affective and conate component's)

sees the individual's attitude as composite of how he understands, feels about and acts towards the given object or issue. This view sees attitudes as integrated into an organized system, although this does not exclude the possibility of contradiction. Attitudes are relatively persistent and enduring and yet like many aspects of the self they are subject to change.

The 'mental and neural state of readiness' can generally be inferred with varying degrees of accuracy from the words and actions of individuals. However, it is often misleading to infer from a person's attitude what his behaviour will be. Studies such as the one conducted by La Piere (1934) have shown that even attitudes that have strong emotional components and are persistent and deeply rooted may not always be manifested in behaviour.

Travelling through the United States at the height of recial prejudice against orientals, La Piere and his wife discovered that they were refused service only once out of the sixty-six hotels and motels and 184 restaurants they stopped at. Later on, La Piere wrote to the establishments they had visited and asked if they would provide service for Chinese persons. Ninety-two per cent of those who replied indicated that they would refuse to accept Chinese guests.

Allport (1935, 810-12) listed four conditions for the formation of attitude:

(i) The intergration of numerous specific responses within an organized structure:

(ii) The differentiation of more specific action patterns and conceptual systems from primordial, non specific attitudes of approach and withdrawal;

(iii) Trauma, involving "a compulsive organization of the mental field following a single intense emotional experience".

(iv) The adoption of attitudes by imitation of parents, teachers or peers.

These conditions though not mutually exclusive emphasize different aspects of attitudinal learning, such as its gradualness or suddenness, the emotional intensity of the learning experience and the informational basis on which attitudes are acquired.

Attitudes are not developed in a social vacuum, they are acquired by a person being a member of a group and by accepting or rejecting the values of that group as a point of reference. In early childhood, the family which is responsible for the child's socialization, is also responsible for the youngsters' acquisition of attitudes considered appropriate. Later on, the peer - group and other groups also play an important role in the socialization process.

Since the family impresses itself on the child in so many ways and from the earliest years it is not surprising that positive correlations can be shown between the attitudes of parents and children as shown by Newcomb and Svehla (1937, cited in Campbell, 1963.). In adolescence, however, other influences become increasingly more important.

2.3.2 Concern about teacher attitudes.

Both educators and educational planners have become increasingly aware of the fact that attitudes are central to the whole educative process. The major worry for educational planners is that trainee teachers, with negative attitudes to teaching enter the training institutions because of lack of something better to do. Research evidence indicates that attitudes may be transferred to children unconsciously by adults and playmates (Lasker, 1949; Raimann 1951). Attitudes may also arise as products of experiences the child undergoes and conversely everything that goes on in the classroom as it affects the child leads to the formation on his part of certain attitudes, and since attitudes may be learned through identification with the person who holds those values and since teachers are often held as models by children, it is important that they hold wholesome attitudes.

2.3.3 Pupils' attitudes and school achievement.

The importance of developing positive attitudes of students towards the subject matter they study has been recognized for many years, (Bloom Hastings and Madus, 1971, Dewey 1933; Kahn and Weiss, 1973; Mager, 1968; Ringness, 1975). While Jackson (1968) has pointed out that there is no relationship between pupil attitudes towards school and scholastic success, a positive relationship between pupil attitudes towards a specific subject and achievement in that subject has been demonstrated empirically in a number of studies. Jordan (1941) found significant correlations between attitude to the subject concerned and the attainments in Mathematics, French, English, History and Geography; Biggs (1959) also found that the correlation between attitudes towards arithmetic and attainment in arithmetic was significantly larger than that between any other attitude and its corresponding achievement. Mukherjee (1972) also found that pupils' attitude to mathematics account maximally for the variance in transfer task of problem solving achievement than either their intelligence or previous experience in mathematics. Other researches confirming the linear [illegible] relationships existing between attitudes and their corresponding tasks include Attonen, (1967), Basham, Murphy and Murphy, (1964) Chall and Fieldman, (1966); Grozzier, (1969);

Harrington, (1972); Holtzman and Brown, (1968); Husen, (1972); Khan, (1969, 1963, 1970), Kempa and Dube, (1974); Lihmann, (1958); Neale, Gill, and Tismer, (1970); Neidt and Hedlund, (1967); Ripple (1965); Teigland, (1966. However research is still silent on the question of what factors influence the formation of these attitudes.

2.3.4 Teacher behaviour and pupils' attitudes

Evidence suggests that non-curriculum related variables such as teacher behaviour have a profound impact on attitude formation. Research also shows that this variable can be generalised across subject areas and instructional setting. Other variables which have also been found important in attitude formation, are self-concept of the pupil, home background, parent, previous attitudes (Ramsett, Johnson and Adam 1974). With regard to teacher behaviour, Aiken (1970) in a comprehensive review of pupil attitudes to mathematics, found that teacher enthusiasm and attitudes towards mathematics was the most important factor affecting attitude formation. Philips (1973) found a positive correlation between 306 seventh-grade students' attitudes and teacher attitudes towards mathematics. Ryan (1968) and Sterring (1973) found that teacher attitude towards the curriculum was the most important factor influencing performance in that subject. Walberg (1969) and Walberg

and Anderson (1972) have found classroom climate related to attitude formation.

2.3.5 Teacher Attitude and teaching performance.

Research is very scanty on the relationship between teachers' attitudes to teaching and their performance on practical teaching. The few available researches show that there is positive relationship between the two variables. Taiwo (1981) after studying presevice teachers reports that attitudes towards science teaching in Nigeria are highly related to practice performance teaching. Recently Mukherjee and Jatto (1983) in an unpublished article found that successful teacher-trainees were identified by their attitude to teaching as well as their orientation towards the task of teaching.

2.3.6 The measurement of attitudes

Social scientists like Lindren (1969) are of the view that attitudes cannot be directly observed but are inferred from behaviour, either from an individual's response to objects, persons and other events or from his evaluative statements or his verbal expressions. Observing an individual's actions directly is very difficult, so that judgement is usually based on the individual's verbal, written or spoken statements. Interviews, paper and pencil scales or questionnaires are usually used to measure attitudes.

The paper and pencil method is more widely used because it permits the collection of a large amount of data in a short time and it is also easier to analyse statistically.

There are several dimensions of attitudes which are important to the problem of measurement. These are

(i) The direction of the attitude being measured:

An attitude can be for or against the object or person or event. On a typical attitude scale direction may be indicated on a "like" or"dislike" dimension by checking "yes" or "no" or any other similar pair of options.

(ii) The strength or intensity of the attitude: This aspect of attitude measurement is concerned with how the respondent feels about the target of the attitude. It measures whether the respondent feels strongly, weakly or is undecided. Intensity can be measured by indicating ones' position on a graduated scale of values, by selecting a statement from an array whose intensity ranges from "strong" to "weak." or by checking a greater or lesser number of options in a given direction. This aspect of the problem is closely tied up with motivational and emotional dimensions of the attitude. It indicates to what extent an attitude can become a basis for action. If individuals feel very

strongly about something they are likely to act. On the other hand, if they feel weakly about it, no action is likely to be forthcoming.

(iii) Centrality of an attitude:

This aspect of attitude measurement is concerned with whether an attitude occupies a central place in the individual's life or it is a peripheral and marginal attitude. Strongly held attitudes are likely to be central and are in fact motivators of behaviour, (Sargent : 1950).

2.3.7 Attitude Scales

The social researcher has several methods at his disposal; his choice of a particular method is determined by the nature of the problem he wishes to investigate. For this study the Likert type scale was chosen because it is easier to construct compared to either the Thurstone or Guttman type of scale. Oppenheim (1966) points out several advantages of the Likert scale. It correlates highly with the Thurstone type, thus implying that it can do as good a job for less amount of work from the researcher's point of view. The scale has been shown to have good reliability while the internal consistency method of item analysis ensures unidimensionality. Unidimensionality, (that is the scale's ability to measure one thing at a time as purely as possible), and reproducibility, ("the quality of being able to reproduce

the responses to each item, knowing only the total score" (Goode and Hatt 1952, 286) are the two strong points of the Guttman scales. The Likert type scale then seems to have some of the good qualities of both the Thurstone and the Guttman scales. Among the other advantages of the Likert type scale are its usefulness in ordering of people with regard to a particular attitude and its ability to provide information about the respondent's degree of agreement or disagreement.

Despite all its good points the Likert type scale has been criticised because many combinations of responses can result in the same score. This being the case, it has been suggested that such a score either has little meaning or that two or more identical scores may have different meanings. Another criticism against the scale is that it lacks internal measures so that it is difficult to know where scores in the middle ranges from midly positive to midly negative. It has also been argued that the Likert scales will split people within the same group.

2.3.8 SUMMARY

There are many definitions of the concept "attitude" but these can be grouped into three major schools.

(1) One held by Thurstone and others which sees an individual's attitude towards a subject or issue as the favourableness or unfavourableness of that person's feelings towards it.

(2) Another school of thought represented by Allport, conceives an attitude as a readiness to respond in a particular way.

(3) The broadest approach (which sees attitudes as having cognitive affective and conate components) defines the individual's attitude as composite of how he understands, feels and acts towards a given subject.

(4) Attitudes are acquired as a result of interaction with other people and the environment.

(5) There is a positive relationship between attitudes and scholastic achievement in specific subjects.

(6) A teacher's attitude towards a subject is the most important variable influencing students attitudes toward that subject.

(7) Attitudes are assessed for direction, intensity and centrality.

(8) The Likert scale was chosen for use in this study because it seems to combine the good qualities of both the Thurstone and Guttman Scales in addition to its being easy to construct.

.2.4 THE HOME BACKGROUND OF TEACHERS

2.4.1 The Social Origin of Teachers

The social background of people in a given occupation reflects the ease of entry, and for teachers in general, social background varies at different levels; it is lowest in the primary schools and highest in the universities (Peil, 1977).

Floud and Scott (1955) found that most teachers in England come from lower middle and skilled working classes with women in all types of schools having a higher social origin than their male counterparts,

In America Brookover and Gottieleb (1964) report that although a sizeable minority is from working classes, the largest group is from the lower middle classes. On the other hand, Carlson (1951) dispels the often held myth that because secondary school teachers have higher qualifications they must have a higher social origin. According to his study (Carlson, 1951), 40 per cent of male secondary school teachers are from working or lower classes compared to 23 per cent female elementary school teachers. Another interesting observation is that in both the British and American schools, the socio-economic origin of the students admitted into the institutions influences the social class from which the teacher would be recruited. For instance findings by Heriott and St. John (1966) show that in schools

where the pupils are from the lowest social-status families, teachers come from backgrounds which can be characterised as more urban, more "blue collar", with less formal education and income than those of schools of highest socio-economic status". With regard to the fathers' occupation, which is perhaps the most significant factor in determining socio-economic status 43 per cent of teachers in the schools of low socio-economic status had fathers "in blue collar occupations". But even then, in schools where most of the children come from lower social strata, the majority of teachers still come from relatively middle class background.

The situation may be somewhat different in Africa where generally the educational qualifications of teachers are relatively lower than those obtaining in Europe and America. For example, in the 1974/75 school year (Fed. Min. of Education 1974), 51 per cent of all teachers in Nigerian Schools either possessed no teaching qualifications or had a qualification lower than the Grade II Teachers Certificate. The picture is different in the United States for instance, where similar data for 1957 show over 75 per cent of all teachers holding at least a bachelors degree and about 25 per cent of them a masters' degree (Charters, 1962, 719).

Peil (1965) and Foster (1965) analyse the teaching situation in Africa differently. They note that before independence when secondary education was elitist, secondary

teachers tended to come from relatively high social backgrounds. With independence came democratization of both primary and secondary education, creating more demand for teachers' and breaking the elitist tendencies of the colonial era. The expatriate staff who hitherto taught in the secondary schools left at independence before sufficient local graduates could be produced to take their posts. The filling of this gap has been over-taken by phenomenal increases in secondary school places.

Not much research has been done on the socio-economic origin of teachers in Nigeria at present. Nonetheless one is inclined to deduce, from available evidence, that a majority of teachers will come from the lower classes. Many people enter teaching, not for the love of the profession, but because it is perhaps the cheapest means of upward mobility. Teacher education attracts either very nominal fees or it is free, so that for the poor student, teacher training may be the only way to acquire higher education.

A study by Ebomoyi (1978) carried out at the University of Lagos among students from the faculties of Science, Social Sciences, Law, Arts, Environmental Design, Business Education, Engineering and Education throws some light on the social origin of teachers, Focussing on their parent's educational level and their occupation, Ebomoyi found that students in the Faculty of Education were generally older -

80 per cent in the sample were 27 years or older whereas more than 60 per cent of the students in the other faculties were 26 years or younger. The implication of this age difference appears to be that the students in the Faculty of Education must either have been teaching or working elsewhere while awaiting a scholarship or raising funds to enable them to enter university. Incidentally, of the 529 subjects involved in this researcher's investigation, 70 per cent were 25 years old or above. Ebomoyi further found that with regard to parent's educational level, only 10 per cent of the parents of the students in the Faculty of Education had had university education compared to 60 per cent in Science, 40 per cent in Environmental Design; 60 per cent in Law; 10 per cent in Business Education and 20 per cent in Social Sciences; 70 per cent in Engineering and 50 per cent in Arts.

When comparisons were made concerning the parent's occupation and type of accommodation, students from the Faculty of Education showed the lowest socio-economic origins. More than 80 per cent claimed that their parents were small time farmers, petty traders or contractors or junior civil servants. Although the study cannot be considered valid for all universities in Nigeria, its findings are revealing. It therefore appears that the Nigerian Secondary school teachers are largely drawn from relatively lower social

strata of the society.

2.4.2 Family influence on school performance.

The home has been found to play an important role in school success. The psychological atmosphere of the home, social class and parental attitudes have been cited as some of the variables that influence school achievement.

A number of researches have been reported on the influence of home background on the academic performance of children (Birch 1970, Bronfenbrenner 1974; Firowska Ostrowska, Sokolowska, Stein, Susser, Wald 1978; Henderson and Merrit 1968; Hess 1969, Jencks et al 1972; McKay et al 1978, Miller 1971, Douglas 1964). These studies support the view that children who fail in school are from disadvantaged families. The psychological atmosphere of the home, social class and parental attitudes have been cited as some of the variables that influence school achievement. A study conducted in Ohio by Baldwin (1954) indicated that readiness for school and for intellectual development depends heavily on the child's treatment at home. Evidence shows children from democratic homes as being consistently superior in originality, self direction and curiosity. It appears that children who enjoy emotional stabilty at home gain in intellectual power while those who are criticised and dominated do not do well.

Family size has also been found to influence school achievement. Blomquist (1957) in his research in Sweden found evidence that children from large families tend to fail at school more often than those from smaller ones. In an attempt to identify the causes of scholastic failure, Ahluwaha (1952) and Bhatnagar (1952) studied environmental and home factors in India. Like Blomquist they found more failures in large families with no secluded place to study.

Reviewing literature on the bearing of social class on children's achievement, Swift (1964) found that among children of comparative ability, those from middle class homes were consistently higher in school attainment than those from working class families, thus implying that home background as assessed from a classification of the parent's occupation has influence on children's performance. Parental encouragement has also been reported to influence school motivation and performance (Mannimo 1962; Wall 1962; and Douglas 1964.) Children tend to do well when their parents are interested in their school progress and the reverse is the case if parents are disinterested and indifferent to their school work.

2.4.3 Remarks.

Research literature cited above support the view that home background factors are important for school achievement. The children on whom these researches were conducted were

mainly younger children, still in their formative years. This study looks at the problem from a slightly different angle. Its concern is with the influence on teaching performence of young adults and adults exerted by family background (i.e. status variables such as education, occupation and income and process variables which include parental encouragement and the amount and quality of interaction which take place in the home). It is difficult to relate directly the home background variables of teachers to their teaching competence. In order to increase control factors in the study it was thought to investigate whether the relationship which is often reported to exist between home background and school achievement might also exist between the teacher's social background and his teaching competence.

2.5.1 The Cultural Dimension

To examine behaviour culturally involves looking at it comparatively. If there were only one human culture it would be difficult "to identify what behaviour was cultural, what idiosyncratic but learned, and what instinctive" (Mead, 1955). Culture is often defined as the total way of life of a society that has been lived, organised and which is passed down to subsequent generations. Each generation receives, transforms, and transmits the peculiar habits, ideas, interests, and aspirations within their culture, the social

heritage of a particular society at a given time (for example Hausa society in 1900 or Yoruba society today). The dynamism of culture is apparent in the changes occuring in our norms and institutions. The concept culture includes language and technology, ethnical values, style of clothes, social and economic aspirations, laws and customs, political ideals and religions of the members of a society. Culture is environmental in the sense that each individual is born into and reared in a society in which a culture already exists. One distinctive characteristic of culture is its diversity; it assumes many different forms. Cultural differences persist among various ethnic groups in their speech, dress, diet, customs and traditions as succinctly stated by Kluckhohn (1949) that:

> "Culture regulates our lives at every turn. From the moment we are born until we die there is, whether we are conscious of it or not, constant pressure upon us to follow certain types of behaviour that other men have created for us".

In this context cultural regularities among a people would include the way in which the versions of the culture found in different classes, regions or occupations are systematically related to one another. Mead (1955) suggests that:

> "when we are making a cultural analysis we are interested in identifying those characteristics including, if not specifying, the possibilities of variation by class, region, religion, period, etc - which can be attributed to sharing in the tradition of the larger group, whether the group be nation, tribe province . . ."

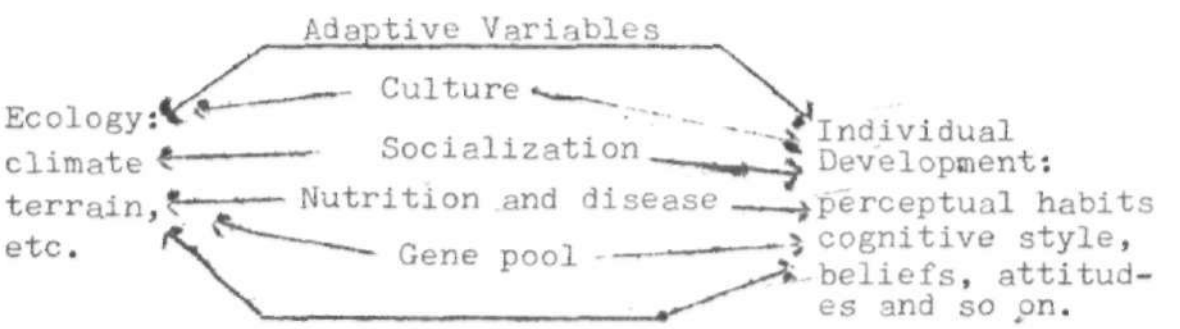
Culture in this sense may be seen as setting the patterns and limits for normal behaviour within any society. Yet the point needs to be made that the idiosyncratic features of individual experience do thwart the standardization pressures from culture. (Hoebel, 1958 ; Mead, 1955; LeVine 1966). In his study of cultural differences among major ethnic groups in Nigeria LeVine (1966) asserts that personality differences between Hausa, Ibo and Yoruba is due to their socialization. He shows the emphasis on patron - client relations in Hausa society and an individual achievement in Ibo society. The Yoruba are seen as in between, a society which rewards both independent achievement and loyal clientage. The data used by LeVine has been seriously questioned; nevertheless differences between groups of people can have important social implications, and the study poses some interesting questions which deserve further research.

..2.5.2 Scope of Cultural Study

The functionalist perspective of culture asserts that every feature of society is meeting some need, and at the same time fulfilling some function, a phenomenon which, it is argued, keeps the social system going. The task of the researcher is to discover those needs or those functions. He works with the expectation of there being a pattern.

An adequate knowledge of the pattern - of the culture, the period, or the particular individual who is being intensively studied - should make it possible to explain past events by relating them to this knowledge and to predict the style, but not the detail, of future events. Berry (1975) puts forward a conceptual system in which ecological forces are viewed as influencing human behaviour, either directly or through the intervening adaptive variables, both socio-cultural and organismic. Obviously, the direction of relationship as postulated by Kluckhohn (1949) and Berry (1975) is not exclusively from ecology to culture to behaviour; individual behaviour can also influence culture. Cultural studies are undertaken with a view to understanding human behaviour through the ways in which socio-cultural variables influence it. To do that, the researcher needs to focus on behavioural differences across cultures (or sub-cultures) and sometimes on universal patterns of behaviour, ultimately to discover how culture and individual behaviour relate.

Figure: 2.2 A framework for thinking about cross-cultural study (Adapted from J.W. Berry by M.S. Segall (1979).



A version of Berry's [sociological] model illustrated in Figure 2.2 [above] provides a convenient, abstract framework of three classes of variables for the concepts of cross-cultural psychology. To clarify the usefulness of the framework, socialization, a sociocultural adaptive class of variables is singled out for brief attention. Socialization, the process by which the older generation conveys its norms and standards to the young, is an important aspect of how culture influences individual development. The framework suggests that socialization practices tend to be designed to produce those behaviours that are maximally adaptive to whatever ecological conditions prevail. Berry's model is heuristic (it suggests relationship to be sought and tested) and emphasises functionality. This framework assumes that in each ecological setting behaviours evolve that produce institutions, life-styles, and shared beliefs and values that influence the way children are reared. These methods of upbringing, in turn, tend to produce succeeding generations who behave in ways that maximize their chances of survival. Berry's framework therefore incorporates any study that includes the collection of individual behavioural data and seeks to relate that behaviour to ecological or sociocultural variables.

2.5.3 Importance of cultural analysis to teacher education

The essential function of education is the transmission of culture and this in itself is adequate reason why the culture concept is a subject of primary importance to the teacher. The work of the teacher is seen essentially as the agent of a culture, as may be equated to Durkheim's social facts' (1956, 7); Clarke (1948) has pleaded that, while the teacher aimed at the production of a given citizen type, he should also, somehow, educate for 'growth beyond the type':

> "It is the first business of education to induce such conformity in terms of the culture in which the child will grow up. No amount of indiscriminate denouncing of so-called 'indoctrination' can change the necessities of the process by which we become civilized human beings. A child cannot even learn his mother-tongue without being indoctrinated".
> (The Curriculum and the Community in Wales, 1952).

The teacher, like other agencies of the educative society, is thus the servant of the culture in which he finds himself. In this view, the role of the teacher is not to dictate to or to desregard the community in which he works, far less to transform it, but to mirror its dominant values and perpetuate them (Musgrove and Taylor, 1969). To apply this philosophy requires the selection of teachers who are likely to be culturally well-rounded or appropriately disposed to depict the desirable attributes of the culture in which they work. The use of academic qualifications as criteria for

selection into colleges of education is in keeping with the legacy of commercial and industrial values of the technologically - oriented West, such as individualism, predictability, and academic excellence. Yet the uncritical adoption of these criteria in Africa has led to the notable neglect of other factors in teacher education including cultural matters. Inglis (1975, 103) believes that the study of culture and the study of education meet in the training of teachers. He argues that teacher education should be centrally concerned with questions of culture. A logical conclusion will be to assert that selection issues should include issues of culture and not academic performance alone, because people's culture, regardless of the origin or age of its components, is something to which they relate positively and from which they derive guidance for their own attitudes and behaviours. In Africa, ethnic identities have been found to be of considerable tenacity and this issue is salient to the question of 'culture'. This research seems to be referring to 'culture' in an immensely diverse national unit. The great emphasis placed on education by the Federal government "as an instrument par excellence for effecting national development" (National Policy on Education; 1981, 1) is aimed at national integration.

As shown in federal institutions and their norms, the leaders of this country encourage their people to think of themselves first as Nigerians without forbidding any reference to ethnic membership. To talk about 'culture' in this context would imply integration which does not presuppose a blurring of constituent cultures.

2.5.4 Summary

A. Culture which is defined as a peoples' total way of life differs from one ethnic group to another.

B. Since the function of education is to transmit culture teachers need to be well versed in the cultural values they are transmitting.

2.6 SELF CONCEPT AND THE EFFECTIVE TEACHER

2.6.1 Definitions and views about the nature of self concept.

Self concept is a construct which has attracted considerable attention among researchers. This is because according to Dabzhansky, cited in Burns (1979, 4) man is the only species among 'Homo Sapiens' who exhibits the quality of self awareness. A variety of terms have been used to convey, similar ideas about 'self concept' such as 'self-image' (Merril, 1975) and 'self-perception' (Mac Candles, 1966); Rogers, (1951, 136) says:

> "The self concept or structure may be thought of as an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are valence"...."this configuration . . . serves to regulate behaviour and account for uniformity in personality."

Argyle (1967 , 151-158) explains self concept in terms of 'self-image' and 'self-esteem' and 'ideal-self'. Self-image according to Argyle refers to how a person consciously perceives himself, the central core usually consisting of his name, his bodily feelings, body image, sex and age. Self-esteem is seen as the extent to which

a person approves and accepts himself as praise worthy on his own right or in comparison with others. In other words, 'self-image' and 'self-esteem' originate from the reaction of others, often known as the theory of 'the looking glass of self'. We come to see ourselves as others categorize us. Similarly the self-image may originate from comparison of oneself with others who may be brothers, sisters or friends. If the brothers, sisters or friends are cleverer, one may see oneself as not so clever. Another source of self-image is the role a person has played in the past or is playing now. The 'ideal self' of the self concept is the fantasy or picture of various ideals of behaviour manifestations that an individual aspires after. Mukherjee (1978, 285-286) looks at self concept in two ways:

(i) the 'I' of self, which he regards as "the conscious agent or the person having an interactional situation" and

(ii) "the 'me' of the self of a person or agent which is referred to by others in situations of interaction."

Mukherjee sees the 'me' of the self concept as incorporating all of Argyle's three components, self-image, self-esteem and ideal-self; (Mukherjee, 1978, op. cit.)

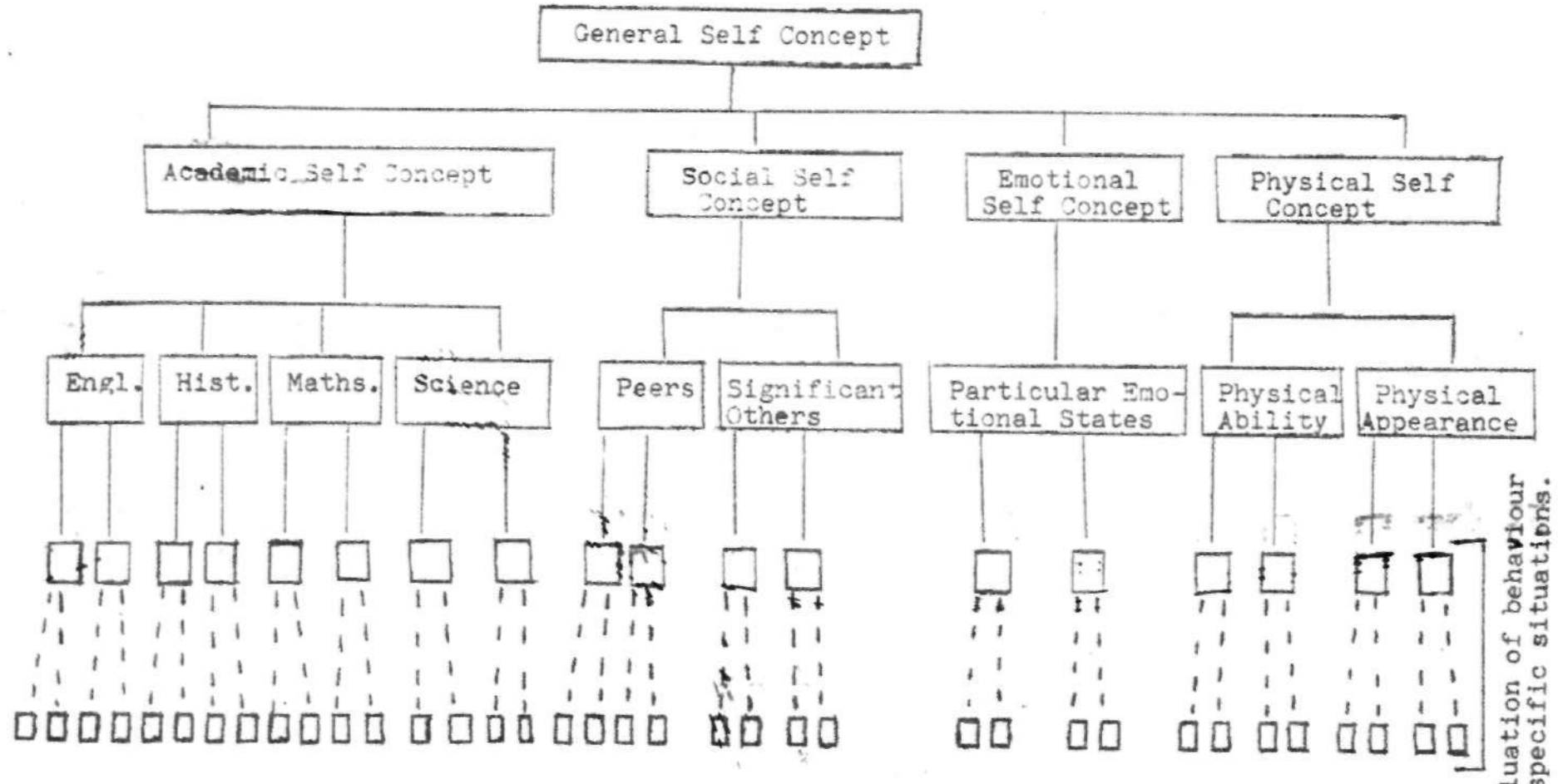


Figure 2.3 Structure of Self Concept (From "Self Concept: Validation of construct Interpretations" by R.J. Shavelson, J.J. Hubner and J.C. Stanton; Review of Educational Research 1976, 46, 407-441.

Individual differences in role performance may lead a person to see himself as intelligent, or not so good, depending on the way he performed a particular role. Children can develop the self image by identifying with a model who is an admired figure, for example a parent, a teacher or any other person.

Recently, the tendency has been to view the self concept as multifaceted and hierachical in nature. (Shavelson at el, 1976; Fernandes, 1978; Fernandes, Michael and Smith, 1978; Fleming and Watts, 1980; Michael Smith and Michael, 1975; Shepard, 1979; and Wylie 1979). At the top of the hierachy (shown in figure 2.3) is General Self Concept and Non Academic Self Concept. At the base of the hierachy is the evaluation of behaviours in situations. Other studies noteworthy are those by Marx and Taylor (1977) and Marx and Wine (1978) who purport not to support the multi-faceted interpretation of self concept. They are of the view that:

> "self concept seems as more unitary construct rather than one broken down into distinct parts or facets in the monological network . . . Much of the construct is shared and undifferentiable, but individual facets may be more or less relevant when self concept is related to other constructs like achievement (1977, 900)."

Marx and his associates do of course agree with the multifaceted theory postulated by Shevelson et al. (1976).

It is apparent, therefore that theorists on self concept do not agree about its nature and composition. However, whether it is multifaceted (Argyle 1967; Mukherjee 1978) and hierachical (Shavelson et al, 1976) or a single unitary construct (Marx and Wine 1978)
they all, seem to agree that it is central to the individual's existence; it touches on personal aspects of the individual such as motivation, purposes, goals as well as adjustment which are ultimately the major determinants of the individual's success both in school and in real life.

For the purpose of this study the ideas and beliefs that the subjects hold about themselves will be taken to include the individual's motivation, orientation towards the task of having to teach, his disposition towards solving problems and his perception of his role as a member of a group of students in an institution of learning.

2.6.2 Self Concept and School Achievement:

The theoretical importance of the student's self-esteem in the educational realm has been stressed by Glasser (1969) and Sibberman (1970). A notion that is central to a number of self concept theories (Combs and Snygg 1959, Hayakawa, 1963; Rogers 1961) is that global

self concept, an overall or general view of the self, is a critical factor in determining human behaviour. As a global construct self concept consists in the awareness of the totality of one's self knowledge emanating from a history of social interactions with others and evaluations of how one has coped with life, (Mc Candless and Trotter, 1977). In the frameworks of several theorists the role of general self concept in initiating and guiding behaviour has been equated with motivation (e.g. Combs and Snygg 1959; Gordon 1968; Sears and Sharman, 1964). Consequently variations in human behaviour spanning individual differences is general self concept. However, Jordan (1982), found that general self concept did not account substantially for the variance in academic achievement, but that academic self concept did. Academic self concept is defined as

> "those attitudes, feelings and perceptions about a person's intellectual or academic skills which are indicated by the person's response on a scale or instrument" (Fink and Stevens 1980).

2.6.3 Sources of Self Concept.

Cooley (1902) identified culture as the origin of one's self concept. The individual's interpretation of his physical and social reality as dictated by the culture in which one finds one's self results in the development of self. Closely tied up with culture is language which

is used in communicating the meaning of social objects to the individual. The objects found in the culture include ones' physical body and all those things that pertain to the self like purposes, ambitions and wishes.

Conceptions of the self and evaluations associated with them come from the individual's subjective construction of feedback received from the significant others,

> "those persons who are important or who have significance to the child by reason of his sensing their ability to reduce insecurity or to intensify it, to increase or to decrease his helplessness, to promote or to diminish his sense of worth" (Burns 1979,161).

In the child's early life, the parents are the most important significant others, then the teacher and friends also become important as the child grows older and his social horizon widens. During adolescence, the peergroup constitutes the significant others. Mead (1934) is of the view that self concept originates primarily from the individual's concern about how others react to him. He sees this as essential because the individual needs to anticipate other people's reactions in order to behave accordingly.

Child rearing practices have also been shown to influence the development of self concept. Stott (1939) studied 1,800 adolescents and noted that children who

had come from homes in which there was acceptance, trust and compatibility between the parents were better adjusted, more independent and had positive self concepts. Children from families where there was disharmony were less adjusted. In another study involving 1,700 10 - 12 year olds Coppersmith (1967) also found evidence that self concept is related to child rearing practices. His study revealed that parents of boys with high self concept showed warmth and interest towards their children's welfare. They treated their children as significant persons and were less permissive but demanded high standards from their children. They were consistent in their demands for rules to be obeyed and relied on rewards rather than punishment in their reinforcement of discipline. Parents of boys with low self concept were permissive and yet when they did administer punishment it was harsh with the result that the children felt that they were being unfairly treated.

2.6.4 The teacher and the formation of self concept in children

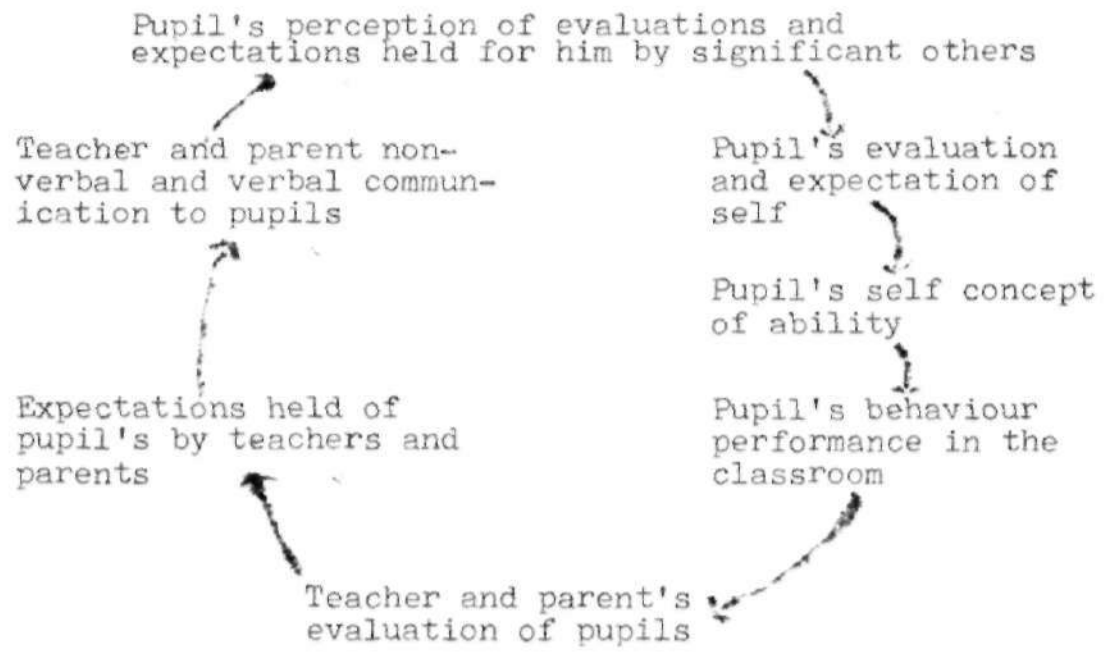
For children the teachers, the parents (and indeed other adults) are the significant others and therefore play a central role in the formation of their self concepts.

If we consider self concept to be the collection of attitudes and beliefs we hold about ourselves (Burns 1977), then we have to be aware of the importance of the sources of the experiences that constitute one's self concept. For example, a child who fails to learn a given subject and who is berated by the teacher for his stupidity, may not only come to view the school and all it stands for as unpleasant, he will also begin to see himself as stupid and worthless. If the teacher constantly nags him for being a trouble maker he may proceed to confirm that view point by his behaviour.

In what he calls the "circular process of self concept" Burns (1979, 287) explains how a positive self concept in a pupil leads to acceptance by the teacher and parents. This favourable perception by the significant others, in turn sustains the child's self regard so that he/she continues to make good progress (Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.4

The circular process of self concept
Adopted from Burns 1979



A large proportion of the child's time is spent interacting with friends, teachers and parents. If these people hold favourable opinions of him, then a strong foundation for a positive self concept may be laid. As Davison and Lang (1960, 112) put it:

> "It is essential that teachers communicate positive feelings to their children, this not only strengtherns their positive self appraisals but stimulate their growth academically as well as interpersonally."

If teachers and adults want children to succeed in life, to become balanced, confident, self accepting individuals, they need to build in them a positive self concept. Furthermore, since the type of self concept which the child develops is dependent to a great extent upon the way his experiences enhance his self esteem, the reactions towards him of adults especially adults in authority like teachers are of special importance. The slow learner for instance needs the teacher's encouragement and constant reassurance that all is not lost, and that there is still hope that he will succeed. What is needed is the teacher who can get more out of children and at the same time lead them to get more out of themselves through encouragement instead of destroying them by constantly pointing out their weaknesses and berating them for failure.

2.6.5 The Effective Teacher's Self Concept.

The relationship between the teacher's self concept and that of his pupils has been a subject of many researchers. Purkey (1970) and Walker (1965) both say that the self-concept of children is related to the self concept of their teachers. Edenborn and Landry (1976), Yamamoto (1972, and Zirkel (1971) also have made similar observations.

The work of Pedersen (1966) confirms the view that the teachers can elevate or depress the pupil's self concept which in turn can affect the pupil's level of aspiration and performance. Davidson and Lang (1960) also found that children's perception of their teacher's feelings towards them were positively related to the children's self-images.

The question of what makes a good effective teacher has eluded many researchers. As Burns (1979, 301) would put it "Researchers have been moved to admit that the problem of teacher effectiveness is so complex that no one today knows what the competent teacher is". Generally, research has identified teachers who are able to create a warm supportive atmosphere as more effective and those who are aloof overbearing and find it difficult to interact with the learners as less effective. Again Burns (ibid, 101) has listed characteristics which effective teachers must exhibit:

a willingness to be more flexible,

an empathic ability sensitive to the needs of the pupils,

an ability to personalise their teaching,

an appreciative reinforcing attitude,

an easy informal warm conversational teaching manner and emotional adjustment.

The characteristics suggested above are useful in themselves but do not tell us anything about the teacher's self concept per se.Combs (1965) also has identified some characteristics which good teachers have been shown to possess. Such characteristics include the ability to identify with others, cope with emergencies, be likeable and accepted by others, be reliable and dependable and have a positive self-concept so that the teacher feels that he is a worth-while individual, a person who commands respect. One can infer from Combs' work (ibid) that a positive self concept is central for the successful functioning of any teacher.

Researchers have also found some relationship between the type of method used by the teacher and his/her self concept. Trowbridge (1973) in a research in which he investigated the relationship between self concept and teaching style, concluded that teachers with lower self concepts talk more during their lessons and provide less opportunity for their children to express themselves, when compared to teachers with higher self concept. He also observed that teachers with higher self concept spent less time on routine activities which did not require much thinking and initiative when compared to teachers with lower self concepts. Burns (1976b) found further evidence to support Trowbridge's findings.

His findings were that the student teachers who preferred child centred methods of teaching rather than impersonal traditional ones had more positive self-concepts than the student teachers who preferred more formal teaching methods.

It would appear from evidence above that effective teachers tend to have a higher self concept than less effective ones. They are more inclined to avoid rote learning and employ flexible child - centred methods as opposed to rigid impersonal traditional ones. They are ready to deal with problems that may arise during the performance of their duties.

2.6.6. Empirical studies in self concept and school achievement

On an empirical level a number of studies (Fink, 1962; Steven, 1956; Williams and Cole 1968), using various subject populations and measurement procedures have rather consistently reported significant positive relationship between self concept and academic achievement. Primavera, and Primavera (1974) also found significant positive correlations between self-esteem and each of the five subtests of the Standard Achievement Tests and also positive correlation between self-esteem and the New York State Reading and Mathematics Achievement Tests. Seay (1961) also found positive relationship between the total self

concept levels and levels of vocabulary, comprehension and reading skills. Lumpkin (1959) comparing a sample of over and under-achievers found that over-achievers possessed a more positive self concept while under-achievers possessed a more negative perception of the self. Kamoy (1980) also made a similar finding when he investigated the relationship between self-concept and school achievement in bright elementary school children. He reported that achievers had significant higher self-concepts than under-achievers. In another research Shaw and Alves (1963) found that male under-achievers reported more negative self-concept than male achievers, while female under-achievers did not differ from female achievers.

Bledsoe (1964) and Kleinfield (1971) also found significant relationship between the two variables. As self concept increased so did school achievement. However, Coppersmith (1959) found a low correlation between Iowa Achievement Test Scores and Self-esteem of the fifth and sixth grade children. Williams (1973) found no significant correlations between self-concept and reading achievement of second grade students. Peper and Chamsky (1970) in their study of fifth grade students found that there was positive correlation between self-esteem rankings

by self and mathematics achievement as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills.

In Nigeria research has also been conducted in the area of self concept and academic performance. Bakare (1969), Obanya (1976) and Aboh (1978) have found positive relationship between self concept and academic performance.

The studies cited above including those conducted in Nigeria involved adolescents in secondary schools or younger children in elementary schools. It is possible that when the research is conducted on adults the results may be different. Fasokun (1983) examined the relationship between self concept and academic performance among 300 students on a fifteen months course for Associateship certificate in Education at the University of Ife. Using a questionnaire based on five aspects of self concept academic self concept, social self concept, physical self concept, psychological self concept and professional self concept, he found that:

(i) positive relationships existed between learners' self concept and their academic performance.

(ii) men tended to rate themselves higher than women on four out of the five aspects of self concept examined, academic,

social, pyhsical and psychological; the implication of this being that men have more confidence in these four aspects of self concept. Women rated themselves higher than men in the professional aspects of self concept, probably implying that women are more committed to the teaching profession than men.

Unlike the other researches on the relationship between self concept and achievement which have been done mainly on adolescence and younger children, this research was done on adults. Its findings indicate a positive relationship between self concept and achievement even among adult learners and more specifically student teachers.

2.6.7 Problems in measuring self concept

Two common ways of assessing self concept are the self report and observation methods. In the self report method the individual reveals his 'self' by responding to test items, while in the second method, there is an observer who uses a structured checklist and rating scale and reports on the observed behaviour of the respondent.

Many problems are associated with the self report method. The findings of the researcher are based on what

the respondent is willing to reveal about himself; there is no way of checking out the information received. This has led Combs, Soper and Courson(1963) to assert that most of the studies that purport to measure self concept are not studies on self concept at all but self report. These researchers differentiate the two; they say self concept is the way an individual sees himself while self report is what and individual feels he can safely reveal to the outsider about himself (Combs and Soper, 1957) . The second criticism levelled against the self report method is that the respondent must be fluent and flexible in the language of communication. If the respondent's language is inadequate, then he may not have the right words to express his self concept. Moreover, even the words used may not convey the same meaning to the person reading the response.

In some societies, one is expected to hide one's true beliefs or feelings and to pretend to be what one is not, for example, in some African society, when one is invited for a meal, one should always show some reluctance because to show enthusiasm is not taken in good taste. There are many instances in which individuals are called upon to carry out certain tasks and would not admit that

they do not have the necessary skills, but would go on to do a poor job; may be because it would be a disgrace if this handicap were known. When such an individual is called upon to give information about himself, it is not likely to receive very frank responses, due largely to what Burns (1979) calls "social desirability". A respondent may present himself to the researcher in a way which he believes is socially desirable. For instance a favourable response to a statement like "My classmates think I am a worth-while person", would be seen as desirable, in which case the respondent would give the responses that create a good picture of himself.

Inspite of all these problems self report methods are still widely used for measuring self concept because so far they are the only way we can gain valuable information about individuals.

2.6.8 Remarks.

Self concept, like other personality characteristics is a developmental construct. Different individuals play important roles at different times during the development of the child. Research into the expectations of pupils indicate that secondary pupils are a good deal less identified with their teachers than with their parents

(Wright, 1962). Pupils value their teachers mainly for their intellectual abilities. Both the teacher and the parent have important roles in pupil's self concept as representatives of the school and the home, respectively.

Most of the research on self concept available has been done in the western countries where the family is small and nuclear. In the large extended Nigerian family, the role of the parents as the significant others may be diminished. The cowives, aunts, uncles and grandparents have a great influence on the child's life. Even if the relationship between the child's parents is not harmonious, the child is insulated against isolation by the presence of other people who accept him. The study by Ziller et al (1968) which investigated differences in family relationships between the Asian Indian and American families reported that the Indian child who grows up in the extended family has a higher self-esteem than the American child. In the same study the Indian student was found to have a higher self-esteem compared to the American student.

If the extended family has such a significant role to play in the formation of self concept in children, then it may be possible that in the developing countries where this type of family system prevails, parents may not

be as important as they are in the western countries in their role as significant others. However, this speculation, will require research to clarify the situation.

On the other hand, the teachers' position in a developing country is a unique one. For children who come from homes where there is minimum education, if any, the teacher represents what they aspire to be. He is the key to the coveted world of the elite and its lucrative, prestigious jobs. For most children in these countries the teacher is a very significant individual whose word is heeded and who is a model for emulation. There is need for cross-cultural research to find out precisely how significant the teacher's role is in the development of self concept in developing countries compared with what is obtaining in other countries.

2.6.9 SUMMARY

A. Self concept is a difficult construct to define. Some psychologists, prominent among whom is Carl Rogers (1951) tend to view self concept as a "configuration of perceptions" which are the major determinants of behaviour. Argyle (1967) explains self concept in terms of 'self-image' and 'self-esteem'. Shevelson (1976) also

perceives self concept as multifaceted and also hierachical in structure with general self concept at the top of the hierachy and behaviours in specific situations at the bottom. And yet another group sees self concept as a unitary construct.

B. Self concept theorists equate it with motivation.

C. Culture, the significant others and child rearing practices influence the development of self concept.

D. Research indicates that teachers play an important part in the development of self concept in children.

E. Teachers with a high self concept use child centred (less formal) methods of teaching.

F. Also there is evidence that a high self concept is important for high school achievement and problem solving.

G. The major problem associated with self concept measurement is that the researcher depends on the willingness of the respondent to disclose information about self and there is no way of verifying this information.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Methodological Issues

3.1.1 Introduction

The history of the development of psychology as a discipline is fraught with conflicts of approaches. The controversy has been centred on the role of the scientific method. Some people still believe that science is defined by its subject-matter rather than by its method. Opposed to this medieval school are those who believe that scientific explanation should be based on objective evidence. Cronbach (1949) has identified a dichotomy between psychometric testing and impressionistic testing reflecting two philosophies of methods of research. Those who adopt the psychometric approach believe that "if a thing exists, it exists in some amount, and if it exists in some amount it can be measured". The psychologist belonging to this school of thought is interested in measuring traits which, he is aware, exist in individuals in different amounts. This, it is hoped, would enable him to discover general laws as a basis for predicting and explaining the behaviour of all individuals.

On the other hand the impressionistic psychologist aims at acquiring a comprehensive view of the individual by observation and the study of significant cues, the purpose is to understand the individual. The two approaches are not irreconcilable in the study of psychology. As Holt (1962) claims, all highly developed sciences aim at prediction and control through understanding.

For an exploratory type of research like this study which aims at investigating variables or factors for inclusion (or exclusion) in criteria building, measurement for control is crucial. Yet one of the most unsurmountable problems is precision. In a research of this nature one is faced with the problem of precision. Different types of scales have different levels of precision. The simplest kind of measurement is assigning of things or people into clearly defined categories. Eysenck's Personality Inventory (EPI) which was used in this research seems, on the surface, to belong to this type of scale, the interval scale. At a glance the EPI appears to classify respondents into neurotics and extraverts but this is not so because Eysenck says that it is a question of degree. All people have both neurotic and extraversion tendencies. The difference is the extent to which the individual possesses each of these characteristics.

3.2 The Questionnaire and Interview Methods

In a research like this the question of what method to use becomes a central one. The researcher requires a method that would be best suited for the efficient study of the problem. Two techniques commonly used by social scientists for data collection in a survey research

are the Interview and the Questionnaire techniques. The popularity of these two methods often blurs the inherent problems of reliability and validity of the resources which are made available to the researcher. There is uncertainty as to whether answers given to anonymous questionniares are given with more openness than those given at an interview where the interviewer may inhibit a frank response by his mere presence on the scene. Goode and Hatt (1952) are of the view that both methods have their advantages. They believe that a good questionniare can elicit frank answers in almost any subject while the interviewer can see an evasion of the question. They see the difference between the two methods not as "dimensions of frankness" but that of depth. In their view, an experienced interviewer can probe more deeply than any questionnaire.

The use of the interview technique is known to reduce non-response to a minimum. The problem of misunderstanding the questions is also eliminated as the interviewer would be on the spot to clarify any tricky questions. However, for a research of this size the interview method was found unsuitable. To carry out the invertivews, the researcher would have needed a large team of skilled and experienced personnel. The expenses involved in

moving the interview team from one geographical location to another and maintaing it would have been prohibitive. Time was also a limiting factor, unless it was decided to study a much smaller sample which did not seem adequate.

The questionnaire method was chosen for use because it was felt that its anonymity would provide for frankness and openness in the responses. In a sample composed of a highly select homogeneous group among whom there appeared to be no literacy problem, the questionnaire seemed a suitable method to use. The method was also economical in terms of time and money in a situation where geographically the respondents were very widely dispersed.

3.3.1 The Sample

Several factors influenced the choice of the sample for this tudy. The final year students were chosen because they have to sit for a public examination, the Nigerian Certificate in Education final examination. Sampling from as many ATCs all over the federation would have given a better representation of the population as it would allow for the sampling of many more ethnic groups and other diverse factors.

To do this would have proved unmanageable. Movement from one institution in one part of the country to the other institution in a different part would have posed insurmountable problems in terms of distance, time, funds and human resources. All students' in ATCs sit for education papers and it was felt that these results would be used as a measure of academic performance as there are no adequate standardized tests that could be used for this purpose in Nigeria. The teaching practice scores which are important in this study have to be concluded in the third year work in some of the institutions. To limit the sample to a population that would sit for a public examination at the end of the session became necessary. The sample was therefore picked only from final year ATC students.

3.3.2 The Sample Frame

The participants in this study were drawn from six Advanced Teachers Training Institutions in Northern Nigeria. The ATCs in Nigeria fall into three categories; those controlled by the Federal Government, those administered by the University Institutes of Education and those established by the different State Governments of the Federation. The institutions from which the sample was taken represent all the three categories:

Kano and Zaria ATCs are administered by the Institute of Education, Ahmadu Bello University while Kano State College of Education and Gumel ATC are run by the Kano State Institute of Higher Education. The College of Education, Minna is under the Niger State Government and the Federal College of Education, Katsina is under the Federal Ministry of Education. It was necessary to take a sample from each of the three types of institutions because they have differences in their admission policies. Not to sample the population of each type of institution would have given the researcher a sample quite unrepresentative of the ATC population in northern Nigeria. For example, the Federal College of Education, Katsina, draws 80 percent of its students from any of the states in the federation except for the 20 percent which is reserved for the host state. ATC Kano and ATC Zaria admit 90 per cent of students from the 10 Northern States while 10 per cent of the places is given to the 9 southern states of the federation. The State ATCs (Kano, Gumel and Minna) allocate 90 percent of the available places to students from their own states and 10 percent to other states.

3.3.3 The Sample Size

In deciding on the size of the sample several factors had to be considered. The major consideration was that

the sample had to be large enough to allow meaningful generalization of the findings and yet at the same time it should not be too large to pose management problems, especially with the limited manpower resources.
To allow room for non response and incomplete responses, the sample was fixed at 600 bearing in mind Moser and Kelton's (1971) estimate that usually about 20 percent of the sample is 'lost' due to different reasons. In the end there was complete data for a sample of 529 with only 11.8% loss through non-response and incomplete responses.

The most ideal and logical step would have been to compute the proportion of student teachers to be picked from each type of institution in accordance with the sample frame. Before this could be done, there was need to obtain figures of the final year ATC enrolment for the whole federation for the 1983/84 session for each of the three types of institutions involved in the study but such figures were not available. It was decided to obtain the figures of the then current enrolment of the third year students in each of the institutions involved in the study and use them to work the size of sample required. The percentage of women training in these institutions was computed and a proportion to be

involved in the study identified (See Table 3.1 below). In a similar manner the sample of males to be involved in the research was computed proportionally according to the male sub population of each of the institutions. The following table shows the breakdown of the sample.

Table 3.1.

Breakdown of Sample by Institution

Name of Institutions	No. of Females	No. of Males	Total per Institution
Federal ATC Katsina	26	109	135
ATC Kano	25	94	119
ATC Zaria	24	59	83
Cpllege of Educ Minna	6	79	85
Kano State Coll. of Edu	12	31	43
ATC Gumel	10	54	64
Total	103	426	529

The above sample represents 19.8 percent of the females and 27 percent of males enrolled for the third year NCE programme in the six institutions involved in this research for the 1983-84 academic session. In some respects, there are similarities as well as differences

between one institution and another. The section that follows contains a brief history of the development of the NCE programme and the main features of the institutions involved in this survey.

3.4 The Institutions involved in the investigation

3.4.1 The NCE Programme

The NCE programme emerged from the provisions of the /Ashby report (Ashby 1960) which recommended that Grade I teachers be trained in large numbers to provide the manpower needed for the envisaged expansion in education. The NCE was a modification of the Grade I teachers' programme with the sole purpose of training non graduate teachers for work in secondary, teacher training and technical institutions. The first ATCs were founded in Ibadan and Zaria in 1962, and Owerri in 1963 (Taiwo 1980). Within the 20 year period between 1962 and 1982 the number of ATCs (also reffered to as colleges of education in some parts of the federation) had risen to 46. At the end of 1982 session eight of the ATCs were offering both NCE and B.Ed programmes (Aghenta, 1983).

3.4.2 The Advanced Teachers' College, Kano (ATCK) and The Advanced Teachers' College, Zaria (ATCZ).

The development of both ATCK and ATCZ should be seen as one of the facets of the story of increased

educational development in the country as a whole (Pinney 1974). By 1954 education had been regionalized in Nigeria. Taking advantage of regional autonomy in education, the Eastern and Western Regions had embarked upon universal primary education which attracted most of the southern teachers who might have emigrated to the Northern Region schools. During the same period the Northern Region leaders seem to have been aware of that territory's educational needs. ATCK and ATCZ developed in response to this need, the former being set aside for the training of teachers for secondary schools while the latter, was to specialize in the training of teachers for Grade II teachers' college level.

3.4.3 The Advanced Teachers' College Gumel (ATCG)

ATCG was established by the Kano State Government in 1976 and until February 1980 when the college moved to its permanent site in Gumel town, existed on a temporary site in Kano municipal area.

In general terms the aims of establishing the college was to meet the state's need for highly qualified teachers for the fast expanding secondary system.

3.4.4. The Kano State College of Education (KSCE)

Founded in October 1981, the College aims at supplementing the services of its sister institution, ATCG. Specifically among other objectives the college aims to aid the state in meeting the staffing needs in post primary institutions during student training through the college internship programme. The KSCE is a variation of the Ikere-Ekiti College of Education in Ondo State which aims at alleviating the shortage of teachers in the state by embarking on a one-year teaching practice course. The teaching practice is arranged in such a way that second year students teach all year in the secondary schools as part of their practical training. In this way schools chosen for the teaching practice are assured of a regular supply of student teachers for a whole session.

3.4.5 Minna College of Education

It is situated in Minna, the Niger State capital which is approximately 560 kilometers south-west of Kano. The college was founded in 1975.

3.4.6 The Federal College of Education, Katsina (FCEK)

The college was founded in 1977 and is located outside Katsina town in Kaduna State, approximately 173 kilometers

from Kano town. The college has an average enrolment of about 1000 students. In line with the Federal Republic of Nigerian policy, FCEK being a federal institution is mandated to admit the best applicants from any part of the federation except for the provision that 20 percent of the available places be reserved for the host state. Competition for entry into federal institutions is very high and admission is generally by merit.

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3.5.1 The Pre-NCE Programmes

The State ATCs were founded to solve the problem of teacher shortage in the states. The repid increase in the number of State ATCs in the Northern States has created the problem of the non-availability of qualified entrants into these institutions. ATCG, KSCE and the College of Education Minna have had to admit unqualified students into their institutions, make them undergo some special remedial teaching to bring them up to the required entry level before they are admitted into the NCE course. The Pre-NCE course is specifically designed for candidates who are referred in three or less externally examined subjects. The candidates are expected to engage in full year study to make up for the deficit and if successful

they proceed to do the NCE course. FATCK has a similar programme which was specifically implemented for the host state which could not recruit enough candidates to fill its allocated quota.

3.5.1.2 The Preliminary Science Course

A general problem facing all higher teacher training institutions in Northern Nigeria is the paucity of candidates for teacher training with specialization in science. The problem is acute for subjects like physics, Mathematics and Chemistry. For this reason, at the time of this study (1983) all the ATCs involved in this research offered a Preliminary Science course. Requirements for entry into this course differ from institution to institution, but the aim is the same, to give another chance to those students who may wish to become science teachers or those with potential or aptitude in this area of study. The Kano State preliminary science programme caters for two categories of students.

(1) Candidates who possess entry qualifications in other fields of study rather than science but are interested in studying science subjects at NCE level are allowed to undergo a one year science course. A pass in this course allows them to proceed to study science subjects at NCE level.

(2) Candidates who are referred in a minimum of two subjects and are admitted to make up their referred subjects may also enrol for the preliminary science course. If they are successful in both referred subjects and the science course, they may proceed to NCE to study science.

At ATCZ and ATCK students who wish to enrol for this course must have obtained a pass in General or Inter-grated science at the Grade II teachers level or must have scored at least 7 or 8 at the West African School Certificate level. No figures were available to show the number of NCE science students that had gone through this programme as the authorities had not kept records, but the general concensus was that enrolment in the sciences had improved tremendously.

3.6 Pilot Study and the Development of Instruments

The development of instruments for this study required some pilot study. Three major areas home background, attitude towards teaching and the cultural dimension scale attracted separate instruments as they concerned the measurement of the dependent variable, teaching performance. The pilot study lasted from October 1981 to May 1983.

3.6.1 The Home Background Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to obtain factual information about the students themselves, the students' parents and their homes.

Items 1-7 elicited personal information about the respondent such as sex, age, teaching experience and entry qualification; item 8-12 enquired about the parents' educational level; items 13-25, parents income level; and items, 26-32, Educational environment of the home.

At the level at which this study was conducted the respondents should have no problem with the language used. However in the development of the questionnaire care had to be taken to word the questions carefully especially bearing in mind the question of 'cultural relevance'. For example the word 'father' and 'guardian' were used together in questions requiring information about the father. This was necessary because in some traditional Nigerian homes, a child may be given out to live with an uncle, aunt, grandparents or other members of the extended family. It is therefore, possible in some cases, for a child to grow up into an adult without living with his/her natural parents. The guardian then assumes the role of the father and becomes responsible for the child's education.

The items were generally easy to understand and care was taken not to make them too long. However questions relating to the educational and income level of the parents were more difficult to construct since they touched upon what Oppenheim (1966, 62) calls 'prestige bias' of the respondents. It is socially desirable and prestigeous for parents to have good jobs and be well educated. Niles (1979, 100) observes that it is possible for the respondents to become wary of such questions and become defensive and give appropriate answers instead of true ones. Similarly, questions on the educational environment of the home also presented some problems. Social scientists like Rice (1955) and Kendall (1955) are of the view that attitudes are not measurable but suggest that since they are expressed in behaviour, which is itself measurable, specially constructed questions which reveal behaviour may be used to measure attitudes. Aspects of behaviour like providing reading materials, encouraging the respondent with school work and discussing some stimulating or controversial topic were used as guides in formulating the questions.

The questionnaire is a three point scale in which the respondents were required to place a tick in the appropriate box.

3.6.1.1. Validity and Reliability

Reliability in this questionnaire was answered by selecting some of the respondents and interviewing them and then comparing their interview scores with the scores they obtained in the questionnaire.[1] Also there were some built in checks like the promise of anonymity and the placing of high prestige statements after the low prestige ones. For example in an item like 'Where is your house situated'.?

1. Village
2. Township
3. Government residential area.

It was hoped that this arrangement would increase the reliability of the instrument. By placing the low prestige statement in a less prominent position the embarrassment of the respondent who has to choose this response may be reduced, thus enabling him/her to respond more truthfully.

Validity is difficult to ascertain and yet some way of rendering the instrument valid had to be found. The jury opinion method was used for the purpose (Goode and Hatt 1952). This method is an expension of the logical

1. The correlation between the sets of scores from the questionnaire and from the interview were as follows: parents educational level was r=.86; parents income level r=.93 and educational environment of the home - r=.89.

validity except that in this case confirmation of the logic is obtained from a group of persons who are considered to be experts in the field within which the instrument is to be used. After the items of the questionnaire were designed they were sent to experts in the field of sociology and education at Bayero University for comments and improvement. Their suggestions were incorporated in the final draft. It was also hoped that since most of the questions were factual, if they were properly framed and responded to honestly, content validity would be assured.

3.6.2 The Student Attitude Towards Teaching

This scale was used to collect data about the students teachers' attitude towards teaching in general. It is a Likert-type scale requiring the subject to respond by inserting a tick in the appropriate box thus indicating whether the student strongly agrees with the statement (SA): agrees (A); doesn't know (DK); disagrees (DA); or strongly disagrees (SDA). Some of the items in this instrument were adapted from Mukherjee's (1972) "Attitude Towards Mathematics", which was originally designed to measure secondary school children's attitude towards mathematics.

3.6.2.1 Reliability and Validity

In testing for reliability the test retest method was used. The instrument was administered to a first year group at the Advanced Teachers' College Kano. There was a six week interval between the two administrations.[2]

Oppenheim (1966, 67-68) observes that:

> "The problem of validity remains one of the most difficult in social research and to which an adequate solution is not yet in sight".

The subjects used for validating this scale were training to become teachers and although the questionnaire was coded for anonymity and the students were assured that their responses would have no bearing on their chosen careers, it was still felt that their immediate responses were likely to be more valid than the well thought ones which were likely to have been made to impress upon the researcher that the respondents were more favourably disposed towards the teaching profession. The respondents were also assured that there were no wrong or right answers and that what was important was the truthfulness of their responses. With the above precautions taken, it was felt that the scale would be as valid as was possible under the circumstances. If more time had been given to the respondents to think carefully about the items, they were likely to consider the statements carefully in order to produce what they thought the researcher wanted.
Using the Pearson Product moment correlation coefficient
r = .74

$$r = \frac{\Sigma xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{n\sigma_x\sigma_y}$$

3.6.2.2. Scoring

It was decided that the high scale score should mean a favourable attitude and a low score unfavourable attitude. Favourable statements scored 5 for"strongly agree" down to 1 for "strongly disagree". Unfavourably statements were scored 1 for "strongly agree" and up to 5 for "strongly disagree".

3.6.3 The Cultural Dimension Scale

This is a likert-type instrument designed to gather information not only about how the respondent views certain behaviours and traditions that are common to most Nigerians but also other behaviours which are essential for an effective teacher's role. Some of the latter behaviours may conflict with the traditional ways of life such as the statement on whether children should be allowed to ask questions. This item goes contrary to the traditionally held belief that a child must be seen and not heard. A teacher who does not accept that a child should ask questions, since this is an essential part of the learning process, is likely to have problems in the classroom. Some items like "belief that one can improve one's lot" have cultural roots and at the same time have implications for one who aspires high in his chosen profession. Apart from finding how deeply committed to the

universally accepted behaviours (in the Nigerian context), the scale also attempts to measure those behaviours which are culturally rooted and which may affect one's functioning as a teacher.

In the development of the scale a large quantity of literature about the culture and traditions of the major ethnic groups in Nigeria, Ibo, Hausa and Yoruba was studied and then a pool of 50 items compiled. Twenty-five students from other ethnic groups were invited to inspect the items and add some which they regarded as important in their sub-cultures but which had been left out. The researcher met this group to listen to their views. Another group of 10 students also from the major ethnic groups were given a copy each of the items to study. A 'meeting' was held with each of the three groups to discuss some points which might have arisen during their study of the items. By the end of the 'study session' the items had risen from 50 to 60. The items were then tried on 130 first year students at ATC Kano. The respondents were instructed to rate the items according to whether these behaviours are 'greatly encouraged; 'encouraged'; 'not certain'; 'discouraged' or 'greatly discouraged' in their culture. The items were scored with 'greatly encouraged' receiving the highest score and greatly discouraged' the lowest. The internal consistency method of

item analysis suggested by Oppenheim (1966) was used since there were no readily available reliable outside criteria with which to correlate each item. 26 items found suitable were selected. The selected items were then reworded in such a way that they reflect the respondent's attitude towards certain behaviours in his or her culture. The items were then sent to the specialists at the Department of Nigerian Languages, Education and Sociology at Bayero University for scrutiny and suggestions for improvement. The items were again administered to another group of 105 second year students at ATCK. After the item analysis only 16 items were selected as suitable.

3.6.3.1 Reliability and Validity

Reliability was ascertained by a test - retest method with three weeks interval between the two administrations.[3]

Although validity is difficult to ensure, several steps were taken to make the instrument reasonably acceptable. Various opinions were sought including the views of those with expert knowledge of the different cultures in Nigeria. In this way content validity was at least ensured. The items were simply worded and if the responses were a true reflection of what the respondents felt, then face validity would be assured.

3. Using the Pearson Product moment correlation r = .88.

$$r = \frac{\Sigma xy - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{n\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

3.6.3.2 Scoring

This is a summated scale in which the scores are obtained by adding the scores obtained from the responses to the items. The scoring is the same as for the 'Attitude Towards Teaching' scale already discussed. The scores range from 1-5 with "strongly agree" attracting the highest score, and "strongly disagree" the lowest. There were no unfavourable statements in this instrument so that scoring was very easy. The scores range between 16 and 80.

3.6.4 The Standardized Instruments

3.6.4.1 Eysenck's Personality Inventory

This is a 57 item test designed to measure the personality of subjects of 15 years of age or above. Of the 57 items, 7 are designed to detect lying while 25 measure extraversion and the rest neuroticism. The questions are simple and the subjects are required to respond to the statements by placing a tick in the "YES"or "NO" box opposite each statement.

Since this is a standardized instrument, it was assumed that validity was ensured. However, the instrument was tried for reliability. The items measuring the different constructs were split into half and the two halves were administered to a randomly selected group of NCE students

at two weeks interval. Using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation the reliability was found to be

Extraversion r=.71

Neuroticism r=.77

3.6.4.2 Self Concept as a Learner, SCAL (Waetjen, 1963)

This test consists of 50 items worded positively or negatively which measure different aspects of self concept.

Items 1 - 13 measure motivation

Items 14-26 measure Task Orientation

Items 27-39 measure Problem Solving

Items 40-50 measure Class Membership.

This is another Likert-type scale in which the subjects are required to insert the appropriate number describing the strength of their response opposite a particular statement. The respondent places a 5 in a blank space besides the statement if he feels it is completely true, 4 if the statement is mostly true 3 if the statement is partly true and partly false, 2 if the statement is mostly false and one is the statement is completely false. Like all standardized instruments, it was assumed that validity had been tested. Reliability was tested by administering the instrument to a randomly selected group of NCE students twice with an interval of two months in between the administrations. Using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation the test-retest reliability was found to be:

Motivation r=.72

Task Orientation r=.79

Problem Solving r=.76

Class Membership r=.78

3.6.4.3 Criticism of standardized Instruments

Conducting research in Africa is a very exerting exercise because of the non availability of instruments developed and standardized for use in this part of the world. Conditions differ from culture to culture with emphasis being placed on the development of different personality characteristics and skills which are important for the survival of the group. In western cultures for example individual effort is very highly valued while in most nations of Africa, greater emphasis is placed on co-operation. Individual success is valued in so far as the rest of that individuals' extended family or group can benefit from it. This type of success is usually seen in terms of tangibles like wealth and leadership positions which bring about followers and admirers (Lloyd, 1974). Understanding of the self which is valued in western cultures hardly exists in African societies.

The use of standarized tests like the EPI and Self Concept as a Learner for measurement on African samples is therefore bound to generate some controversy. As Anastasi,

(1976, 345) says "Every test tends to favour persons from the culture in which it was developed". A cursory inspection of the items in the EPI will reveal that they require that the respondent be able to understand himself/herself and report himself to an outsider. Writing about Hausa society Adamu (1976) says:

> "One should always hesitate to exert oneself in any grouping, and should not, unless really called for try to show people who he was or what he is capable of doing".

The implication of this statement is that one should try to pretend to be what one is not. Bearing this in mind, responses to items like "Do you call yourself a nervous person?" or "Are you troubled by feelings of inferiority?" are likely to receive negative responses. So are items like "Do you sometimes gossip?". Similarly, predictability, which is highly valued in western cultures is discouraged in most African societies. Nobody should know what you will do next .

The EPI seems to neglect differences between sexes, which are greatly emphasized in some African societies. Item like "Do you suddenly feel shy when you want to talk to an attractive stranger?. Or "Do you like going out a lot?" are culturally loaded. In fact in some African cultures shyness (eg. 'Kunya' in Hausa society) is a virtue which is highly valued by all members of that society. Cultured

women are expected to be shy and not to speak to strangers and in some cases they may be in 'Puddah' (confinement) so that the chances of talking to strangers or going out are greatly reduced.

All this points to the need to develop culturally relevant tests in Africa so that we can effectively utilise our human resources. The rapidly expanding educational facilities in these countries require that tests be used for admission purposes as well as for career guidance and counselling. In the absence of tests standardized in our own cultures, we may have to continue to depend on imported tests for sometime.

3.7 Data Collection

The researcher visited each of the selected institutions accompanied by two volunteer assistants and sought permission to group all the final year students. In three of the institutions ATCK, ATCZ and CEM, it was not possible to group all the final year students in one room. When this proved impracticable, the groups were met during the education lecture periods. After explaining the purpose of the gathering and enlisting the student's cooperation, a box containing pieces of paper, some with numbers and others blank were passed round for each student to pick one. There were two separate boxes one for males and the other for

female. This was to enable us to pick out the required numbers of each sex according to our sampling arrangement. Those who picked papers with numbers were asked to stay behind to complete the questionnaires, while the rest were allowed to leave the room.

All the questionnaires were stapled together in one bundle to make it easy to administer as well as to avoid calling the participating students back several times to complete the different sets of instruments. It had been discovered during a pretest that administering the different instruments at different times resulted in a lot of incomplete data. After completing the first instrument students were unwilling to turn up for the rest of the exercise. The decision to administer all the instruments at one sitting was therefore taken to ensure that data was as complete as possible. Even then some incomplete data was still found and where possible a follow up interview was arranged. The completion of the questionnaires on average lasted about 45 minutes while the introduction and the sampling took a similar length of time. All the administration, scoring and computation was done by the researcher. Complete anonymity was not possible because the identity of each participant was necessary so that all data could be put together. However, an attempt was made to ensure anonymity

by using college numbers instead of names. Some respondents did not even like the idea, so that a few of the data was not usable because the respondents had not entered their numbers without which it was impossible to get their teaching practice scores.

The teaching practice scores were furnished by the participating institutions. These were then standardized using the T scale. Each participating institution apart from KSCE arranges 12 weeks practice teaching for its students during their course of study. The exercise is either done enblock, that is takes place for 12 weeks during the second year as is the case at ATCZ or is divided into the 2nd and 3rd year of 6 weeks each like is done at sessions ATCK, FCEK, CEM, and ATCG. KSCE is different in that the teaching practice lasts for a whole session, otherwise the procedure for the supervision and assessment of students in the field is the same. The supervisors visit the students at a weekly interval. Using a standard form devised by the institutions, they evaluate the students using some laid down criteria. Each observation lasts about 40 minutes. The evaluation form is completed for each subject immediately after visitation in accordance with the institutions regulations governing the grading of student teachers on practice teaching. Each student is visited by

at least two different supervisors during the six weeks teaching practice and by four or more if the teaching practice is longer. The arithmetical mean of the scores derived from each of the visitations for each student is then computed to obtain the teaching practice raw score.

The biggest problem in using this type of data is the inconsistency in the scores awarded to the same students by different supervisors. It was not uncommon to find a student with a score of 40 per cent and another of 80 per cent. Also common was the difference in the range of scores between institutions. In one institution, the scores ranged from 35 per cent to 80 per cent. In another the scores ranged between 60 per cent and 75 per cent. To ensure uniformity the scores were standardized.

3.8 General remarks about the survey

Among the factors cited for causing data to be invalid or unreliable or both are defects in the measuring instruments, circumstances under which data is collected and adequate sampling methods. Adequate precautions were taken to make sure that the measuring instruments were as valid and reliable as was possible. Also research ethics demand that to be valid a response must be freely given. This condition was also fulfilled because all the data collecting sessions were conducted in a free atmosphere, although the respondents

were not allowed to consult one another during the questionaire completion exercise, as it was felt that this would affect the validity and reliability of the data. The size of the sample was adequate as care had to be taken not to make it so large that it would become unmanageable. The researcher is convinced that the data was valid and reliable and sufficient to answer the questions that were raised and to enable one to provide a new perspective to the question of admission into ATCs.

3.9 Statistical Design

3.9.1 Methodological Issues

Prediction is an important part of research in the social sciences and education. The tests taken by entrants into institutions are for predicting success in later years. Similarly the primary concern of this study is the investigation of possible predictive instruments for teaching performance high based on independent variables such as personality, self-concept, attitude to teaching, cultural, dimension and home background. As an exploratory study it was necessary to investigate the effects of each of the independent variables, on the dependent variables. For this purpose multiple regression was found to be an appropriate statistical technique. The regression analysis is concerned not only with the determination of the nature of the relationship between the variable of

interest and the explanatory variables, but also it describes the strength of the dependence or, equivalently, the amount of variation in variables operating jointly. It is possible to use the B values in the regression as measures of the influence of each independent variable upon teaching performance or academic performance, although it is difficult to determine the relative importance of each independent variable on the basis of the B values alone because the independent variables are measured in different units (personality, home background, cultural dimension, etc). However, regression analysis has its own inherent weaknesses. The most noteworthy of them is multicollinearity, a situation in which some of the independent variables are very highly inter-correlated. This can cause problems with respect to various aspects of regression analysis. When extreme multicollinearity exists there is no acceptable way to perform regression analysis using the given set of independent variables. Multiple regression is used as an interpretive tool to evaluabe the relative importance of the independent variables. The paradox of it is that the more strongly correlated the independent variables are, the greater the need for controlling the confusing effects. Yet the greater the intercorrelation of the independent variables, the less the reliability of the relative importance indicated by the partial regression coefficient.

To supplement multiple regression, Pearson product-moment correlation, scatter diagrams and cross tabulation subprogrammes were employed for bivariate correlation analysis. These programmes provide useful significance tests and correlation matrices. Pearson product-moment correlation, like other bivariate correlation, provides a single number which summarizes the relationship between two variables, indicating the degree to which variation in one variable is related to variation in another. A correlation co-efficient also provides a ready-reckoner for comparing the strength of relationship between two variables, indicating the degree to which variation in one variable is related to variation in another. A correlation co-efficient also provides a ready-reckoner for comparing the strength of relationship between one pair of variables and a different one. As will be seen in later chapters, the use of both multiple regression and bivariate analyses lend greater confidence to the findings of this study.

3.9.2 The Design

The following model was used in the regression analysis:

To investigate the extent to which each of the independent variables influences (brings variation) to the dependent variable, Teaching Performance (Y) Y = home background (x_1) + cultural dimension (x_2) + attitude to teaching (x_3) + self concept (x_4) + personality (x_5).

$Y = b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4 + b_5x_5 + \text{constant} = 1.$

CHAPTER IV

Analysis of Data I

4.1 Introduction

For every use of statistics as a descriptive tool there is a corresponding question of statistical inference. Two general problems that arise from statistical inference are estimation and hypothesis testing. In both cases it is necessary to examine the statistical significance of the sample and of the variable grouping.

4.2 Characteristics of Sample

The dependent variable, Teaching Performance, was examined to identify the overall test for significance and representativeness of the sample. An examination of residual differences of Teaching Performance compared by case order showed the straight band pattern of the scatter plot suggesting relative freedom from abnormalities. However, there are more negative residuals than positive ones indicating that most of the observed scores were lower than the predicted scores. The Durbin-Watson test of residual differences by case order yielded 1.84, an indication that the random variation is very small and the actual figures will probably vary within 1.84 per cent of the predicted scores (assuming that no new factor enters the series. Out of 500 cases on the scatter plot only 28 (that is 5 per cent), "outliers" or "deviant cases" emerged.

Table 4.1 Means and Standard Deviations by Subsamples on Selected Variables.

		ATC Kano (119)		ATC Zaria (83)		ATC Minna (85)		Kano State Coll. of Education (43)		ATC Gumel (64)		Fed Coll. of Educ. Katsina. (135)	
Scale	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1 (53.64)	53.68	7.67	55.77	6.23	55.31	6.25	53.49	3.51	48.23	6.94	53.88	6.12
2 (72.83)	74.31	12.61	72.84	8.31	77.52	7.61	67.44	6.12	69.27	8.73	71.98	5.71
3 (31.00)	32.77	7.18	33.36	5.41	29.80	4.73	33.81	5.23	28.00	5.17	29.30	6.89
4 (149.6)	149.38	12.66	151.28	9.83	152.80	9.38	151.00	11.00	144.50	12.24	148.75	13.01

1. Teaching Performance 2. Cultural Dimension 3. Attitude to Teaching
4. Self Concept.

N = 529

Table 4.1 shows the means and standard deviations on the four variables by subsamples. For Teaching Performance (Scale 1 in Table 4.1) the mean for ATC Gumel differed considerably from the means for all other institutions. There were generally moderate differences between the means of the different subsamples. Similar differences indicated by standard errors of 6.12 to 7.67 were found within the groups. This pattern seems to have been found for all three independent variables. In order to verify the significance of differences between the means of the subsamples t-test results were examined in respect of pairs of subsamples by selected variables. The six groups provided 15 pairs for the probability tests. The hypothesis Ho:N_1-N_2=0 was tested with 2-tail probability t-values. For Cultural Dimension variable, seven pairs of subsamples out of 15 had t values significant at .000 level of confidence, 4 pairs were significant at .05 or less with one other pair being just outside .05 (.054). Only three pairs had t-values that were not significant at .05 or less. It may be concluded that the null hypothesis is rejected implying that the subsamples showed variations in the independent variable, Cultural Dimension. Similarly, 9 out of 15 pairs of subsamples by Attitude to Teaching showed t-values significant at .000, and one at .05 level of confidence. The t-values for the remaining 5 pairs were not significant. Again the subsamples showed differences in Attitude to Teaching. They cannot be described as homogeneous groups. For the dependent variable, Teaching Performance,

all five pairings involving ATC Gumel yielded t-values significant at .000 (2 tail probability). This phenomenon is born out by the relatively low mean of 48.23 for ATC Gumel whereas none of the other five groups had a mean score below 53. Three other pairs had t-values that were significant at 5 per cent. The remaining 6 pairs showed no significant differences in their means on Teaching Performance. Significant differences between groups were noted on the Self Concept scale. Seven out of 15 pairs had t-values significant at 5 per cent or less, while the remaining 8 were not significant at 5 per cent. The Analysis of Variance on Self Concept by Number and Sex (Table 4.2) shows that the main effects and the interaction effects are significant at .001 level, though the individual effects of sex fell well below .05 level (p .584) with a significant interaction (p .001) it may be concluded that Self concept varied from one subsample to another.

Table 4.2 Analysis of Variance

Self Concept by Number and Sex

	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	P
Main Effects	3009.710	6	501.618	3.618	0.001
Number	2971.367	5	594.273	4.612	0.000
Sex	38.699	1	38.699	0.300	0.584
2-Way Inter-	4650.189	5	30.038	7.218	0.000
Number/Sex	4650.189	5	930.038	7.218	0.000
Explained	7659.898	11	696.354	5.405	0.000
Residual	66484.070	516	128.845		
Total	74143.969	527	140.619		

Cases processed 529

On the other hand, the variation attributable to sex was not significant. Similarly, the joint effects of Number and Teaching Experience showed an F value significant at p .01. Taken separately, Teaching Experience did not show significant influence on variation in self concept (.950), while Number (subsamples) accounted for differences significant at .001, though the 2-way interaction effect was not significant (.215). The overall effect and the interaction effect of Number and Sex on Cultural Dimension are statistically significant. However, the individual effect of sex on the variation of number (subsamples) is not significant. (See table 4.2A). Similarly, analysis of variance on Cultural Dimension with Subsamples and Entry Qualifications as sources of variation show both the main effect and interaction effect to be statistically significant (table 4.2A).

Table 4.2a (i)

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Cultural Dimension
by Numbers

Sex.

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF.	Mean Square	F.	P. Signif. of F.
Main Effects	4039.411	6	673.235	13.883	0.000
Numbers	4017.916	5	803.583	16.572	0.000
Sex	2.232	1	2.232	0.046	0.830
2-Way Interactions.	2449.535	5	489.907	10.103	0.000
Number/Sex	2449.536	5	489.907	10.103	0.000
Explained	6488.945	11	589.904	12.165	0.00
Residual	25021.771	516	48.492		
Total	31510.717	527	59.793		

Number of cases processed 529.

Table 4.2a (ii)

Multiple Classification Analysis

Cultural Dimension
by Colleges
$ex.

Grand Mean = 72.62

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n Eta		Adjusted for independents Dev'n Beta	
Collges					
ATCK	118	0.75		0.74	
ATCZ	83	0.25		0.21	
CEM	85	4.90		4.92	
KSCE	43	-5.18		-5.19	
ATCG	64	-3.34		-3.34	
FCEK	135	-0.64		-0.64	
			0.36		0.36
Sex					
Females	100	-4.42		0.14	
Males	428	0.10		-0.03	
			0.03		0.01
Multiple R^2					0.128
Multiple R					0.358.

4.3 Combination of Variables

In order to address the issues raised in this study it was found necessary to combine groups of variables and to examine the conceptual accuracy in such groupings. The statistical relationships of variables in each block were also examined as a basis for explaining Teaching Performance. The variable combinations are described in this section.

4.3.1 Homebackground variables Three variables were included under homebackground: Level of Educational Environment of the Home (LEEH), Parent's Education Level (PEL) and Parent's Income Level (PIL) The strength of relationship between the variables ranged from moderate to low (though all relationships reported are positive). The relationship between LEEH and parent's income as expected was moderate (.43) but it weakened between parent's education and Educational environment of the home (LEEH) was moderate (.38) (see Table 4.3). The statistical relationship between teaching performance and home background variables is either negative or very negligible. Specifically when taken separately LEEH is negatively correlated with teaching performance (at -0.09), parents income level also was negatively correlated with teaching performance (-0.025) and, finally, parent's education level has a negligible positive correlation with teaching performance (0.006) not

Table 4.3 Pearson Correlation Co-efficients

	A1	A_2	A_3	B	C	D_1	D_2	D_3	D_4	E_1	E_2
F -	.006*	.025*	.093*	.212	.447	.239	224	.045*	.184	.156	-.118*
A1	-	.434	.266	-0.019*	-0.010*	-0.077*	-0.049*	.093*	.018*	.062*	.031*
A_2		-	.375	.104**	.079	.107**	.172	.131	.032*	.082*	.121
A_3			-	.319	.326	.162	.125**	.304	.159	.185	.134
B				-	.495	.334	-0.039*	.361	.213	.172	.134
C					-	.409	.077*	.341	.312	.133	.139
D_1						-	.139	.153	.206	.022*	.052
D_2							-	.004*	.046*	-.095*	-.060*
D_3								-	.302	.155	.154
D_4									-	-.162	.171
E_1										-	.071
E_2											-

F. Teaching Performance, C. Academic Achievement, A_1 Parent's Education Level, A_2 Parent's Income Level, A_3 Level of the education envrionment of the home, B Cultural Regularity, C Attitude to teaching, D_1 Motivation, D_2 Task Orientation, D_3 Problem-solving, D_4 Class Membership, E_1 Extraversion, E_2 Neurosis,

N = 529 *Not significant. **Significant at .01. All other correlations significant at .001.

significant at 95% level of confidence. The absence of significant correlation between home background variables and teaching performance. (dependent variable) was further confirmed in bivariate regression of all three home background variables jointly with teaching performance. The R square (0.0034) which emerged from this analysis showed that the contribution made by home background variables jointly to variation in teaching performance is 0.34 per cent and with an F value of 0.016 the home background variable is not significant enough to be included in the multiple regression.

4.3.3 Personality variables: Two main personality variables, Extraversion and Neurosis were found to be negatively correlated with teaching performance, both separately and jointly. The separate correlation Co-efficients for extraversion and neurosis (-0.156 and -0.118 respectively) were found to be significant at .01 level of confidence. To determine the proportion of variance of teaching performance contributed by extraversion and neurosis, the dependent variable, Teaching Performance was regressed with the two independent variables.

Table 4.4 Selected Statistics from Regression of Personality variables on Teaching Performance (Dependent Variable)

Independent Variable	Multiple R	RSquare	Rsq Change	B	P.a
Extraversion	.1894	.0245	.0245	-0.159604	NS
Neurosis	.0358	.0358	.0114	-0.177359	NS

This hierarchical regression method applied to each independent variable in the Personality Scale showed that extraversion accounted for 2.45% of variation in teaching performance (R^2change 02449) and Neurosis (R^2change..01139) explains 1.14% of variation in teaching performance attributable to personality variables. Although the F ratio indicates that the probability of getting an F ratio equal to or greater to 12.031 is less than .001, the B is negative indicative of a negative lineer relationship which excluded personality variables from the stepwise multiple regression of all the independent variables on Teaching Performance.

4.3.4 Self Concept variables: A bivariate regression on Teaching Performance with Self Concept variables indicated that the relationship between self concept and teaching performance is positive and that 5.77 per cent of the variation in teaching performance is explained by lineer regression with the self concept variable (R square .05773) operating jointly.

Table 4.5 Regression of Self Concept on Teaching Performance (Dependent Variable)

Multiple R .24027	Analysis of Variance	DF	SS	F	
R square .5773	Regression	1	1411.73972	32.288	P<.00
Standard Error 6.61234	Residual	527	23042.01832		

	B	Beta	Standard Error B
(Constant) 41.60981	.2810544	.24027	0.00000

The F value shows the level of significance at p<.001 indicating that the null hypothesis that multiple R = 0 is rejected. The observed B (.281) is significant (p<.001) the probability is less than .001 that the sample was drawn from a population in which multiple R = 0.

The Self Concept block variable consists of four variables - Motivation, (D1), Task Orientation (D2), Problem Solving (D3) and Class Membership (D4). In order to decide whether certain variables can be deleted from the regression equation (to retain adequate confidence levels) stepwise regression involving a decomposition of the equation. (Table 4.6). Table 4.6 shows that Motivation was entered first on the regression yielding a B of .2795 and a multiple R of .2387 contributing 5.7 per cent of the variation in Teaching Performance (.07 per cent lower than the variation accounted for by all four variables operating jointly as shown in Table 4 . This finding is positively significant (p<.001) with an F ratio of 31.851.

Table 4.6 Regression of Self Concept Variables on Teaching Performance

Step 1	MultipleR	R Square	B	Beta	F
Motivation (D1)	0.23873	0.05699	.2795812	0.23873	31.851
		(Constant)41.77634			
Step 2					
Motivation	-	-	.2478733	0.21166	25.510
Task Orientation	0.30684	0.09415	.2809267	0.19465	21.575
		(Constant)32.83277			
Step 3					
Motivation	-	-	.2150652	0.18364	18.765
Task Orientation	-	-	.2773959	0.19220	21.419
Class Membership	0.33514	0.11232	.2150579	0.13777	10.747
		(Constant)27.26314			
Step 4					
Motivation	-	-	.2189000	0.18692	19.230
Task Orientation	-	-	.2762852	0.19143	21.219
Class Membership	-	-	.2297385	0.14717	11.294
Problem Solving	0.33662	0.11332	-.4574936	-0.03327	0.588 N.S
		(Constant)28.37586.			

All F values are significant at P $<$.001 except for Problem solving. N = 529.

The second variable to enter the self concept regression was Task Orientation indicating a higher R square (.09415) which represents 3.72 per cent of the variation in Teaching Performance contributed separately by Task Orientation. The F ratio for Task Orientation at Step two of the regression was 21.575 significant at .001 level of confidence. It is noted that the F ratio and Beta of Motivation dropped from 31,851 to 25.510 and from .2387 to .2117 respectively. Class Membership accounts for 1.82 per cent of the variation in Teaching Performance (R square change .01817) and with a moderate B (.2297) and a high F value (11.294) significant at p 0.001, the null hypothesis for the first three variables Motivation, Task Orientation and Class Membership - that multiple R = 0 is rejected. The probability of getting an F ratio equal to or greater than 11.294 for any of the three variables is less than .001. Finally, Problem Solving variable was entered on the regression and it produced a negative B value (-0.4574936) and a very low Beta (-0.03327) corresponding to a low R square change (.0010), that is Problem solving accounts for .10 per cent of variation in Teaching Performance but this is not significant because of the negative B shown above.

4.3.5 Attitude to Teaching Variable: The highest multiple R was recorded by Attitude to Teaching (.44657 with a corresponding 19.94 per cent variation in Teaching Performance. With an F ratio of 131.275 a positive relationship between Attitude to Teaching and Teaching Performance is highly significant (p <.000). It can be concluded that it is unlikely that the sample was drawn from a population in which multiple R = 0. The increment in R square of 19.94 per cent and in the explained sum of squares (4876.64442) due to the addition of Attitude to Teaching variable represent the largest component of variation attributable to any independent variable in the equation.

4.3.6. The Block Variables: The zero order correlations of the block variables given in Table 4.7 indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between Teaching Performance and home background variables operating jointly (-0.059). A more pronounced negative linear relationship is shown between Teaching Performance and Personality variables (-0.189).

Table 4.7 Zero Order Correlations of Dependent and Independent Variables

	F	A	B	C	D	E
F	-	-.059*	.212	.490	.300	-.189*
A		-	.217	.203	.072*	.200
B			-	.450	.320	.260
C				-	.540	.184
D					-	.063*
E						-

F. Teaching Performance A. Home Background
B. Cultural Regularity C. Attitude to Teaching
D. Self Concept E. Personality N=529

*Not significant. All other correlations are significant at ,001,

These two results were confirmed with the regression of Teaching Performance with all the independent variables (see table 4.8). First of all, with near zero Beta (.0588 and F value of 1.826, Home Background variables jointly faild to account for statistically significant variation in Teaching Performance. The home background of teachers does not seem to exert the same sort of influence on them as it does for learners. Most of samples in this study chose teaching largely because their academic experiences and attainments were not good enough to qualify them for Schools for Preliminary Studies or for Higher Schools. Research shows that an unproportionately high percentage of this group of "academic failures" do not enjoy as much support or encouragement from their homes as do their successful counter parts. In spite of their initial failure, partly explained with poor home background most candidates for teacher training colleges have adequate zeal to do well as teachers. Unless a parent is himself a teacher, which was seldom the case with study sample, the home is not likely to impart much of the desirable skills of the teacher's classroom behaviour.

Table 4.8 Regression on Teaching Performance

Predictor	Multiple R	Rsquare	Std Error	B	Beta	Std Error B	F	P
Home Background (55.91494)	.05876	.00345	6.800	-0.425405	-0.0588	.03148	1.826	N.S
Cultural Dimension (31.88378)	.21176	.04484	6.657	.1572556	.2118	.03162	24.741	<.001
Attitude to Teaching (38.98194)	.44657	.19942	6.09493	.4727521	.4466	.04126	131.275	<.001
Self Concept (28.82135)	.28994	.08406	6.51928	.1658981	.2899	.02385	48.368	<.001
Personality (57.95308)	.18898	.03571	6.68914	-0.1928951	-0.1890	.04366	19.518	N.S.

Figures in parenthesis are constant A.

N=529

Secondly, Personality variables showed a negative Beta -0.189 with a high F value (19.518) thus confirming its significantly negative linear relationship with Teaching Performance. After the analysis of correlation co-efficients and the simple regression, two independent variables, Home background and Personality, were dropped because they showed no significant relationship with the dependent variable (Teaching Performance). Three independent variables, Cultural Dimension, Attitude to Teaching and Self concept showed significant variation attributable to each. Cultural Dimension with Beta .2118 contributed 4.48 per cent explained variation in Teaching performance (R^2.0448), indicating that Teaching Performance has a degree of dependence on Cultural Dimension of student teachers. Similarly, self concept variables, showed an R^2 of .08406 indicating that 8.4 per cent of the variation in Teaching Performance is explained by Self concept variables operating jointly. In the sample regression the third significant variable, Attitude to Teaching confirmed its strong linear relationship with Teaching Performance accounting for 19.94 per cent, the highest amount of variation in Teaching Performance of the five independent variables (R 19.942) with the highest Beta of .4466.

4.4 Testing the Null Hypothesis

In this section, the five main groups of hypotheses set out in pages 89 and 90, are examined.

4.4.1 Home background factors:

There is no significant linear relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and home background factors. The home background factors used in this study consist of those component factors: Parent's Educational Level, Parent's Income Level and Parent's Attitude to Education. When all three factors are jointly regressed on teaching performance, the R square value is .003 with F value of 1.826 which is not significant at .05 level. Consequently, the results uphold the null hypothesis, that "there is no significant statistical relationship between NCE final teaching performance and home background factors".

Taken separately, there is no significant relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and parent's educational level. The coefficient of .006 is not significant at .05 level. Similarly, the coefficient of .025 indicates a zero correlation between NCE final teaching practice performance and parent's income level, an acceptance of the null hypothesis.

4.4.2 Cultural Universalities:

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no significant statistical relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and cultural universalities.

There is a significant positive correlation between NCE final teaching practice performance and cultural universalities as indicated by a coefficient of .212. Regressed on Teaching Performance, cultural dimension also yields a multiple R of .212 with an F value of 24.74. This result rejects the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and cultural universalities.

4.4.3 Attitude to Teaching:

Null Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and attitude to teaching with a high beta (.4466), a high R square change of .155 and an F value of 131.275, attitude to teaching is significantly related to NCE final teaching practice performance, a result which rejects the null hypothesis.

4.4.4 Self Concept Variables:

Null Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and self concept. Self concept variables in the study comprised Motivation, Task Orientation, Problem Solving and Class Membership. When repressed joinly on teaching performance, self concept variables yielded a Multiple R of .289 and an F value of 48.368 indicating a significant relationship between the

dependent and the independent variables, thus rejecting the null hypothesis. Separately, Motivation, Task Orientation and Class Membership show positive correlations (.239, .224 and .184 respectively) all at .001 level of significance, which again is a rejection of the null hypothesis. On the other hand, Problem Solving shows a Zero correlation with teaching performance (.045 correlation coefficient) and this is an acceptance of the null hypothesis on that context.

4.4.5 Personality Variables:

Null Hypothesis 5: 'There is no significant statistical relationship between NCE final teaching practice performance and personality variables'. Two personality factors were investigated: extraversion and neuroticism. Regressed jointly, personality variables were found to have no significant correlation with teaching performance (-0.189). Taken separately, there is still no correlation between either extraversion or neuroticism on the one hand and teaching performance on the other hand.

Chapter V

Analysis of Data II

5.1 Influences of Independent Variables on Teaching Performance.

Effects of block variables on dependent variable

Correlations of the main variables involved in the study demonstrated moderate relationships between three independent variables and the dependent variable: Self Concept, Cultural Universalities and Attitude to Teaching. No significant correlations were found for home background and Personality variables.

5.1.1 Regression on Teaching Performance:

To determine effects of independent variables on teaching performance, regression analysis were performed using the three variables, Self Concept, Cultural Universalities and Attitude to Teaching.

In the regression reported in Table 5.1, Attitude to Teaching was entered first which yielded a high multiple R of .446 and accounted for a corresponding 19.94 per cent variation in Teaching Performance at a very high F value (131.275). Self Concept was entered second and both the multiple R and the R Square for Attitude to Teaching hardly changed.

Table 5.1 Influences of Three Independent Variables on Teaching Performance

	Multiple R	R Square	R^2 Change	Beta	F	P
Step 1						
Attitude to Teaching	0.44657	0.19942	0.19942	0.44657	131.275	<.001
Step 2						
Attitude to Teaching	0.45421	0.20630	0.19942	0.40031	81.011	<.001
Self Concept			0.00688	0.09498	4.560	<.01
Step 3						
Attitude to Teaching			.19942	0.39466	70.084	<.001
Self Concept	0.45443	0.20650	.00688	0.09286	4.279	<.01
Cultural Dimension			.00020	0.01578	0.133	N.S

N = 529

The R Square change in the second step of the regression indicated that Self Concept adds an increment of only 0.69 per cent to variation already explained by Attitude to Teaching and a Mutiple R of .45421 (from the previous one at .44657). The third variable added was Cultural Dimension and, like Self Concept, showed very limited influence on Teaching Performance with an R square of change of 0.00020 (0.02%). Thus, it appears that the contributions of Self Concept and Cultural Dimension, when used in conjuction with Attitude to Teaching, is rather trivial. The Attitude variable generally retained its moderately high Beta in all three steps of the regression though it had been forced down from an initial 0.447 to 0.395.

5·1·2 Attitude to Teaching and Self Concept Variables: Of all the Self Concept Variables only Problem Solving increases the Beta for Attitude to Teaching (.48985) yet this happens when it (Problem Solving Variable) shows the negative sign. Obviously Problem Solving Variable overlaps with determination to achieve success which is wrapped in a positive Attitude to Teaching Other Self Concept Variables, Motivation and Class membership, make varying contributions in conjunction with Attitude to Teaching.

Table 5.2

Regression: Selected Self Concept Variables On Attitude to Teaching

Step 1

	Multiple R	R Square	R. Square Change	Beta	F	P
Attitude to Teaching	.4465	.19942	.19942	.44651	131.275	<.001

Step 2

Attitude to Teaching	.45075	.20318	.19992	.41907	96.500	<.001
Motivation			.00376	.06716	2.479	<.05

Step 3

Attitude to Teaching			.19992	.40692	85.071	<.001
Motivation	.45270	.20494	.00376	.06302	2.165	NS
Class Membership		.00176	.04432	.04432	1.161	NS

N = 529

As shown in Table 5.2, the Motivation factor regressed in conjunction with Attitude to teaching shows negligible influence on Teaching performance with an R square Change equivalence of .37 per cent. Class Membership factor does not improve the situation: it produces the lowest F value (1.161) and R square change (.17%) of the three variables in the equation (Table 5.2). Inclusion of Motivation and Class Membership in one regression with Attitude to Teaching would tend to trivialise a search for relative influences of variables. Self Concept variables, especially the Motivation factor would seem to have similar drive for achievement that might be derived from either positive or negative Attitude to Teaching.

The characteristics that seem to be borne out in Self Concept variables appear to be more distinctively amplified by Attitude to Teaching variable as suggested by the zero-order correlations of Self Concept by Attitude to Teaching shown in Table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3.: Zero-Order Correlations of Self Concept Variables by Attitude to Teaching

	Motivation	Task Orientation	Problem Solving	Class Membership
Attitude to Teaching	.44	.08*	.35	.32

*Not significant at .05. All other correlations are significant at .000 level

Attitude to Teaching is moderately correlated with all Self Concept Variables except Task Oreintation. This study result suggests that one's self concept of teaching performance is related to one's Attitude to Teaching.

5.1.3 Attitude to Teaching and Cultural Universalities:

The zero correlation of Cultural variable by Attitude to Teaching show highly positive relationships (.54, significant at 000). Yet when these two variables are regressed on Teaching Performance, the Cultural Variable is not only over-shadowed by Attitude to Teaching, but also turns negative in step-wise regression with Attitude to Teaching in the equation. The Beta produced for Cultural variable is -0.01169 in contrast to 0.45235 for Attitude to Teaching.

5.1.4 Summary: Three out of the five independent variables in this study were found to have varying effects on Teaching performance. Attitude to Teaching accounted for 19.94 per cent variation in teaching performance while Self Concept and Cultural Variables contributed only 0.69 per cent and 0.02 per cent respectively. Moderate levels of inter-correlation were found between Attitude to Teaching and Self Concept and Cultural factors. Regression analysis indicates the relative consistency of Attitude to Teaching Variable in its effect on Teaching Performance.

6.2. Independent Variables in the Findings:

6.2.1. Introduction: Analysis of social data has certain inherent weaknesses which the sophistication of methodology cannot overcome largely because weakness is encountered at the basic level of conceptualization and definition of the different variables. The interdependence and multifaceted nature of the variables involved in this study demonstrate the complexity of the business of analysis; the teaching practice performance at the time we try to assess it is the produce of years of complex development. To begin with, the home is the major influence shaping the personality, attitudes and self concept. All this happens within a culture that controls the experiences that one goes through which in turn shapes one's self concept and attitude. It is often a problem to attempt to unravel these variables in search of linear relationships.

6.2.2. Home Background Variables: An attempt in this exploratory study to find some relationship between teaching performance and home back ground factors failed to produce the expected outcomes but yielded a useful indication: the level of education environment of the home is very significatly correlated positively to problem-solving as expected.

CHAPTER VI

6.0 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Findings: The results of the investigation support the proposal that teaching performance is related to factors other than academic capability which has hitherto formed the exclusive criteria for selection into teachers' colleges. A significant relationship has been found to exist between teaching performance and Attitude to Teaching, Self Concept and Cultural Universalities variables, and this finding has implications for selection of candidates for pre-service teacher education. The differences in Attitude to Teaching reflected a clear pattern in classroom teaching performance. An R square equivalent to 19.94 per cent increment in teaching performance due to the addition of Attitude to Teaching variable was easily the highest obtained in the study. These findings support previous studies of Jordan (1941), Briggs (1959), Mukherjee (1972), Taiwo (1981), and Mukherjee and Jatto (1983), that a linear relationship exists between attitudes and their corresponding tasks. In this study successful teacher-trainees, that is, those who attain high teaching performance, were identified by their attitude to teaching. Self concept and the cultural dimension scale.

Yet problem-solving itself is negatively regressed with attitude to teaching while the level of education environment of the home is positively correlated to attitude to teaching. The relationship which is often reported to exist between home background and school achievement does not exist between the teacher's social background and his teaching competence.

6.3 Personality and Teaching Performance: The absence of a significant relationship between personality variables and teaching performance seem to echo Vernon's (1953) assertion that teachers are composed of all sorts of personalities. Personality theorists study behaviour through the complex interaction among the different aspects of the individual's functioning. In trying to understand a teacher's behaviour the interaction among the different aspects of his functioning are too complex for simplification. No direct relationship with teaching performance would be meaningful that does not simplify the complexity of human functioning. Warburton's suggestion that stability is more important than the extraversion-introversion dimension needs to be heeded, for the teacher's personality is more important than his knowledge of the subject matter.

6.4 Attitudes and Teaching Performance:

Of the three independent variables in the study, Attitude to Teaching showed the most significant relationship with teaching performance. This outstanding influence of attitude on teaching performance needs a brief discussion. Attitudes are linked to one's underlying value system both of which constitute a key to an individual's fundamental philosophy of life. A student teacher's attitude towards teaching is a complex end-product of his knowledge of his culture, his self-concept and a web of social factors. The behavioural component of one's attitude may emanate from one's knowledge of the object or person. It appears that 'attitude' in this study ranked high because of its all-encompassing nature. The problem with attitudes is that they are not only subject to change but also superficial. Attitudes toward teaching have changed over the years in consonance with social, economic, ideological and political changes in society. The changing role of and status of the teacher in society is often seen as a possible basis for would-be teachers to make up their minds about the profession. In spite of the changes in the historical situation it may be argued that a positive attitude to teaching would be a useful predictor of teachers likely to stay long in teaching and also likely to perform their tasks effectively.

6.5 Conclusions:

The linear relationship that emerged between independent variables in the study and teaching performance is by no means a causal relationship. The study has produced evidence of the existence of varying strengths of association between culture, attitude and self concept, factors on the one hand, and teaching performance on the other. Bearing in mind the complex problems of analysing social data, it is plausible to outline the main conclusions arising from this study as follows:

(i) Significant relationships between attitude to teaching and teaching performance were found.

(ii) The study results support the proposal that effective classroom teaching is related to cultural and other personality variables. This implies that academic attainment is not the only means that could be used for selecting candidates for advanced teachers' colleges or colleges of education.

(iii) Selection of candidates for pre-service teacher education should include measurements of cultural universals, attitude toward teaching and self concept if most of the entrants are expected to become effective classroom teachers.

6.6 Implications for teacher education.

The most significant findings of this study centre on the relationships between teaching performance on the one hand and self concept, attitude to teaching and the cultural dimension. Each of these Variables was found to contribute significantly to influences on teaching performance. One's attitude is derived from one's value system which in turn mirrors one's overall personality. Self concept covers an individual's motivation, purposes, goals and adjustment. These motivations and goals reflect one's attitude to an object. Student teachers' attitude towards teaching would tend to correlate with their self concept toward the job. Both self concept and attitude are developed within a cultural context. The findings suggest that a measure of cultural universals would be a useful predictor of teachers who are likely to become effective in the classroom, no less than the use of an attitude measurement would seem to be necessary for selection purposes. Similarly, self concept scales adapted to suit African Environments are likely to serve a useful purpose for identifying candidates likely to become successful classroom teachers. In most African countries solutions to the problem of acute

shortage of teachers often centre on the relaxation of minimum entry requirements. The shortage arises partly from candidates' preference for secondary education and more prestigeous occupations. The use of measurements of candidates' attitude, their self concept and cultural universals are likely to identify the would-be effective teachers. These findings go far beyond the conventional recognition of "born teachers" or "academic ability" as criteria for what makes a good teacher. The factors of self concept, culture and attitude, reported in this study and in the extensive research literature, are all involved in some way with high teaching attainment. Research which sheds some light on the interplay of variables as supporting development of high teaching skills could potentially result in improved selection procedures for admission into teachers' colleges. Teacher education is a life long business. Learning and professional efficiency occur in increments, taking time to manifest effects. Identification of candidates, at the outset, who are likely to stay in the job could aid the development of a more stable teaching profession and therefore ameliorate the rapid turn-over of teachers in our schools.

College academic curriculum and professional activities for pre-service or in-service teacher education should recognise the development of positive attitudes of the would-be teachers as a continuous activity. Additional research is required in the area of developing a comprehensive measurement tool for selecting would-be teachers. This tool will provide a basis for new research framework through which attainment of teachers already in the service may be interpreted.

6.7 Recommendations for further research

Based on the major findings of this study a number of issues for further research can be suggested. Self concept, attitude to teaching and cultural dimension of the would-be teacher have been shown to have predictive value for selection of candidates for teachers' colleges.

(i) There is need for further research into relationships between attitudes and self concept on the one hand and teaching performance on the other hand by specific school subjects in Nigeria. It will then be possible to assert the conclusiveness or otherwise of these relationships within the Nigerian context.

(ii) One area that requires attention is a longitudinal study involving attitudes of entrants into teachers' colleges at the time of entry, during their studies in the colleges and then a further follow up after a number of years of teaching in the field. This kind of study should centre on the evaluation of attitude change.

(iii) The development of instruments for measuring cultural universalities in Nigeria requires further research. Cultural scales might also be used in further study of relationships between culture and performance in school Replication studies should also occur in other parts of Nigeria aimed at establishing the relationships found in this study. Similarly, further research for the development of attitude scale and self concept scale for would-be teachers and teachers already in the field would shed more light on the relationships.

(iv) The logical sequence in these studies should lead to the production of a comprehension scale which may be used for the selection of entrants to teachers' colleges such a scale would include elements of attitude to teaching, self concept and cultural universalities.

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APPENDIX 'A'

ATTITUDE TOWARDS TEACHING

College No:..... Age:..... Sex:.....

The following are some statements about different feelings towards teaching. For each statement, there are four different ways in which you can respond or reply:

Strongly Agree or SA

Agree or A

Don't Know or DK

Disagree or DA

Strongly Disagree or SDA

If you strongly agree with a statement then, please tick ☑ the appropriate box or SA as shown. If you agree with the statement then tick the appropriate box ☑ as shown. If you don't know, or disagree, then tick the appropriate box DA ☑ or DK ☑ respectively. If you strongly disagree with any statement then tick the appropriate box SDA ☑ as shown.

Please remember we are interested in your truthful answers about your feeling You have nothing to be afraid of as responses will be treated with strictest confidence. Please be honest and truthful in what you say. Answer all the items Please also remember that the first answer that crosses your mind is always the correct answer so put down a tick as you feel for the first time after reading the statement. Do not put down more than one tick in one question and do not change your answer.

- - - -

N.3. I should prefer any other job to teaching.

SA ☐ A ☐ DK ☐ DA ☐ SDA ☐

N.4. Teaching is not SO important as some people think.

SA ☐ A ☐ DK ☐ DA ☐ SDA ☐

P.5. Only stupid people dislike teaching.

SA ☐ A ☐ DK ☐ DA ☐ SDA ☐

P.6. I think more time should be spent at college learning how to teach.

SA ☐ A ☐ DK ☐ DA ☐ SDA ☐

N.7. Teaching may be useful but it is very boring.

SA ☐ A ☐ DK ☐ DA ☐ SDA ☐

N.8. There are times when I hate teaching.

SA ☐ A ☐ DK ☐ DA ☐ SDA ☐

P.9. No other profession is as interesting as teaching.

SA ☐ A ☐ DK ☐ DA ☐ SDA ☐

N.10 Teaching is alright for those who like it, but not for me.

SA ☐ A ☐ DK ☐ DA ☐ SDA ☐

APPENDIX 'B'

THE CULTURAL DIMENSION SCALE

College Number:..... Ethnic Group:.....

Instructions

Please rate these characteristics according to their importance to you. Show your response by putting a tick (✓)i in the appropriate column.

	Strongly Agree	AGREE	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. An individual must show humility at all times					
2. One must show excellence in everything one does.					
3. Moral strength, ie sacrificing everything for a principle is a commendable quality					
4. One must get along with everybody					
5. I usually compare myself with other people					
6. People should be concerned about the welfare of their neighbours.					
7. One should visit friends and relations often.					
8. There should be exchange of gifts between friends and relations.					
9. Participation in social ceremonies such as births and death is important.					
10. An individual should be calm in the face of provocation.					
11. One should show off ones wealth or achievement.					
12. Children should be allowed to ask older folk questions.					
13. We should believe that one can improve ones lot.					

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
14. An individual should show enthusiasm for his job.					
15. We should believe that one's position is destined and that there is nothing that can be done about it.					
16. Those with the means should help the less able to get on in life.					

APPENDIX 'C'

HOME BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Please provide the following information about yourself, your parents/ guardian or your home. Your responses will be treated with strict confidence so you need not be afraid that someone will see them.

Put a tick ☑ in the appropriate box or provide the necessary information in the space provided.

Please do not write here.

Personal Information

1. College Number

2. Ethnic Group

3. Sex of student
   1. Male
   2. Female

4. Marital Status
   1. Single
   2. Married

5. Age
   1. Below 20
   2. 20 - 30
   3. Above 30

6. How long have you taught?
   1. Not at all 1
   2. 1 - 5 years 2
   3. Above 5 years. 3

7. What were your educational qualifications before the NCE course? Tick one.
   1. Grade II Teachers' Certificate 1
   2. WASC or 'O' Level 2
   3. GCE 'A' Level 3

		Please do not write here.
8. How long did your father/guardian attend primary school?		
(1) Not at all	▱	1
(2) 1 - 4 years	▱	2
(3) More than 4 years.	▱	3
9. What type of post-primary institution did your father/guardian attend?		
(1) None	▱	1
(2) Technical or Vocational	▱	2
(3) Teacher training, Polytechnic or Sec. School.	▱	3
(4) Others (specify)	▱	1/2/3
10. What university qualification does your father/guardian hold? (Tick the highest)		
(1) None	▱	1
(2) Diploma	▱	2
(3) University Degree	▱	3
11. How many years did your mother spend in primary school?		
(1) None	▱	1
(2) 1 - 4 years	▱	2
(3) Seven years.	▱	3
12. What type of post-primary institution did your mother attend?		
(1) None	▱	1
(2) Nursing	▱	2
(3) Teacher training or secondary school or polytechnic.	▱	3

(4) Others (specify)	▱	1/2/3
13. What is your father/guardian's occupation?		
(1) Not employed	▱	1
(2) Farmer or junior staff or trader or small contractor	▱	2
(3) Company or government job, clerk or executive officer.	▱	2
(4) Company director/professional.	▱	3
(5) Teaching-primary, secondary or post secondary.	▱	3
14. In what category does your parents'/guardian income level fall?		
(1) Nothing	▱	1
(2) Grade level 01 - 06	▱	2
(3) Grade level 07 and above	▱	3
(4) Not certain (specify the nature of occupation	▱	1/2/3
15. How would you describe the material condiction of the home?		
(1) Poor	▱	1
(2) Satisfactory	▱	2
(3) Well off (rich)	▱	3
16. Is the house you live in		
(1) Rented by your father/guardian	▱	1
(2) Government or Company house	▱	2
(3) Owned by your father/guardian?	▱	3

17. How many bedrooms are in your house?		
(1) 1	▱	1
(2) 2 - 3	▱	2
(3) More than 3	▱	3
18. Where is the house situated?		
(1) Village	▱	1
(2) Township	▱	2
(3) Government residential area	▱	3
19. How does your house get light?		
(1) None	▱	1
(2) From kerosene lamp	▱	2
(3) From Electricity	▱	3
20. Do you have car(s) at your home?		
(1) None	▱	1
(2) One	▱	2
(3) More than one	▱	3
21. Do you have servants at home?		
(1) None	▱	1
(2) One	▱	2
(3) More than one	▱	3
22. How many people live in your father's/guardian's compound?		
(1) More than 10	▱	1
(2) Between 6 and 10	▱	2
(3) 5 or less.	▱	3

23. How many wives does your father/guardian have?		
(1) More than 2	☐	1
(2) Two	☐	2
(3) One	☐	3
24. How many television sets do you have at home?		
(1) None	☐	1
(2) One	☐	2
(3) More than one	☐	3
25. Which of these words describe the food situation in your home?		
(1) Not enough	☐	1
(2) Adequate	☐	2
(3) Plenty	☐	3
26. How would you describe your parents'/guardians attitude to your education?		
(1) Discouraging	☐	1
(2) Indifferent	☐	2
(3) Encouraging	☐	3
27. Which of these words describe the reading material (books, newspapers, magazines) in your home?		
(1) None	☐	1
(2) Few	☐	2
(3) Many	☐	3

28. Do your parents read at home the following (Tick more than one if necessary).

(1) Newspaper/magazine ☐ 1

(2) Library books (fiction). ☐ 2

(3) Educative books eg history, science, controversial subjects; etc. ☐ 3

29. Do your parents often discuss or debate any of the following issues at home (Tick more than one if necessary).

(1) Nothing ☐ 1

(2) National politics ☐ 2

(3) General situation of the country ☐ 3

(4) International affairs ☐ 3

(5) State of education in Nigeria ☐ 3

30. As a child did you have the freedom and opportunity to go to your parents, especially, father to ask questions about (Tick more than one if necessary).

(1) Nothing ☐ 1

(2) Why some people are poor and others rich. ☐ 2

(3) How a car moves/or an aeroplane flies or a new thing at home eg. a television set. ☐ 3

31. Who has really encouraged/pushed you in your present study at A.T.C?

(1) Nobody ☐ 1

(2) Myself ☐ 2

(3) Parents/husband or wife ☐ 3

32. What is your main motivation to come to teaching?

(1) Uncertain ☐ 1

(2) A good job with status ☐ 2

(3) To education children. ☐ 3