

TEACHING STYLES AND THE ACCEPTANCE OF PUPILS

by

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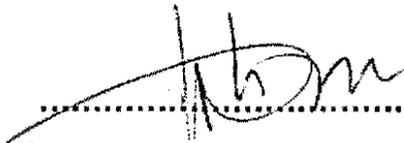
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I declare that **TEACHING STYLES AND THE ACCEPTANCE OF PUPILS** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.


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Dedication

Dedicated to my wife Blantina and children Simbarashe,
Rumbidzai, Farisai, Tariro and Lawrence "Lolo" (Jnr.).
That this becomes an inspiration to all of them.

The highest reward for a person's toil is not what they get for it but what they become by it.

John Buskin

In memory of my late parents Cyprian and Francisca
Chin'anga.

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Summary

The purpose of the study was to investigate how teaching styles influence the acceptance of pupils by teachers, the development of a positive self-concept, and the extent to which it will enhance scholastic performance. The overwhelming finding from literature is that no teacher research, nor pupil investigation, has led to the identification of one particular teaching style that can influence scholastic performance to the exclusion of others. While some studies have found a positive relationship between self-concept and scholastic achievement, others did not.

To analyse data, the study made use of Factor Analysis, Cronbach Alpha, Regression Analysis and Significance level of tests. The study found no relationship between self-concept and scholastic performance but a positive correlation was found between scholastic performance and invitational style, acceptance of pupils, age, father and mother's employment. The study makes recommendations and proposes areas for further research.

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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM FORMULATION, AIM AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.1 GENERAL ORIENTATION

Teachers are expected to be concerned about the pupils they teach. The teacher should invite pupils to the teaching/learning situation similar to the way flowers need sunshine. Teaching of this nature implies that pupils are to be accepted by the teacher. Being accepted by the teacher will create within the pupil a sense of well-being. This sense of well-being forms the building blocks upon which motivation for future learning is founded.

The teacher's effectiveness in being able to create within the pupils a sense of well being will depend on his/her general personality orientation as well as his/her teaching style. This teaching style should take cognisance of the pupil's capabilities and limitations. The good teacher should therefore:

- learn as much as possible about his/her pupils and their preferred styles of learning;
- develop an effective style of teaching, one that is flexible and adaptable; and
- integrate the disciplines of teaching and learning thereby helping pupils to build bridges or connections between all that is being learned (Kellough & Kellough 1996:81).

In spite of all the expectations and responsibilities that rest upon a teacher, the researcher observed that many teachers in Zimbabwean schools did not meet the calling. Their teaching styles appeared to sabotage pupil effort and achievement

in that they failed to establish a good teacher/pupil relationship. The result being that pupils formulated a negative concept concerning their abilities as learners and became vulnerable to failure (Thomas, Bol & Warkentin 1993:529).

When pupils are treated with indifference by their teachers, they are likely to become defensive and indifferent to school, resulting in a generally negative attitude. This negativism may include a low self-esteem, impulsiveness, pleasure-seeking, selfishness, unco-operativeness, resentfulness and disorganisation. Pupils who fail to realise their ideals because of such obstacles and disturbances may become frustrated and this will affect their scholastic achievement (Hamachek 1965:474; Johnson 1993:60).

The teacher by virtue of his/her unique position is able to establish varying relationships with the pupils. The nature of these relationships may imply that pupils will experience feelings of acceptance or rejection in the classroom. These feelings that could arise from the teacher's personal teaching style may influence the extent to which the pupil develops a negative or positive self-concept (Muska & Ashworth 1990:1). Since the teacher's teaching style could contribute towards developing a positive self concept, the researcher decided to examine the relationship between teaching styles, the acceptance of pupils and scholastic achievement.

1.2 BECOMING AWARE OF THE PROBLEM

During the past ten years the researcher was involved in Teacher Training. This implied being involved in extensive supervision of student teachers who were on Teaching Practice. During this period the researcher also had the opportunity to observe the work of more experienced teachers.

The following observations were made:

(A) The level of teacher commitment to work was disappointing.

- Many teachers were guilty of inadequate preparation and planning.
- The pupil's performance was not monitored. A number of teachers therefore recorded fictitious marks in their record books.
- Especially worrying was the fact that many teachers admitted that they did not teach any remedial lessons yet produced a fake record indicating that this had been done.

According to Hamachek (1985:316) good teaching happens as a result of hard work and thorough preparation. However, in the situation observed by the researcher, preparation of work was superficially done. Some of the reasons offered by teachers for inadequate preparation of work included shortage of textbooks, exercise books and stationery as well as inadequate funding for schools to buy learning aids.

(B) Resourcefulness on the part of teachers was generally lacking.

- Teacher-directed activity during lessons was lacking and many teachers failed to utilise the full thirty minute duration of a particular period.

The quality of the pupil's performance produced under such circumstances was found to be mediocre. Under these conditions even the good pupil was bound to underachieve.

(C) Young teachers did not display a commitment to the teaching profession.

- They appeared to be motivated by self-interest and monetary gain rather than pupil welfare.
- Their manner of dress was not exemplary.

The manner in which teachers present themselves as human beings is as influential upon pupils' lives and learning as the daily activities in the classroom (Butler 1984:52). The same view is expressed by Eble (1980:29) when he says that to wake up our pupils, we ourselves as teachers must be awake, to inspire them, we ourselves must be inspired, to love them we must love ourselves.

1.3 PROBLEM ANALYSIS

A number of variables contribute toward the development of a positive self-concept (Vrey 1979:76). The variable of feeling accepted by significant others is but one of these variables when seen. Within the teaching/learning situation a feeling of being accepted by the teacher will contribute toward the pupil developing a positive self-concept. This positive self-concept can blossom where a teacher uses an effective teaching style, one that is flexible, and adjusts to particular teaching contexts (Louissel & Descamps 1992:276).

1.3.1 Statement of the problem

Poor scholastic performance by the primary school pupil is a result of various factors. Research has shown that poor teacher/pupil relationships, the teacher's teaching style, poor self-concept development within the pupils, large classes, inadequate material resources and the teacher's unwillingness or inability to accept pupils are some of the more pressing factors (Vrey 1979).

It could therefore imply that when a pupil does not feel accepted because of the teaching style used by the teacher, that teaching style may indirectly be contributing toward the formation of a negative self-concept and ultimately lead to poor scholastic achievement.

1.3.2 Formulation of the problem

It is necessary to consider the influence of the teacher's teaching styles on the acceptance of pupils, how this in turn can lead to the development of a positive or negative self-concept which ultimately fosters scholastic achievement.

To put the problem in its perspective, the question may be asked: "Is there a relationship between teaching styles, the acceptance of pupils, self-concept and scholastic achievement?"

1.3.3 Delimitation of the problem

This study on teaching styles and the acceptance of pupils by teachers will be limited to grade seven primary school pupils. The assumption is that grade seven pupils who are in their last year in primary school, will serve as good examples of what effects possible teaching styles could have had on their feeling accepted by teachers. They are also on their way to establishing an own identity.

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

In order to focus the investigation properly, the aims of the research will be divided into general and specific aims.

1.4.1 General aim

This study is concerned with how invitational or non-invitational teaching styles will influence the acceptance of pupils which is a requirement for developing a positive self-concept and how the acceptance of pupils will enhance scholastic performance.

The investigation will focus on various teaching styles used by teachers, the acceptance of pupils in the actual teaching/learning situation, the development of the self-concept in such a situation and how the acceptance of pupils will lead pupils to perform well in class.

The teaching styles that will be singled out for investigation shall be categorised into invitational and non-invitational styles. The study will not be able to take into consideration all the available teaching styles but will mainly focus on the more known and used teaching styles in Zimbabwe.

1.4.2 Specific aims

The following aims have been posited:

- To establish the teaching styles used by teachers in order to evaluate their effectiveness;
- To assess the degree of pupil acceptance by teachers and significant others so that solutions to problems can be suggested;
- To explain how pupil acceptance is related to teaching styles in the primary school;
- To establish the relationship between teaching styles, self-concept and scholastic performance.

1.5 CONCEPT DEFINITIONS

1.5.1 Pupil

The term pupil as used in the investigation refers to a child who attends a primary school. Generally this pupil is in grade one to seven and is between the ages of six and thirteen. However, in this study "pupil" will imply only pupils in grade seven. Their ages will vary because of factors such as, pupils who repeated a grade or pupils who started schooling at an earlier age.

1.5.2 Teaching style

Teaching style is the way teachers teach, their distinctive mannerisms complemented by their choice of teaching behaviours and strategies. Every teacher develops a personal style of teaching with which he or she feels most comfortable (Kellough & Kellough 1996:72).

There are many ways to label and describe teaching styles (Kellough & Kellough 1996:73). However, it should be noted that neither research nor personal observation allows us to conclude that there is one best kind of teacher or one best kind of teaching style. No single teaching behaviour is highly correlated with student behaviour (Hamachek 1985:311). Some teaching styles are primarily teacher-directed; some are more student-centred and still others are mediated by materials.

In the actual day to day classroom situation, teaching styles or methods are not so distinct from each other, since normally a teacher makes use of different teaching styles at different phases of the lesson (Weideman 1988:11).

1.5.3 Invitational teaching

Invitational teaching can be defined as the ability to create a learning climate that is based on the following principles:

- The improvement of the teacher/pupil relationships and the nurturing of pupils' self-esteem.
- Cooperation rather than competition in the classroom which usually results in a more positive learning experience for pupils.
- Emphasis on the learning process rather than its products.

Teachers who subscribe to these principles and goals outlined by Hamachek (1985:321) stay tuned to the human element of the teaching/learning process and not just the academic outcomes derived from it.

Invitational teaching further maintains that each pupil has relatively untapped potential for intellectual, psychological and physical development (Fahey 1986:19). It represents a refreshing approach to education and teaching and its basis is trust, confidence, strength and optimism.

Invitational teaching helps pupils to develop more confidence through finding ways for them to experience success. As pupils realise that they can learn new concepts and profit from the experience, self-confidence increases in them. This self-confidence lays the foundation for a higher level of competence (Dodd 1992:296).

Pupils who do not feel accepted by the teacher are anxious and do not feel invited to the teaching/learning situation. They lack the motivation to learn and may develop feelings of general inability. Invitational teaching entails striving to make the classroom atmosphere captivating. This implies constructing environments that

help pupils remove the causes of lack of involvement, apparent lack of interest or irresponsible academic behaviours (Caprio 1993:219).

1.5.4 Non-invitational teaching

Non-invitational teaching is the kind of teaching that does not take cognisance of the pupil's pedagogic and existential needs.

Non-invitational teaching may cause the pupil to feel uncomfortable in class and have a negative perception of being there. The pupils may not enjoy being there because they do not feel invited to the teaching/learning situation. Pupils who feel excluded from the learning situation have a sense of rejection, loneliness and helplessness (Muska & Ashworth 1990:152). Non-invitational teaching is also characterised by teachers who lack a sense of humour, grow impatient easily, and use cutting, reducing comments in class (Hamachek 1985:315). These teachers display authoritarian behaviour and are usually less sensitive to the needs of their pupils. In addition, punishment is used that leads to embarrassment and feelings of inadequacy (Glazier 1991:221). Pupils who experience such situations associate school with anxiety and insecurity because they do not feel invited to the teaching/learning situation.

When pupils feel that they are not accepted by the teacher it generates hostility, futility and emptiness. In order to guard against the occurrence of non-invitational teaching, teachers need to put maximum effort, creativity and consideration for pupil differences when structuring their activities. Teachers have therefore the onerous task of fostering mutual respect, admiration and trust. They need to develop personal contact with their pupils. For example, by not remaining at their desks but by circulating in the classroom they create the opportunity for exchange (Magliocca 1991:31).

1.5.5 Acceptance of pupils

Acceptance of pupils imply the manner in which pupils experience or feel accepted by the teacher. To accept pupils is to love, respect and trust them. Pupils feel accepted by the teacher when their humaneness is acknowledged. Pupils who feel that they are regarded as human beings have their sense of worth increased.

A teaching style that invites pupils to the learning situation makes pupils comfortable in the classroom. On account of this invitational teaching style, the pupils like the teacher and the subject being taught. In this atmosphere the pupils enjoy the teachers presence and they want to be involved in learning activities.

Jeremy Bentham (Eble 1980:29) suggested that the way to be comfortable was to make others comfortable, the way to make others comfortable was to appear to love them, and the best way to love them was to love them in reality. Something like this is a necessary part of teaching. The manner in which teachers present themselves as human beings is as influential upon pupils' lives and learning as the daily activities in the classroom (Butler 1984:52).

The teacher's unique presence can build rapport, cause fear, encourage divergent thinking, inspire academic excellence or develop any number of healthy or unhealthy conditions for himself and for his pupils (Frazier 1976:56). Havamaki (Hamachek 1985:318) found that pupils with whom teachers related positively were more socially accepted by their peers than pupils with whom teachers related negatively.

Ryan and Grolnick (in Ryan, Stiller & Lynch 1994:230) found that pupils who experienced their teachers as supportive and warm were more likely to be intrinsically motivated, to feel more competent and to have a positive self-esteem in comparison to pupils with more negative views of their teachers.

Intrinsically motivated pupils feel at home in the classroom. They want to be part of the learning process, they regard problems as challenges to be overcome and not impediments to be avoided. A teaching style that leads to the acceptance of pupils must meet the requirements of pupil involvement in the learning process namely: love, knowledge, care, respect, responsibility and trust for the pupil.

1.5.6 The self-concept

The concepts of self-concept, self-image, self-esteem, self-identity are complimentary to each other and are often used to describe the same phenomenon. The self-concept refers to a configuration of convictions concerning oneself and attitudes towards oneself that is dynamic and of which one is normally aware. It is the focal point of relationships in the life-world (Vrey 1979:48). According to Vrey (1979:47) "... a self-concept comprises three mutually dependent components: identity, action and self-esteem". Viewed within the context of teaching styles, the self-concept to an individual's ideas and images concerning traits and characteristics, liabilities and assets, limitations and capabilities concerning his/her learning. It concerns the manner in which the learner sees himself/herself. The teacher's teaching style must therefore strive to build relationships by encouraging the acceptance of pupils which would lead them to develop positive self-concepts.

The self-concept is highly meaningful to the learner, whether it is based on high or low self-esteem. The teaching style selected by the teacher must be such that it enables the learner to see himself/herself as successful. The teaching style must be oriented towards the development of a positive scholastic self-concept.

The self-concept is wider than self-esteem. It contains self-esteem as one of its components. We may think of self-esteem as a circle enclosed within the wider

circle of self-concept or we may think of self-esteem as the evaluative component of the self-concept (Hartline 1993:19).

Self-image is our conception of the sort of person I am. It has been built unconsciously from our past experiences, our success and failures, our humiliations, our triumphs and the way other people have reacted to us, especially in early childhood. All our actions, feelings, behaviour, or even our abilities are always consistent with the self-image (Hartline 1993:19).

The child aspires to an identity that will be accepted and esteemed by himself and by others. This identity of image will be evaluated against subjective standards formed in relations with others (Vrey 1979:47). In the school this evaluated self-image becomes the academic self-concept. It is formed in classroom interaction with the teacher and classmates. The teacher's teaching style must ensure effective interpersonal communication in the learning situation.

1.5.7 Academic identity

The most dominant value operating in the educational system is academic achievement. In the classroom teachers interpret this to pupils. They apply academic standards to the pupils' daily efforts and products. If academic achievement is to serve as a source of self-esteem, it must first be valued. To acquire this value the pupil must be recognised and affirmed as an achiever who has positive impact on significant others and the environment (Burns 1982:204). The learner must see himself/herself as an important member of the class. He/she must have a positive attitude towards the school and school learning.

Depending on the degree of acceptance by the teacher the child's attitude towards school can either be positive or negative. In the school the teacher must ensure

that pupils develop positive attitudes towards subject matter, the teacher and entire school environment. The learner must consider it important to achieve at school. The learner's concept or idea of himself/herself as a learner is influenced by his/her previous learning experiences. He/she keeps on judging himself/herself on the basis of these experiences. His/her experiences may be such that he sees himself/herself as a successful or unsuccessful learner (Vrey 1979:268-9). The teacher's teaching style must influence the development of the pupil's academic identity to such an extent that he/she sees himself/herself as a capable pupil.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH USED IN THE INVESTIGATION

1.6.1 Literature study

A detailed study of the relevant literature concerning invitational and non-invitational teaching styles, the self-concept, acceptance of pupils and academic achievement will be undertaken.

1.6.2 Empirical study

A questionnaire will be prepared that will measure the self-concept of pupils, determine which teaching style were mainly used by the teachers as well as the extent to which pupils felt accepted by the teacher as a result of the use of these teaching styles.

One questionnaire will be prepared and administered to five hundred grade seven pupils in schools in which the field work will be undertaken.

Two areas in Masvingo District namely, Chivi and Zimuto have been selected for this study. Five schools, three from Zimuto and two from Chivi will be randomly selected.

This method is preferred because it ensures that all have an equal chance of being selected for the sample (Mulder 1982:57).

1.7 RESEARCH PROGRAMME

In chapter one, the aim of the investigation has been indicated, namely the way in which teaching styles will influence the acceptance of pupils which in turn facilitates the development of a positive self-concept and how the acceptance of pupils will enhance academic performance. The background of the problem has been outlined and the problem stated.

A brief outline of the method of research has been given. The key concepts have been defined and explained to give a clearer insight into the problem to be investigated.

Chapter two will be based on literature review regarding self-concept and the acceptance of pupils as a pre-requisite to developing a positive self-concept.

In chapter three the researcher will discuss invitational and non-invitational teaching styles and the extent to which the different teaching styles will promote acceptance of pupils.

Chapter four will deal with the construction of the data gathering technique. One questionnaire for grade seven pupils will be prepared.

Chapter five will deal with the discussion of research findings using statistical techniques.

Chapter six will summarise the research. Conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for future research will be made. The research will also outline limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 2

THE ACCEPTANCE OF PUPILS IN RELATION TO BUILDING A POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The acceptance of pupils refers to the manner in which teachers make pupils feel invited to the learning situation. Pupils who are accepted as part of the learning process will feel good about themselves. They enjoy learning and are likely to do well in school. The acceptance of pupils by teachers can therefore be a crucial factor in the development of a positive self-concept. The acceptance of pupils and the self-concept could be seen as being complimentary to each other but the former must precede the latter.

This chapter will therefore focus on how acceptance of pupils can influence the development of a positive self-concept. This will encompass a brief discussion of the self-concept. The role of significant others in the development of a positive self-concept will also be considered.

2.2 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SELF-CONCEPT

2.2.1 The self

"Self" is not definable in words. The self can only be experienced. When the self is understood in words the experience is lost. One's involvement in what one wants

to do and one's experience of the actual doing, are factors in establishing one's identity (Vrey 1979:46).

Having been established, the self needs to be maintained (Hamachek 1965:44). It is the most stable and consistent value in an individual's life. The real self is the central core within each individual and it is the deep source of growth. It can only be developed and understood by the self. It cannot be understood by comparison, evaluation, diagnosis or analysis.

The human person wants to feel that his/her who-ness is respected and his/her individuality is treasured. Too often the person is respected for what he/she represents in intelligence, achievement or social status (Hamachek 1965:41). The person who accepts himself/herself will develop and prosper while the one who does not accept himself/herself will expend his/her energies in worry and defence mechanisms.

For the self to flower, relations must be such that the person is free to affirm, express, actualise and experience his/her own uniqueness. Adults help to make this possible when they show that they care for the child, respect and his/her individuality and accept his/her being without qualification. The child must be given opportunities to show his/her true self (Hamachek 1965:47). The implication here is that the child must receive unfettered acceptance from the adult so that the blossoming of the self receives impetus. It is only in an atmosphere of responsible freedom that the self gets oriented in the right direction.

In the learning situation, the self that grows in the field of complete acceptance will manifest itself in creativity, divergent thinking and venturesomeness. The teacher's teaching style must take cognisance of these aspects of self development.

2.2.2 Self-identity

Self-identity takes place when an individual perceives himself/herself in the way others see him/her and then acts according to those perceptions. Young children form an identity after having identified themselves with others. According to Vrey (1979:44) the child forms an identity when he/she has satisfactory answers to who he/she is. This implies having a self-system which is different from others and helps to give them a picture of what they should be and want to be as they move towards maturity and adulthood.

During the pre-school years, the child has a need for sympathetic support and encouragement in his/her exploration of the world, so that his/her emerging self will be fostered and the necessary conflicts with adult restrictions will not thrust him into doubt and shame (Williams 1969:91). It is important that the child does not see the world as threatening and hostile. Parental acceptance, especially the quality of mothering, is very crucial at this stage of the child's development.

In the primary school the child develops in a number of directions. He develops physically, spiritually, socially, morally and intellectually. The child is learning the basics of any future academic attainment, the nature of society and the social skills necessary for getting on with people. Children in school feel happy when they accomplish tasks assigned to them. (Hayes 1994:83; Williams 1969:93).

According to Erikson (Mwamwenda 1995:351) a person without a properly developed sense of his own identity remains ignorant of what he/she really wants to do in life and is rather unsure of himself/herself. In the primary school identify formation solidifies as pupils operate in a period that is characterised by work, doing, producing, creating and other relative activities that require personal input.

According to Vrey (1979:45) during adolescence self-identity develops and becomes quite stable. The key question of this period is the acquisition of a sense of identity which prepares the child to move successfully into the adult world.

Marcia (in Hayes 1994:786) showed that those pupils who had acquired the stage of identity achievement tended to experience less stress in challenging situations and also had higher and less vulnerable self-esteem than those with an identity problem.

The search for one's identity is a continuous process when pupils are preparing for adulthood. A teacher can provide the youth with leadership by first ensuring that his/her own identity is clearly defined and solidified (Mwamwenda 1995:355). Children spend more time in school than anywhere else. Classrooms should move away from rote learning, passive listening and neatness and emphasis should be placed on open classrooms where different activities and individual projects which absorb a lot of energy, are engaged in. By emphasizing doing instead of listening, the active school will greatly promote the pupils' sense of self-identity (Sprinthall & Sprinthall 1981:184).

Trust is an important aspect of self-identity development. Teachers cannot supervise their pupils all the time and therefore pupils ought to be shown that their trustworthiness and their ability to carry out their work without supervision is valued by their teachers (Mwamwenda 1995:355). By letting pupils produce their own pieces of work, teachers will have gone a long way towards consolidating their own personal self-identity.

A teacher can help to establish a climate in which failure is seen as a natural part of the learning process, a climate in which the teacher accepts the pupils' strengths and weaknesses and makes provision for this in his choice of the teaching style. Teachers and parents should be concerned with the healthy development of the child's self-identity. Pupils who develop a sound self-identity will establish a stronger and more stable self-concept.

2.2.3 Self-esteem

Self-esteem is defined as the way people feel about themselves. It is the integrated sum of self-confidence and self-respect (Hartline 1993:18). Self-esteem is an emotion. It is the degree to which we consciously or unconsciously like and accept ourselves in spite of our weaknesses or frailties. It is how warm, friendly and appreciative we actually feel towards ourselves (Vrey 1979:76). Emotional experience is vital for personal involvement and success. Children who develop a stable emotional disposition from an early age have a greater chance of achieving personal fulfilment and self-actualisation.

Self-esteem is the self-actualisation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself/herself; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself/herself to be capable, significant and worthy (Fahey 1986:9; Lyons 1989:27).

Briggs (Hartline 1993:19) states that high self-esteem is not a noisy conceit. It is a quiet sense of self-respect, a feeling of worth. When you have it deep inside you, you are glad you are you. With high self-esteem you do not waste time and energy impressing others, you already know you have value. Accordingly you go about your business with confidence and energy, you are alert and composed. High self-esteem is the product of the home environment. The high self-esteem household is where members support and encourage each other in what they do. In that type of home, the mother views her husband more positively. The child views the parents as more successful (Burns 1982:72). This leads the child to become happy, confident and trusting. In the school a child from such a home will relate more positively with the teacher, respond more favourably to the teacher's teaching, benefit substantially from the teaching/learning process and achieve better results.

Low self-esteem children are anxious, touchy, self-rejecting, feel unworthy, have difficulty in interpreting relationships and generally show poor social and emotional

adjustment (Burns 1982:250) Conflict between parents was more pronounced in families with low self-esteem subjects. Pupils who suffer from anxiety are unlikely to do well in school since they will be preoccupied with the problems of their unstable homes. Such pupils lack concentration, self-confidence and achievement motivation. They do not feel accepted and may not enjoy being in school.

We may think of self-esteem as the evaluative component of the self-concept, and as a smaller part of the wider field of the self-concept. Within this wider circle, the self-esteem is therefore crucial to academic achievement. Self-esteem is important to motivation. It is the individual who wants to enhance himself/herself who strives to succeed. But the pupil can only succeed with encouragement and support. Pupils who are accepted by the teacher are propelled into activity. The teacher's teaching style must be success-oriented. The teacher's acceptance must lead pupils to view success both a stimulus and a reinforcer (Hartline 1993:24).

Pupils who feel good about themselves and their ability to learn and be successful, are inspired to learn, enjoy school more, stay in school longer and so attend more regularly (Hartline 1993:24). Pupils who display such a disposition are a challenge to the teacher as they demand more from him/her in order to keep going. The overall atmosphere in the classroom in which they operate must pervade acceptance. This becomes the inspiration and the source of strength for the pupil to want to go on. The teacher's teaching must therefore be varied, interesting and challenging.

In virtually every domain of human endeavour there is mounting evidence that a network of supportive relationships facilitates an individual's motivation, self-reliance and relative achievement (Ryan *et al.* 1994:226). A number of motivation theorists have suggested that perceived autonomy, self-esteem and motivation are fostered by the experience of relatedness to socialising others (Ryan *et al.* 1994:227).

According to Maslow (Hjelle & Ziegler 1981:372) an individual has self-esteem needs which can be divided into two categories namely self-respect and self-esteem from others. Self-respect includes such things as the desire for competence, confidence, personal strengths, adequacy, achievement, independence and freedom.

Esteem from others includes prestige, recognition, acceptance, attention, status, fame, reputation and appreciation. Satisfaction of self-esteem needs generates feelings and attitudes of self-confidence, self-worth, strength, capability and the sense of being useful and necessary in the world (Hjelle & Zegler 1981:372). This would mean that pupils with high self-esteem invite acceptance from others which will enable them to operate efficiently in the world and to produce good academic results in school.

Rogers (in Mwamwenda 1995:340) believes that human beings have a need for positive regard such as is reflected in being liked, accepted, loved and respected. He regards this positive regard as a lifelong process. This positive regard is particularly important if it comes from parents, teachers and community leaders and peers. In the school, pupils who are favourably disposed towards their teacher, feel comfortable in his/her presence and enjoy his/her teaching. Such pupils will value academic achievement which will ultimately result in their placing more effort in their work.

It would appear that human beings of all ages are happiest and able to deploy their talents to their best advantage when they experience the acceptance and support of others whom they trust. The feeling that there are others on whom one can rely on leads to greater self-confidence and independence. Pupils feel confident in the knowledge that they can rely on their teachers. Teachers who accept their pupils plan their teaching activities in such a way that they assist in building children's self-esteem. Self-esteem is an important component of self-identity.

2.2.4 Development of the self-concept

The term self-concept is a complex and multi-dimensional construct which is not easy to define. This hypothetical construct can only be inferred from behaviour and because of its abstract nature, it has been referred to by many names (Hartline 1993:19). For purposes of this study the terms self, self-concept, self-esteem, self-identity, self-image, self-worth shall be used to mean the manner in which the pupil sees and evaluates himself/herself.

The self-concept refers to a configuration of convictions concerning oneself and attitudes towards oneself that is dynamic, and of which one is normally aware of or may gradually become aware of. These convictions concerning oneself do not operate in isolation. They are formed and measured in comparison with others (Vrey 1979:76).

The self-concept therefore is the focal point of relationships in the life-world. Evidence exists which supports the view that the development of the self-concept is due to the dynamics of both the interaction within the individual's phenomenal field and that individual's inner experience. The individual evaluates himself through interaction with his physical, social and psychological environment (Van Niekerk 1975:40).

A positive self-concept is largely the outcome of a loving, caring, and accepting education. It enables the child to forget himself and to take risks, to explore and to form relationships (Vrey 1979:76).

Researchers and practitioners have long predicted a positive and well balanced self-concept as a central component of a mentally healthy person (Eitan, Amir & Rich 1992:304). Teachers help a lot in getting pupils to shape their ideas. The teacher's example during teaching must lead pupils to develop positive self-concepts.

Self-concept is always highly meaningful to the person concerned, whether it is based on high or low self-concept (Vrey 1979:47; Eitan *et al.* 1992:36; Hartline 1993:24). Rogers, Snygg and Combs among others, assign the self-concept a central place in their personality theories and suggest that the individual self-concept is a major factor influencing his/her behaviour (Hamachek 1965:424).

Purkey (1970:29) is of the opinion that mental organisation begins seconds after birth. The infant's direct experience through the senses provides the basis of this organisation and adaptation. Coopersmith (in Lyons 1989:42) goes further to explain that during a child's early development years, he/she develops a concept of his/her body through the responses of others to him/her. He puts forward that with more experience and greater ability to think abstractly, the self crystallises.

Purkey (1970:30) states that during the first year the infant learns significantly about the world and himself. This has to do with physical concepts (Hurlock 1968:62). The infant begins to discriminate between "me" and "not me". He/she begins to differentiate between his body and the outside world. A sense of worth as a human being comes into existence.

Papalia and Olds (1990:459) state that the self grows slowly. Its starting point is self-awareness which begins with infancy. The child gradually realizes that he/she is a being separate from other people and things, with the ability to reflect on himself and his actions. At eighteen months, the child reaches the stage of self-recognition by demonstrating the ability to recognise himself in a mirror.

The next step (Papalia and Olds 1990:460) is self-definition. At this stage, around age three, the child thinks of himself mostly in terms of the things around him. He/she identifies environmental characteristics that he/she considers important in order to describe himself like his beautiful home or his activities in the pre-school.

Levy (in Lyons 1989:43) talks of the importance of language development in shaping the self-concept. The use of the pronouns "I" "me" and "you" at the age of two years is an indication that the self has been differentiated into self as the receiver, and self as the doer. In this manner the sense of individuality crystallises.

Vrey (1979:125) also talks of the importance that language plays in the life of the child. He regards language as the basic condition for all human development. He expresses the view that our insight into the child's cognitive, emotional and volitional life depends very much upon his/her ability to understand and use language. Early childhood is an important period in the development of language and the self-concept.

Hurlock (1968:24) states that the child learns to think and feel about himself as he/she is defined by significant others. By the time the child is two to three years old, he/she has acquired language at an astounding rate and can communicate fairly well in his/her social interactions. He/she uses language to identify himself and the ideas which can be associated with him. The child wants to socialize in order to demonstrate his/her desire to be accepted and please the parents on the one hand and to avoid punishment on the other.

By four years identification becomes a major socialising factor. During this stage the child wants to be like someone he/she loves and respects. This is an important process in the development of the self-concept (Visser *et al.* 1991:82).

Around six or seven years, the child begins to define himself/herself in psychological terms. He/she now develops a concept of his/her real self and also of who he/she would like to be (the ideal self). By the time the child achieves this growth in self-understanding, the child has started on the road to independence and his/her behaviour is less regulated by his/her parents and more by himself/herself. The child has learnt to control himself/herself in such a way as to place himself/herself in the position of "a good child".

The basis of the self-concept is laid in the home. A solid self-concept is developed in the parental household where there is consistency, continuity, love, security and trust. Children must feel at home in their own home. They must experience acceptance and encouragement. Warmly encouraging parents can guide and teach their children to be proud of their newly developing autonomy (Rathus 1988:51). Children whose early experiences were impaired have been known to develop negative and sometimes destructive self-concepts.

According to Erikson (Rathus 1988:50) early experiences exert a continued influence on future development. With proper parental support during the early years, most children resolve early life crises productively. Successful resolution of each crisis bolsters their self-concept.

In order to assist pupils in the development of a stable self-concept teachers should understand the types of conflicts which pupils experience during the different developmental periods. Pupils in the early grades need support and acceptance as they deal with the crises of early childhood, and attempt new tasks and new challenges in their environments.

During the primary school years (Hayes 1994:90) the teacher should help the pupils to experience a sense of industry by setting tasks that the pupils can complete successfully. The teacher should play down comparisons and encourage cooperation and self-competition to limit the development of feelings of inadequacy. A sense of industry brings with it the feeling of accomplishment which nourishes the self-concept.

Many young adolescents are faced with the responsibility of establishing who they are and the role they are to play in their respective societies. Failure to find answers to these questions leads to conflict, indecisiveness, anxiety and loneliness (Mwamwenda 1995:353).

2.3 THE ROLE OF SIGNIFICANT OTHERS IN ACCEPTANCE OF PUPILS

2.3.1 The family

The family unit provides all the initial indications to the child as to whether he/she is loved or not, accepted or not, a success or a failure, because until the school days the family is virtually his/her only place of learning.

The home in which parents handle their infant, satisfying or failing to satisfy his/her need for food, love, comfort and security, will impact on the child for the rest of its life. The child begins to feel that the world is either benign and to be trusted, or hostile and not be trusted (Burns 1982:68). Parents must realize the importance of being their child's first teacher (Hingsburger 1988:84). Besides providing the initial experiences, parents will teach more than any other teacher who follows. During these early learning times the child begins to form a conception of himself as a learner.

Parents who provide an interesting and stimulating environment, who talk frequently to their children, give them some initiative, and who do a great deal of indirect teaching by asking them questions, and allowing them to express their perceptions and ideas, positively influence the development of their sense of competency (Sprinthall & Sprinthall 1981:178). A sense of competency does not develop in a day, it comes as a result of practice, support and acceptance.

As the child grows older, his/her relations with family members and objects and his/her identification with parents and others have resulted in fairly well defined self-identity (Very 1979:76). Acceptance by the family and playmates brings self-acceptance. Self-acceptance brings self-esteem which is a requirement for scholastic achievement.

Children with high self-esteem may have characteristics that encourage their parents to be loving, firm and democratic. Children who are self-confident, co-operative and competent are easy to bring up. This would point to the bi-directionality of influence between parents and children (Papalia and Olds 1990:462). This would mean that while parents' treatment of children affect the children's feelings about themselves the children's demeanour and orientation also influences the parents' disposition towards their children.

Developing the self-concept during the primary school years is an almost superhuman task (Vrey 1979:42). The unfolding spectrum of relations during the primary school years is something that the child has to learn to contend with. Because the relationship between the parent and child is based on love, the quality of this relationship will always be significant in the child's involvement with others. Academic performance is enhanced by the quality of relationships that the child is to establish. The richer the quality of these relationships the better the performance.

Without overprotecting the child, the parent must show pedagogical love based on knowledge, care, respect and responsibility (Vrey 1979:94). The parent must allow the child to achieve emancipation without cutting family links. The child will know that at home he/she is accepted for who he/she is. In this situation the child will develop definite ideas about himself and so ensure the unfolding of his/her own self-concept as a result of this feeling of acceptance.

Scott (in Burns 1982:69) report that teenagers coming from homes where there was acceptance, mutual confidence and compatibility between parents and children, were better adjusted and more independent, and thought more positively about themselves. Those coming from discordant homes were less well adjusted. Pupils who are well adjusted are better able to deal with challenging tasks in the school. The child's dependence on his/her parents and his/her affection for them has led to many psychologists believing that parents have a unique opportunity to introduce

the child to education normatively. This will influence his/her general perception of himself/herself, his/her self-acceptance and the behaviour to which he/she should aspire (Burns 1982:69).

Research studies suggest that hostility on the part of parents tends to produce counter-hostility and aggression either in their children's feelings or in their behaviour (Very 1979:97). One parent may be both hostile and indulgent while another parent may be continuously restrictive. Both child-rearing patterns evoke aggression. Aggressive pupils lack concentration resulting in poor scholastic performance. Coopersmith (in Burns 1982:75) is of the opinion that strictness rather than permissiveness is the ideal child-rearing pattern. He posits that strict parents who state educational rules clearly and who enforce them supply children with answers that eliminate uncertainty, doubt and anxiety. This would imply that unequivocal educational boundaries are advantageous to self-realisation. Educational boundaries imply discipline. A disciplined pupil is likely to do well in school.

In Coopersmith's study (Burns 1982:75) six times as many mothers in the high self-esteem group as in other groups believed that strictness had beneficial consequences for the child. They singled out discipline as the most important variable in the upbringing of the child. Nine out of ten of these mothers carefully and consistently enforced established rules. Only six out of ten medium and low condition mothers were enthusiastic.

The freedom to explore the environment in an unrestricted and unguided way coupled with consistent permissiveness, appears to engender anxiety and doubts about self-worth, low expectations of success and an inability to develop sound social relations founded on mutual respect (Burns 1982:76). Children need a base to fall back on even if they may be allowed to venture into the environment from time to time. Exploration of the environment develops the children's creativity and the spirit of inquiry. This can only happen if the parents give their children the freedom to do so.

The development of the child's self-concept and self-acceptance is mainly a result of parental treatment in one of the following ways:

- Permissive - restrictiveness. Between restrictive control over many aspects of their children's lives and complete freedom. Many parents strike a balance between them.
- Interest - indifference. Most parents are interested in their children in one way or the other. Lack of interest in one's own child has devastating consequences for the child. It is better to criticise a bit than to ignore.
- Warmth - hostility. Parental affection for children is tinged with a certain degree of a mixture of hostility and rejection (Burns 1982:100).

Authoritarian child-rearing practices inhibit the development of the child's self-esteem, leading to projection and the displacement of feelings of self-worth. The responsible parents must therefore be wary of the demands of educative teaching. Parents who show an interest in their children's education motivate their children to want to learn and achieve success.

Research on child rearing clearly indicates that parents who are harsh, inconsistent and do not show love for the child are most likely to bring up children who find it difficult to develop positive self-attitudes and adequate personal relationships (Burns 1982:97). Such children are most likely to be unable to function in the school environment resulting in low or poor scholastic performance.

The wholesome development of the child depends to a large extent on the parent-child relationship (Vrey 1979:99). The parent who supports the child by assisting in homework and providing learning materials supplies the child with opportunities that will develop his/her cognitive abilities. Such support and encouragement will invite the child to participate more fully and help him to develop a more realistic perspective on his/her experience in the school.

If parents are in the habit of quarrelling and exhibiting friction and animosity to each other for their children to see, the latter will become insecure and develop a negative self-concept. Such a self-concept may underlie much of the children's poor scholastic achievement and could contribute to anti-social behaviour (Visser *et al.* 1991:105). Children who view their parents as competent are likely to associate themselves more with success than failure.

The quality of mothering is of particular importance for the academic success of children. School-age children of employed mothers seem to have two advantages over children of home makers, they tend to live in more structured homes, with clear cut rules, giving them more household responsibilities and they are encouraged to be more independent. This encouragement helps them to achieve more in school and to have higher self-esteem (Papalia & Olds 1990:478). Children accept rules if they realize that they are for their own benefit.

Even poor unemployed parents can support their children by giving them sympathy, warmth and encouragement. Poverty may not be the source of problems in bringing up children (Visser *et al.* 1991:104) but the amount of care that the parent demonstrates may play a significant role. That is why people from poor rural backgrounds have become doctors, engineers, etcetera.

The family is the anchor of the child. It is within the family that children can be what they are in the knowledge that they are accepted. Material and psychological support is essential for the child to perform well at school. At school the child will come into contact with peers. Pro-school peers will have a positive influence towards the academic performance of the child while anti-school peers will influence performance negatively.

2.3.2 Peers

Children of the same age-group influence each other quite significantly for better or for worse. When children start school they meet age mates from different backgrounds. They are in school for the common purpose of learning. As they start school these children have pictures in their minds and that they can become successful learners. If these pictures are erased for whatever reason, they are very difficult to put back. As educators teachers must help keep these pictures in the minds of the children (Hartline 1993:8).

The way to keep these pictures in the minds of the children is to ensure that teacher-pupil relations as well as pupil-pupil relations are developed and maintained. School should be a happy place. A classroom should be beautifully and colourfully decorated. It must invite children to the learning situation. School should be a place where the child feels successful and is accepted. It should be a place where children are happy together, where friendships develop and where skills of interpersonal relationships are learnt (Hartline 1993:4).

At school the child will soon notice other children and will want to be noticed by them as well. He/she cherishes the company of his/her playmates and evaluates his/her achievement against theirs. These relationships with peers grow more and more intense until in adolescence they will become stronger than the relationships with parents (Vrey 1979:24).

The polarisation effect of relationships with peers is such that the child is constantly involved in dynamic relations of acceptance or rejection, attraction or repulsion, avoidance or being acknowledged, being sought out or not (Very 1979:24). Self-knowledge by the child will lead to the elimination of those factors that militate against the establishment of positive relationships. Positive polarisation will result in conformity of attitudes, behaviour, speech, dress, acceptance, cooperation trust and admiration. The quality of positive polarisation which is embedded in peer

relations is crucial for the child's emancipation, self-concept development and academic achievement.

During the primary school years what seems to be clear across all cultures is that a large component of self-esteem is contributed by the self's perception of how others treat or value him/her and also that the older the child grows the relatively more important do peer relationships become in contrast with adult relationships (Siann & Ugwuebu 1980:85).

In the school the more confident of himself the child feels the more relaxed he/she will be in peer relationships and the more likely he/she will be liked and the more likely he/she will succeed in class. A child who is less sure of his/her self-worth will be more reliant on feedback from others. This may lead him to experience a less effective social life resulting in unsatisfactory performance (Siann & Ugweubu 1980:85).

In our age segregated society, the peer group exerts very strong influence on the pupil whether positive or negative. On the positive side, it is among other children that youngsters develop the self-concept and build self-esteem. They form opinions of themselves as others see them. Children get a conception of how smart, how athletic and how personable they are only when they operate in a large group of their peers (Papalia & Olds 1990:446). Peers with high self-esteem would want to outdo each other in the academic field. This encourages competition among the children resulting in greater effort in the classroom.

In the group children choose values to live by. Their opinions, feelings and attitudes are measured against the background of other children. In some situations, another child can provide comfort a parent cannot. In this way the peer group offers emotional support.

Ideas previously accepted unquestionably from parents can now be safely discarded. The peer group helps children to adjust their needs to those of others. The peer group therefore counterbalances parents' influence, opens new perspectives and makes available to children the freedom to make independent judgements (Papalia & Olds 1990:466). It is in peer group interaction that the child feels most accepted. This peer group interaction would therefore avail the child the opportunity to learn to approach subject matter with a clear and determined mind that is eager to succeed.

On the negative side, children are most susceptible to pressure to conform to peers during the primary school years and because the peer group may hold out some undesirable values of this age of emerging self-regulation, some children may be too weak to resist joining anti-normative peer groups. It is usually in the company of peers that children begin to smoke and drink, shoplift, sneak into movies and perform other anti-social acts (Papalia & Olds 1990:467). Peers who engage in anti-social acts usually degenerate into anti-school children who resort to bullying, truancy, disobedience and noisy and boisterous behaviour. Their scholastic performance is usually generally low.

Notwithstanding the negative points highlighted above, belonging to a peer group is extremely important to the child. In the peer group the child is among equals where he/she is capable of achievement. This achievement is in the form of justifiable self-assertion. Physical, mental and social achievement is made possible (Vrey 1979:105). These attitudes would also spill over into competition for scholastic achievement among the peer group members.

In the peer group the child enjoys emancipation which becomes properly achieved during adolescence. The child learns that the educator is also subject to the same norms as himself/herself (Vrey 1979:105). Through emancipation the child learns to be independent and to develop clear ideas about himself/herself. The child wants to join the peer group in order to obtain status, recognition and security. The age

group provides vital information on sexual matters or the world of politics. This information may be incorrect but is nevertheless important in expanding the child's scope of operation. In this kind of interaction, self-assertion and the development of self-concept takes place within the age group (Vrey 1979:105). Self-assertion is an important ingredient of scholastic exertion. Pupils who are assertive want to prove their self-worth by excelling in school work.

We conclude this section by referring to (Vrey 1979:106) who says that the child moves from the safe basis of the parental home partly to the peer group. In this group the child expects and receives the support and encouragement as well as the conducive atmosphere required for practising the internalisation of norms of independence. A cordial relationship with playmates in the group is absolutely indispensable for the development of a positive self-concept which provides the basis for self-acceptance within the group. This acceptance becomes a good foundation for school life and a bridge to the challenges of scholastic tasks.

2.3.3 Teachers

The teacher assumes greater importance in the life of a child who enters school. The child disobeys the mother because he/she thinks that a teacher knows everything. Parental authority is also questioned because of the child's identification with the peer group. Achievements in sport and displays of manliness are highly valued in the peer group. This contributes significantly to self-evaluation (Vrey 1979:114). Unlike the preschool stage in which the child depends on the unconditional acceptance by the parents the child must now earn the acceptance of his/her peers and the teacher.

The task of the school is to concern itself with the cognitive development of the child (Vrey 1979:114). The teacher must help the child to learn according to the rules of the school and get him to be involved in cognitive activities in which he/she must experience success or failure. In the school the child must face up to the

prospect of not being able to cope. The teacher must help the child to develop a system which allows him/her to cope with learning tasks in an efficient manner. Because the child is in school for a long time, the teacher therefore has a crucial part in the development of his/her self-concept and scholastic ability. A child who fails to develop such a system internalises every mistake and all that which is associated with inefficiency into his/her self-concept leading to learning being burdensome (Vrey 1979:115).

Coopersmith (in Papalia & Olds 1990:46) administered a questionnaire to hundreds of fifth graders of both sexes. He concluded that people base their self-image on four criteria:

- Significance - the degree of love and approval shown by those who are important to them.
- Virtue - attainment of moral and ethical standards.
- Competence - proficiency in the execution of tasks that are considered important.
- Power - the degree of influence on their own and other people's lives.

The teacher must create the right atmosphere in the classroom by accepting and showing concern for pupils so that the criteria for dialogical existence proposed by Coopersmith can be realised.

Markus and Nurius (in Papalia & Olds 1990:460) postulate that for children to achieve self-regulation and social regulation amongst others they must do the following:

- Expand their self-understanding to reflect other people's perceptions, needs and expectations.
- Learn more about how society works, this is about complex relationships, roles and rules.

- Develop behavioural standards that are both personally satisfying and accepted in society. This is sometimes not easy for children as they operate in the world of peer groups and that of adults. The two sometimes have conflicting standards.
- Manage their own behaviour. Children must learn to manage both personal and social standards. The teacher must assist the children to evolve techniques to achieve this. The teacher's teaching style and techniques must aim at developing the child as a whole. The teacher must make the child feel that he is concerned about his/her welfare.

Markus and Nurius (in Papalia & Olds 1990) regard the self-concept as a social phenomenon, the meeting ground of the individual and society. As the child becomes more involved with many people, he/she is also handed more responsibilities. In the classroom the teacher must rotate responsibilities. Pupils who are given responsibility feel important and would usually do their best to impress the teacher.

Erikson (in Visser *et al.* 1991:84; Glazier 1991:220) talks of the sense of industry versus inferiority during the school going period. The child wants to direct his/her energies to constructive and socially acceptable activities. He/she wants to learn to use tools and is introduced to the technology of his/her society. If a child has a sense of accomplishment and receives recognition for what he/she does, he/she experiences a sense of industry. The teacher's role in developing a sense of industry is by acknowledging and encouraging the pupils' effort. His/her emphasis should be on effort rather than results.

The danger of this stage is the potential development of a sense of inferiority or incompetence. A sense of inferiority develops if children discover that their sex, race, religion or socio-economic status rather than their skill and motivation is what determines their worth as persons (Hjelle & Ziegler 1981:124). Teachers should prevent the development of feelings of inferiority in pupils by encouraging participation in the classroom and extra-curriculum activities. The teacher's

teaching style must make room for pupil activity at their level of competence. Making room for the level of competence of pupils is fundamental to pupils' developing a positive self-concept and acceptance.

The school must cater for real learning. Real learning according to phenomenological psychologists involves the total person rather than merely providing him/her with facts to be memorised. True learning experiences enable the pupil to discover his/her own unique or idiosyncratic qualities and to find in himself/herself those features of caring, doing and thinking which make him/her one with all mankind (Burns 1982:264). The development of these qualities in the pupil enable him/her to know himself/herself and to have a positive view of himself/herself that is truly his/hers. Prolonged exposure to an environment of an innovative teacher does have a positive influence on the self-esteem and scholastic achievement of pupils.

Teachers should aim to get pupils to recognise growth on their own part and to praise themselves so that they develop feelings of self-worth. They should show their children that they count. They should encourage them to use their abilities and urge them on when they fail instead of punishing this failure by word or deed. They should take an interest in their day to day progress, share in their pleasure in success (Fontana 1986:29). As teachers we should become aware of the elemental loneliness of each child. Our classrooms at all levels must look more like happy families and secure homes, the kind in which all family members can tell their private stories, knowing that they will be listened to with respect and affection.

Teachers who are effective must accept, understand and appreciate pupils as they are. They should make pupils feel good about themselves and give them opportunities to be creative and venture into the unknown in the full knowledge that they have full support from their teachers. Teachers should accept pupils as human beings first before they become pupils (Ornstein 1993:26). Teachers and parents therefore need to help pupils establish a source for self-esteem by highlighting their strengths, supporting them, discouraging their negative feelings and attitudes and

helping them take control of their lives and live their own lives (Ornstein 1993:27). Yet in the learning situation there is sometimes a tendency to portray the effective teacher as task-oriented and organised while overlooking the friendly, warm, democratic and considerate teacher (Eitan *et al.* 1992:364). Scholastic performance requires effort and concentration, it flowers in a situation of complete acceptance.

The traditional school neglects the creative teacher who is stimulating and imaginative, the dramatic teacher who bubbles with energy and enthusiasm, the philosophical teacher who encourages pupils to play with ideas and concepts and the problem-solving teacher who requires that pupils think out answers to questions (Emmanuel, Zervas & Vagenas 1992:1154). Teachers must move away from traditional teaching and move to child-centred education where the child must know that the teacher loves and considers him/her important and that child's life matters. The child needs a caring teacher who must show love and give security which would be the source of energy to achieve academically (Vrey 1979:77).

Pupils with high self-esteem tend to be better pupils. They are more persistent on academic tasks, speak up more in class and feel freer to express their creativity (Johnson 1993:59). The teacher's teaching style must maintain this momentum of enthusiasm in the pupils by making the classroom a place where all pupils feel they are part of what is going on. This feeling of belonging will drive pupils to want to perform well in school.

Promoting scholastic performance remains one of the major tasks of primary school educators. It is not a simple isolated construct, it involves the interaction of complex variables. Amongst others emotional growth is an important variable in the educational process. Teachers who emphasize the importance of the experience of success, no matter how little, are developing confidence and self-awareness in their pupils (Lyons 1989:40). Pupils who are clearly secure and well adjusted are more prone to view teachers in a positive manner and draw out of them greater relational support. Such pupils are likely to view themselves in the same positive manner (Ryan

et al. 1994:244). Well adjusted pupils can stand the pressure of work that is associated with good scholastic performance.

Young people are more likely to stay in school if they like being there. They are more likely to like being there, if they have success there, if they feel the teacher cares for them and if their parents, teachers and neighbours respect them for their school achievements (Scales 1992:6). According to Burns (1982:203) the most dominant value operating in the educational system is academic achievement. In the classroom the teacher interprets this to pupils. He applies scholastic standards to the pupils' daily efforts and products. The pupils' self-concept becomes permeated with values and standards for scholastic behaviour.

If scholastic performance is to serve as a source of self-esteem, it must first be valued. To acquire this value, the teacher must recognise and affirm the pupils as an achiever who has positive impact on those around him and the environment.

Midgley, Feldman and Eccles (in Ryan *et al.* 1994:231) reported that pupils who moved from classrooms where they experienced higher teacher support to contexts where perceived teacher support was lower showed associated decline in interest and positive attitudes towards learning. Together such findings point to the importance of relationships with teachers in shaping school motivation, adjustment, achievement and self-regard.

Reeder (in Homachek 1965:425) used grade school children and Stevens worked with college students to explore the relationship between self-concept and school achievement. Both of these investigators found that positive feelings about the self are associated with good academic achievement. Research based evidence supports the fact that each pupil's subjective personal evaluation of his/her unique existence specifically relates to the pupil's success in school (Fahey 1986:31).

Teachers need to motivate pupils to reach their full potential. They need to teach the difference between satisfaction and gratification. Satisfaction is defined as coming from within, having successful relationships with self and others and pressing oneself to one's highest potential. Gratification comes from without the self, has temporary lasting value and is not earned (Hartline 1993:16). Pupils who have internalised satisfaction with teacher support are likely to persevere and achieve good results in school.

Teachers also need to feel motivated. The extent to which teachers accept themselves, and their pupils determines the extent to which they can function positively in the role of significant others. Teachers who are comfortable and not defensive can acknowledge their own limitations while accepting those of their pupils. They can be sympathetic and supportive of pupils while at the same time constructively critical of their own performance (Burns 1982:256).

Sympathetic teachers encourage pupils along the way even if they may not be doing so well. Teachers with good attitudes towards their pupils set realistic goals for them. It has been found that children with a negative self-concept have goals that are unrealistically high or unrealistically low. The more positive a child's perception of the teacher's attitude towards him, the more the child is likely to benefit from the teacher's teaching style and the higher will be his/her scholastic performance (Vrey 1979:117).

Teachers who value positive and trusting relationships with their pupils and have high expectations with regard to progress (Rogers 1994:33) and stress the importance of enabling their pupils to experience success, have a good chance of improving their pupils' confidence, self-esteem and scholastic performance (Opie 1995:3). Pupils who are trusted by the teacher would want to repay that trust by trying to prove that they can do well in class. Pupil behaviour is a major outcome of teacher behaviour. The teacher is a necessary though not sufficient condition for purposeful pupil performance. Pupils respond according to the way the teacher

provides situations for learning in which the pupils take the initiative. Yet there are many teachers who are just on the job. Their teaching styles do not elicit involvement from pupils. They become impersonal by demonstrating lack of consideration for those characteristics that make each child a unique individual. On the other hand a personalistic teacher convinces his/her children that he/she is genuinely interested in the way they perform in class. He/she is sensitive to their moods and feelings. He/she remembers details about them including performance (Burns 1982:257). Scholastic performance is therefore a function of the teacher's treatment of pupils with warmth, love and respect.

2.4 CONCLUSION

The acceptance of pupils results in the development of a positive self-concept. The development of the self-concept originates in the home, is carried over into the school and continues into adult life. Parents, teachers and peers help pupils to develop self-esteem and self-identity by accepting them. Pupils who feel accepted are happy and do well in school. Teachers whose teaching styles are oriented towards the acceptance of pupils enhance the scholastic performance of pupils.

We conclude this section by referring to Ornstein (1993:27) who says that teacher research and teacher evaluation should focus on the learner not the content. It should attend to the feelings and attitudes of pupils not just knowledge and skills the learner will seek and acquire. In this way research would contribute to the development of effective teaching styles which cater for the acceptance of pupils leading to a positive self-concept which boosts the pupils' scholastic performance.

CHAPTER 3

TEACHING STYLES AND THE ACCEPTANCE OF PUPILS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The teaching styles adopted by the teacher will reflect his/her attitude towards himself/herself, the subject matter and the pupils he/she teaches. These teaching styles will influence the acceptance of pupils and the development of a positive self-concept that will lead to good scholastic achievement.

Teaching styles are the teacher's means of interacting with pupils during teaching. They say a lot about the teacher's commitment and concern for pupils. Pupils who sense concern in their teacher will feel accepted and will strive to put effort in their scholastic tasks. A positive self-concept will result when pupils feel that they are accepted and loved by the teacher. The teacher should therefore carefully consider which teaching styles will elicit pupil involvement and enthusiasm.

In this chapter the researcher will examine the literature on some teaching styles that could be used by teachers. They will be categorised into those teaching styles that invite pupils to the teaching - learning situation and those that may not.

3.2 THE SCIENCE OF TEACHING

Teaching is a complex act, it is both an art and a science. What works in some situations with some subjects might not work in different settings with different subjects, pupils and schools. Some teachers may break the rules of teaching procedure and methods yet are profoundly successful, others follow the rules and are unsuccessful. Distinguishing between good and poor, or effective and ineffective teachers is so difficult that even experts have trouble defining and measuring

teacher competency (Ornstein 1993:24). Maxime Greene of Columbia University asserts that a good deal of teaching is not subject to empirical enquiry. For Greene good teaching and learning involve values, experiences, insights, imagination and appreciation, the stuff that cannot be easily observed and measured (Ornstein 1993:26).

According to Eisner of Standard University, breaking down the teaching act into dimensions, competencies and criteria that researchers can define and quantify neglects the hard to measure aspects of teaching: the personal, humanistic and playful aspects. To say that excellence in teaching requires measurable behaviour and outcomes is to miss a substantial part of teaching, what educators refer to as artistry, drama, tone and flavour. The kind of teacher behaviour that correlates with measurable outcomes often leads to rote learning, drill and automatic responses (Ornstein 1993:26). Every teacher has a personal learning style. Each teacher therefore brings a unique self to the classroom. The teacher's unique presence can build rapport, cause fear, encourage divergent thinking, inspire academic excellence or develop any number of healthy conditions for his/her pupils (Butler 1984:56).

What emerges from the foregoing is that teaching is a people industry and people especially young people, perform best when they feel wanted and respected. Accordingly teachers have to accept, understand and appreciate pupils on their terms and through their world. When they are cheerful and positive, they set achievement goals and they get fired up with enthusiasm. The teacher must keep these considerations in mind when he/she is preparing his/her teaching.

Teachers who place high priority on humanistic and effective practices, on the personal and the social development of their pupils are often not greatly interested in teaching small pieces of information that can be measured and correlated with specific kinds of teaching behaviour (Ornstein 1993:27, Butler 1984:63).

An equally competent teacher strives to meet academic goals, structures activities carefully and explicitly, covers content thoroughly, does a lot of practice and review, explains concepts and procedures, monitors classroom progress, gives and checks homework regularly and holds pupils accountable.

Such a teacher is the no-nonsense kind of teacher, the one many of us remember from our school days (Ornstein 1993:24). Such teachers have been known to produce very good results and impressive standards of behaviour. The science of teaching is therefore too flexible to be quantified and too variable to be easily tabulated. Teachers should be able to pick and choose the best way to teach from a wide range of research and theory and to discard the kinds of teaching behaviour and styles that do not conflict with their personal styles. At the back of their minds should be the need to create the right academic self-concept which will lead pupils to perform well in class.

3.3 TEACHING STYLES

3.3.1 The essence of a teaching style

According to Weideman (1988:1) teaching refers to the teacher, teaching materials and teaching situations while style refers to the way of doing something. Style can be seen as the mysterious yet recognisable result of successful blending of form with content (Eble 1980:23). It is a set of distinctive behaviours which place mediation demands upon the mind qualities of both the learner and the teacher (Butler 1984:51; Dunn & Dunn 1992:457).

Butler (1984:52) views teaching style as a set of attitudes and actions that open a formal and informal world of learning to pupils as well as a subtle force that influences pupil access to learning and teaching by establishing perimeters around acceptable learning procedures, processes and products. The teaching style used by the teacher has a powerful effect on pupil progress (Bennet 1976:156).

No-one has a pure style of teaching (Butler 1984:74; Bennet 1976:48; Hamachek 1985:311) any more than a pure learning style. As for each style of teaching several factors are pertinent:

- The characteristics of the person's mind.
- The classroom behaviours of such a mind.
- The educational objectives and organisational patterns.
- Teaching aids.
- The bridging techniques, that is the ways teachers help pupils of one style to learn.

Having accepted that teaching style is the way teachers teach, their distinctive mannerisms complemented by their choices of teaching behaviours and strategies (Kellough & Kellough 1996:72), it means every teacher develops a personal style of teaching which he or she feels most comfortable to use.

No research or personal observation has led to the conclusion that there is one best kind of teacher and one best kind of teaching style. No single teaching behaviour is highly correlated with student behaviour (Hamachek 1985:310). These observations justify the need to be acquainted with the teacher's teaching style.

According to Butler (1985:73) a teaching style needs to be identified because of the need to:

- mark the congruency between the teacher's learning and teaching style;
- evaluate the impact of a teacher's style in order to meet the needs of a wide range of pupils;
- find ways to broaden a teacher's style in order to meet the needs of a wide range of pupils; and
- determine when a teacher is incapable of meeting the stylistic needs of another style of the pupil.

A particular teaching style needs to be clearly identifiable because as teacher's work, their individual style, professional competence, view of life, degree of courtesy and ethics are modeled day after day for children who tend to imitate their behaviours (Louisell & Descamps 1992:212; Kellough & Kellough 1996:72). Such teachers use approaches that interest the pupils, that are neither too easy or too difficult, that match the pupils' learning styles and that are relevant to the pupils' lives. In this way the scholastic performance of the pupils will be assured. An educative teaching style must assist the pupils to view themselves positively as learners.

3.3.2 Choosing a teaching style

Having looked at the need to identify a teaching style, consideration must now be given to the basis of the choice of a teaching style. Teachers need to carefully consider the criteria for choosing a teaching style in view of the fact that the teacher's teaching style influences the acceptance of pupils and their development of a positive self-concept which promotes the scholastic performance of the pupils.

Louissell and Descamps (1992:276) proposes the following factors as the criteria for choosing a teaching style:

- The existing professional knowledge of the teacher.
- The educational philosophy of the school to which the teacher is assigned.
- The pupils whom the teacher is teaching.
- The personality type of the teacher.

Putting all the above factors into consideration would mean that an effective teaching style is flexible and makes adjustments according to particular contexts. Skillful teaching is therefore the ability to move deliberately from style to style as the objectives change from one teaching episode to another (Muka & Ashworth 1990:3).

In all situations the teacher must strive to make his/her teaching inviting. This can be done by suiting the situation in which the teacher finds the pupils in, to accept that kind of situation and try to make the most of it.

3.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF INVITATIONAL TEACHING

Teachers are instrumental in creating the climate in their own classrooms. Their teaching affects this climate. Some approaches to teaching view teachers as motivators, researchers, counselors or guides whereas a humanistic approach to teaching defines the teacher as inviter.

Pupils who feel invited to the teaching-situation have positive ideas about themselves which lead to good academic performance in school. Pupils spend a greater part of their day at school and so, other than the home, the school probably exerts the single greatest influence on how children see themselves as learners and their abilities. The teacher's task is therefore to behave in ways that invite positive emotional reactions in children regarding themselves and their abilities (Fahey 1986:31).

Pupils who feel that they are regarded as worthwhile human beings develop positive self-concepts. They are better able to perform required work, are more eager to learn, are more confident, more ambitious and exhibit more mature behaviour. They indicate a sense of belonging and need fewer favourable comments from other people (Hartline 1993:25). The teacher's teaching style must develop intrinsic motivation which will drive pupils to want to achieve better results at school.

A number of characteristics and attitudes of what make up invitational teaching will be considered.

3.4.1 Positiveness

In a positive classroom climate, the teacher is committed to helping pupils learn basic skills to develop the self-concept, creativity and citizenship values. When the teacher is friendly, the pupils like the teacher and the teacher like the pupils. Learning is anticipated enthusiastically and pupils receive abundant assistance. The degree of pupil enjoyment is high and pupil involvement in learning activities is evident (Louisell & Descamps 1992:199).

3.4.2 Realness

Realness is regarded by Rogers (in Cooper 1990:266) as the most important attitude the teacher can display in facilitating learning. By being real the teacher expresses himself/herself as the person he/she really is. It is an expression of open heartedness. The teacher is aware of his or her feelings. Sincere expressions of enthusiasm or boredom are typical examples of realness. Such a spontaneous expression of the self by the teacher will allow pupils to experience genuine acceptance that will spill over into scholastic achievement (Cooper 1990:267; Locke & Ciechalski 1995:71).

3.4.3 Empathic listening

This is an expression of the teachers ability to understand the pupil from the pupil's point of view. It is a sensitive awareness of the pupils' feelings and it is non-evaluative and non-judgmental. Expressions of empathy are few and far between in classrooms. For them to occur the teacher must structure his/her teaching activities in such a way that they cater for the pupil's thoughts and feelings. The teacher must listen to their problems in order to gain their acceptance and cooperation. This will assist pupils to learn better and to develop positive ideas about themselves (Mathunyane 1996:36; Peterson 1992:177).

3.4.4 Communication and love

Ginott (in Cooper 1990:267) has posited that effective communication should direct the teacher to talk to the situation and not the personality and character of the pupil. He summarises his ideas in the following manner:

- Address the pupil's situation, do not judge his or her character and personality because this can be demeaning.
- Describe the situation, express feelings about the situation and clarify expectations concerning the situation.
- Express authentic and genuine feelings that promote pupil understanding.
- Avoid questions and comments that are likely to incite resentment and invite resistance.
- Avoid the use of sarcasm because this may diminish pupils' self-worth.

The essence of Ginott's message is one of love and consideration for the child. The child must be treated with sensitivity and concern in order to make him/her part of the teaching-learning process. Reciprocal love will invoke academic effort by the pupil.

3.4.5 Democratic atmosphere

A democratic classroom atmosphere is characterised by frank and regular discussion. This dispensation results in three very beneficial outcomes:

- The teacher and the pupils have an opportunity to express themselves in a way that is sure to be heard.
- The teacher and the pupils have an opportunity to get to know and understand each other.
- The teacher and the pupils are provided with an opportunity to help one another (Cooper 1990:270; Mathunyane 1996:93).

A democratic atmosphere during the teaching-learning process allows the practice of freedom with responsibility. The exercise of accountability will help pupils to develop a balanced self-concept. This will make them feel responsible for their academic achievement (Hayes 1996:55).

3.4.6 Inclusion

The single most important feature of being included in the teaching-learning process is the power of being included. It allows the stigma caused by being excluded from learning episodes to be reduced. Pupils who are excluded feel a sense of rejection, embarrassment and stigma. Situations designed for inclusion evoke the opposite feelings, they evoke a sense of belonging, a sense of achievement and a sense of being wanted (Muska & Ashworth 1990:152).

Pupils who have been excluded before react quite positively to being included for the first time. This would be the first time they have been included in learning activities over long periods of time. Being included would give them an opportunity to participate and succeed in a task and see a chance for continuous progress and development. Inclusion invokes several aspects of the emotional domain. It has a great deal to do with building rapport between the teacher and the pupils, the acceptance of pupils and the pupils' acceptance of the teacher's teaching style. (Muska & Ashworth 1990:153).

When pupils who have not been highly regarded before now receive recognition they develop a self-concept which they would want to maintain and prove by achieving academically.

3.4.7 Promoting pupil involvement

Teachers may be very knowledgeable about subject matter and teaching techniques, but if they are not armed with the most appropriate strategies for getting pupils

involved in learning activities, their efforts will go to waste (Louisell & Descamps 1992:259). Many times the teacher may notice pupils who are talented but lack motivation. They find school work boring and may even drop out of school. This may lead to disciplinary problems in the school or lack of seriousness in the whole teaching-learning situation. This kind of situation is obtained in a classroom where the teacher is uncaring about the total development of his/her pupils as self-fulfilled and self-actualised individuals.

Stipek and Hunter (in Louisell & Descamps 1992:260) list the ways through which teachers can increase pupil involvement in learning, namely:

- make the learning task challenging;
- de-emphasise testing and grades;
- provide assistance without overprotecting;
- shift from extrinsic motivation to intrinsic rewards;
- have high expectations for each of the pupils;
- provide knowledge of results;
- promote success for all class members;
- increase in pupils, the perception that they control the learning situation; and
- change the classroom goal-reward structure.

Stipek and Hunter's teaching strategies are the means by which the caring teacher can teach pupils in order to make learning meaningful and interesting. They are carefully designed to make the pupils feel a part of what is going on in the classroom. It makes them enjoy being there. The teacher's teaching strategies must include discussion, role-playing, debates, dialogue etc. This heightens acceptance and self-concept development and the drive to achieve academically.

Preparing for pupil involvement requires effort, planning and initiative on the part of the teacher. Teachers who are enthusiastic and favourably disposed to their work and pupils ensure the success and achievement of their pupils.

3.4.8 Making the learning task challenging

Pupils should be lead towards the development of mastery and skill. Learning tasks must not be made too difficult or too easy. Tasks that are too difficult will lead to learned helplessness while those that are too easy may lead to boredom and listlessness. Learning tasks need to be challenging, unpredictable, varied and captivating pupil interest (Louisell & Descamps 1992:261). Pupils like challenges since overcoming these challenges will make them feel that they are worth something. They develop heightened ideas about themselves that drive them to want to face and solve challenging tasks.

3.4.9 Shifting from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation

Motivation is of two types, intrinsic and extrinsic. It is a crucial phenomenon for the success of learning, and those without it just drift through the teaching-learning process without the energy and driving force that makes learning a success.

Rewards and punishments are the most commonly used types of extrinsic motivation (Farrant 1980:115). Offering extrinsic rewards appears to have temporary effect by increasing the time and effort spent on a task for as long as the reward is being offered, but upon withdrawal of rewards, pupils appear to loose interest (Louisell & Descamps 1992:261).

Intrinsic motivation goes deep down into the pupils' personality. Pupils tackle a task because it interests them, it makes them happy, they derive satisfaction from it, and they think it is useful (Farrant 1980:116).

Pupils who are self-motivated accept themselves and others. They listen to the way the teacher is teaching. They feel free to think and act spontaneously. They have a sense of ability to be creative. They enjoy work which involves the achievement of goals (Gibson 1980:210).

Intrinsic motivation is not initially realised. It takes encouragement, sympathy and assistance on the part of the teacher and effort and perseverance on the part of the pupil. Pupils who have internalised intrinsic motivation will feel obliged to aim for success and believe in achievement for its own sake.

3.4.10 Promoting success for all learners

Effective teachers strive to promote success for all the pupils in their classrooms regardless of ability. Pupils perform differently so that the teacher who is aware of all these differences should cater for individual differences by grading tasks or appreciating the effort of the not so bright performers. Other than individualising tasks, the teacher should set attainable performance standards, utilize mastery learning and co-operative learning strategies so as to promote group pride and collective success (Louisell & Descamps 1992:263). Pupils who develop a strong collective self-concept want to pull together, to achieve success and help each other along. Such pupils engage in healthy competition.

3.4.11 Assisting pupils without overprotection

When pupils know that the teacher will rescue them, they lack effort and persistence. Pupils feel more proud when they have completed tasks themselves than when a greater part of the job has been done for them (Louisell & Descamps 1992:263). When a teacher protects a child against taking his/her own responsibility, then he/she is overprotective (Visser *et al.* 1991:157).

Overprotection means to protect a child more than is good for him. This retards his/her movement towards independent task completion and responsible adulthood. The teacher must let the child struggle a bit, try to find a solution to a problem on his/her own and give assistance when necessary. Pupils who achieve in these circumstances will feel proud and responsible for their own success.

3.4.12 Inviting perception of pupil control of the learning situation

Wang (in Lousell & Descamps 1992:265) found that elementary pupils completed more tasks when they have control over those tasks. Pupils feel responsible when they are given opportunities to choose learning tasks and the level of difficulty of such tasks. This also goes for the amount of detail to be covered. When pupils set targets for themselves, they are usually motivated to learn. Pupils who are placed in such a situation will feel that the teacher regards them as important. Assigning responsibility to pupils to set their task targets would be an acknowledgement of the worthiness of such pupils. Such pupils accept the teaching-learning situation, they want to grow from the experience and aim to achieve beyond just that particular learning. Any externally imposed learning tasks invoke lethargy and disinterest. Being in control, even if it is only an appearance, enhances the pupils' self-actualisation.

3.4.13 Fostering a sense of individual importance

When the teacher accepts the pupil he/she behaves in a manner which makes the pupil feel trusted and respected and in a manner that enhances his/her self-worth (Cooper 1990:267). Young pupils need to feel that they are important to the teacher regardless of their abilities, looks, ethnicity, race or socio-economic status. They need to be convinced that the teacher is committed to their growth and success (Louisell & Descamps 1992:265).

The teacher should accept pupils as they come to the classroom and should decide on the best plan to make them succeed as individuals. The teacher should concentrate on effort rather than ability and in that manner the teacher will elicit more effort from the pupils. He/she should extend the same hand of love to those who do well as well as those who do not do so well.

The teacher makes pupils feel accepted by finding time to attend to individual problems, by listening attentively to what they have to say and so place himself/herself in a better position to understand their circumstances (Louisell & Descamps 1992:203). The teacher must light the torch of hope in his/her pupils so that success will come through being competent in the classroom. There must be constant feedback using well calculated descriptive language. The teacher must help pupils develop a sense of pride in their work regardless of its quality. But most importantly the teacher must focus on perseverance and individual effort.

3.4.14 Fostering a sense of belonging

As members of a classroom group, pupils are interdependent. Pupils depend on themselves and the teacher for emotional support. Hence they need to feel that they belong to a group. The teacher is responsible for bringing about this sense of belonging in the classroom, the entire body of pupils and the staff (Louisell & Descamps 1992:203).

The teacher will help pupils feel that they belong as members through instructional activities which engage pupils in group interaction such as projects, tutorials and co-operative learning experiences which help pupils to know each other. He/she must model friendliness and treat all pupils with love and acceptance, without having special friends or enemies, display the work of pupils and he/she must rotate important classroom duties so that all pupils participate (Louisell & Descamps 1992:203).

3.5 EXAMPLES OF INVITATIONAL TEACHING STYLES

3.5.1 The guided discovery style

The essence of the guided discovery style is a particular teacher-pupil relationship in which the teacher's sequence of questions brings about a corresponding set of

responses by the learner (Muska & Ashworth 1990:193). It involves cognitive intimacy with the teacher and the discovered subject matter. There is a reduction of fear especially of failure. The sense of success induces security and kindles the motivation to continue.

When guided discovery is used in universal areas such as Maths, Physics, Chemistry and anatomy, there is no problem, students discover universal truths about the sciences (Muska & Ashworth 1990:213). But one has to be cautious when using this style in such areas as social studies, religions, sex education, political science and the like. Portions of these areas are often variable, sensitive and dependent upon personal opinion and cultural mores. Certain religions do not permit the teaching of sex education to young children in any form and others do not allow women to get involved in politics. There is a limit to which primary school children may be allowed to discover things.

According to Bruner (Kellough & Kellough 1996:67-8) teaching and learning should be conducted in such a manner that children are given the opportunity to discover concepts for themselves. Bruner cites four major benefits that can be derived from discovery learning:

- There is an increase in intellectual potency, the child learns how to learn and develop skills to apply to this newfound knowledge to new situations.
- There is a shift from extrinsic rewards. The child moves away from seeking to satisfy others to self-rewarding satisfaction.
- There is an opportunity to learn in which a person is educated to find things out independently.
- There is an aid to memory processing. Knowledge that is obtained through discovery is easier remembered and recalled when needed.

3.5.2 The project style

The project style provides an opportunity for the pupil to be involved in self-activity, as well as a chance to solve problems. It offers an actual and real attempt to marry theory and practice, to direct pupil interest in the actual life situations of school subject matter (Duminy & Sohng 1980:89). It is based on the purposeful activities of children and it must flow from the children's natural interest in a specific task or subject which can become a problem in life.

A project is undertaken with the aim of making the child think by making him face problems he/she will come across in real life. As the child tries to find a solution, he/she considers many possibilities, selects and evaluates information. This is an exercise in thinking which aids the child's development (Steyn, Badenhorst & Yale 1981:35).

The project style is used in an integrated form in schools and the subjects are combined. Thus workshops, laboratories, libraries, cultivated fields, gardens and kitchens replace ordinary classrooms. The teacher lives and works with the pupils who work on the projects as groups and not as individuals. This radical form of the project style has been applied in the United States (Steyn *et al.* 1981:35; Duminy & Sohng 1980:89).

The project style gives pupils the opportunity to work closely together. This fosters co-operation and responsibility towards each other. The pupils realize that success depends on interdependence in the group (Steyn *et al.* 1981:35). It is a very good style for group work. It encourages the development of leadership qualities as pupils learn to organise themselves.

The project style of teaching grasps and holds the interest of the pupils as they work with real life problems, it provides the pupils with a chance to learn how to

learn and it caters for individual differences, but it is also an important variable in the process of socialisation (Duminy & Sohng 1981:90).

The project style therefore allows for considerable freedom of activity and movement. The strict disciplinary measures of the traditional school cannot apply during the operation of this style. This means the teacher should be aware of what the children are doing at any one time to ensure that time is profitably used.

3.5.3 The practice style

The practice style is the teaching style most commonly used in schools. About 80% of all episodes in all subject areas use one form or another of this type (Muska & Ashworth 1990:79). The sequence of presenting materials, assigning pupils to related factual tasks, providing performance time and offering feedback about performance tasks represents a four step model that is universally used in schools.

The practice style is designed for both individual and private practice; communication among or between pupils must be kept to a minimum. When a pupil talks to a peer, he/she interferes with the other person's decisions. The practice style must not be perceived as a no-talking style, but as a style that provides for private practice time.

In the initial introduction of the practice style to a class (Muska & Ashworth 1990:81), it is imperative to explain the roles of the pupils and the teacher to the learners. This explanation sets the expectations for everyone's behaviour and makes it possible to hold the teacher and the pupil accountable for behaviours that are consistent with their respective roles. These behaviours do not develop automatically, they need to be understood and practised.

3.5.4 The question and answer style

There are three major reasons for teachers to ask questions in the classroom:

- to promote pupil thinking;
- to verify pupil understanding;
- to foster pupil participation;

Questions should not be asked to embarrass pupils whose behaviour needs to be changed (Louisell & Descamps 1992:69). It is extremely important that teachers avoid ineffective questioning. Questions play a crucial role in the educational process and teachers need to improve questioning strategies.

According to Cooper (1990:113) to question well is to teach well. It is in the skilful use of the question, more than anything else, where the fine art of teaching lies; for in it we have the guide to clear and vivid ideas, the quick spur to imagination, the stimulus to thought and the incentive to action.

To John Dewey thinking itself is questioning. Through questioning, the teacher and the pupils are equally active partners in the teaching learning situation. It is called the Socratic method because it was probably used in its most perfect form by the Greek philosopher, Socrates. To Socrates teaching meant the drawing out systematically of knowledge and facts already dormant in the child (Duminy & Sohng 1980:67; Steyn *et al.* 1981:38).

Any method of teaching implies a certain amount of questioning by the teacher with the pupils answering. The precise level of knowledge of the pupils must be determined by the teacher before questioning. This questioning must be logically constructed so that new information is built on previous knowledge (Steyn *et al.* 1981:38).

Based on Bloom's taxonomy (Cooper 1990:115) questions can be categorised into knowledge questions, comprehension questions, application questions, analysis questions, synthesis questions and evaluation questions. The taxonomy is arranged on a sliding scale, knowledge questions being the simplest and evaluation questions demanding greater thought and scrutiny. This calls for careful planning on the part of the teacher so as to ensure that the question achieves the desired outcome especially in the primary school.

Without an understanding of the proper way to ask questions, it is difficult for the teacher to learn other styles of teaching (Luisell & Descamps 1992:69). As a teaching style, the question and answer style requires flexibility, preparation and simplicity on the part of the teacher.

3.6 NON-INVITATIONAL TEACHING

Competence in the classroom is likely to depend on the quality of the teacher-pupil interaction as determined by the teaching style chosen by the teacher. The effect of the teacher's teaching style has been found to be statistically and educationally significant in all areas of teaching (Bennet 1976:152).

When the teacher's teaching style does not involve enthusiasm for learning, pupils do not feel invited to the teaching-learning situation.

Non-invitational teaching is characterised by authoritarianism, intimidation and permissiveness. The general atmosphere in the classroom would not be amenable to educative teaching.

3.6.1 Authoritarianism

The approach views classroom teaching as centred around controlling pupil behaviour. The role of the teacher is to organise and maintain discipline in the classroom. The

approach places the teacher in the role of establishing and maintaining order in the classroom through the use of controlling strategies. The teacher assumes the role of controlling pupil behaviour because the teacher knows best (Cooper 1990:249).

Authoritarian strategies may not be viewed as intimidating as they purport to act in the best interests of the child. Canter and Canter (in Cooper 1990:248) argue that the teacher has the right to establish clear expectations, limits and consequences, insist on acceptable behaviour from his/her pupils and follow through with the correct disciplinary measures when necessary. The authoritarian approach is characterised by five strategies that the teacher might wish to use in his/her managerial duties:

- Establishing and enforcing rules.
- Issuing commands, directives, orders, utilising mild desists.
- Utilising proximity and control.
- Utilising isolation and exclusion.

This kind of teaching may not always invite pupils to the teaching-learning situation on account of the limited amount of freedom placed at the disposal of the pupil. The teacher tends to be the focus of attention rather than the pupils. This may have a negative effect on the development of the self-concept because the approach does not place high value on the acceptance of pupils. Slow learners and less courageous pupils might not do well in this kind of situation.

3.6.2 Intimidation

The intimidation approach largely does not invite pupils to the learning situation. Unlike the authoritarian approach which acts in the interests of the pupils, the intimidation approach emphasises the use of intimidating teacher behaviours and harsh forms of punishment such as sarcasm, ridicule, coercion, threats, force disapproval, etcetera (Cooper 1990:251). The role of the teacher is to ensure that

pupils behave according to his/her dictates and pupils behave accordingly, out of fear.

Although widely used, intimidation approaches have been found to be largely ineffective. Their use usually results in temporary solutions followed by even greater problems (Cooper 1990:251), the most serious of which are pupil hostility and destruction of teacher-pupil interpersonal relationships. In this situation pupils would not view the learning situation with much positiveness. Hostile pupils develop wounded self-concepts and do not develop intrinsic motivation which is necessary for lasting success. The degree of acceptance is very low and the level of hostility is high. Academic achievement is likely to be fickle.

3.6.3 Permissiveness

This approach stresses the need to maximise pupil freedom. Pupils would be allowed to do whatever they want whenever they want. This approach is not compatible with effective teaching. It obviously doesn't invite pupils to the learning situation. The teacher is expected to interfere as little as possible and is instead expected to encourage pupils to express themselves as freely as possible in order to realise their potential (Cooper 1990:252; Farrant 1980:75).

The permissive approach regards the pupil as naturally good and misbehaviour as a result of adverse environmental factors. Thus, the approach to child training in the permissiveness school is to tackle the environment rather than the child in the belief that if the environment is good, the child would be good (Farrant 1980:92).

Pupils learning under these circumstances are likely to develop false ideas about themselves, they may not take the teacher seriously and may not be very concerned about scholastic achievement.

It is obvious that the permissive approach in its pure form would be counter-productive in the school but the effective teacher must find ways to help pupils to

develop self-directedness, self-discipline and self-responsibility. It is necessary for pupils to be given opportunities to test their accountability by being allowed a certain amount of freedom, under certain circumstances (Cooper 1990:252). The teacher must therefore find ways to provide the pupil with as much freedom as he/she can handle in a responsible manner.

3.7 EXAMPLES OF NON-INVITATIONAL TEACHING STYLES

Non-invitational teaching styles do not imply that no teaching takes place. The use of these styles may not invoke the same family spirit in the classroom as does invitational teaching styles. They may not lead to close pupil identification with both the teacher and the subject matter. The emphasis is more likely to be on subject matter rather than on the pupil. Scholastic effort and achievement may not always be the best. Pupils exposed to non-invitational teaching styles may not view themselves positively as learners.

3.7.1 The command style

The command style has a unique impact on people. Some feel very comfortable in the role of receivers of decisions made for them by others. Yet others feel a sense of resistance, dissonance and at times resentment. It represents the tug of war between control and freedom. The teacher may use the command style for control and reprimanding purposes. When this kind of teaching behaviour prevails, negative feelings often result and the pupil will reject the teaching style, the teacher and the subject matter (Muska & Ashworth 1990:44).

The second possibility is that the teacher will use the command style with affection, warmth and care. When teachers, parents and other adults feel angry, often their behaviour takes the shape of the command style. Those who have experienced this may have experienced negative feelings about the command style and those who use it (Muska & Ashworth 1990:45). Yet the intention behind this would be to correct behaviour that is not in line with the expectations of a particular situation. So the

command style would be out of love and concern rather than ill feeling. Moreover the command style can be quite effective in arousing the pupils' attention.

Young children enjoy command style activities which represent imitating behaviours. Emulating, repeating, copying and responding to directions appear to be necessary expressions of the early years (Muska & Ashworth 1990:45).

Older pupils participate in command style activities for competition, social development and engagement or for participation in the rituals of a subculture. They usually do so during a number of sporting activities, where joy, excitement, challenge and competition is experienced. Some teachers feel that public punishment and exclusion are a necessary part of teaching and hence use the command style for these purposes but other teachers also use the command style with affection (Muska & Ashworth 1990:45).

The command style is clearly not amenable to humanistic teaching. It may not easily lend itself to the acceptance of pupils. It would be ideal for subjects where scholastic performance is not a priority.

3.7.2 The telling style

The talking teacher exercises by far the greatest influence in the chain of events in the classroom (Duminy & Sohng 1980:61). The telling style is a form of classroom activity where the teacher, in his/her role of communicator and informer is constantly in the foreground. It is a well-known style in the traditional school and was for time immemorial, the chief activity in the classroom. In earlier times, the child was regarded as an empty vessel into which knowledge was to be poured. The emphasis was the subject matter rather than the pupil. The result was a passive concept of learning in which school education was centred around the teacher and the subject matter (Duminy & Sohng 1980:60).

In this century the child and his/her existential needs receive greater educative attention. Therefore, the child's interests and aspirations form the starting point of education. This would point to a more positive concept of education.

In the primary school, the spoken word remains indispensable to teaching. It is therefore expected of the pupils to listen attentively to the teacher's recital of facts and it is important that teachers be well prepared to explain the work logically (Steyn *et al.* 1981:30).

The teacher should be active and enthusiastic without dramatizing. Lack of a lively atmosphere leads to boredom and inattention. When using the telling style, the teacher should be wary of the suitability of the subject matter and must not speak above the level of the pupils. The teacher's presentation should be simple, clear, absorbing and convincing (Steyn *et al.* 1981:30). Verbal communication with its need for careful sequencing of ideas and a choice of vocabulary that is well within the capacity of the children is a very important area of consideration.

Many teachers feel they make a bigger impression if they use big words and complicated explanations (Farrant 1980:189). But talking and teaching are not one and the same thing. Excellent oratory may lull a group of pupils into inattention or bemused observation. It is important that the teacher does not talk too much for a greater part of the lesson (Steyn *et al.* 1980:29).

When the teacher is using the telling style (Duminy & Sohng 1980:62), the pupil is not necessarily passive. The teacher expects him/her to sit down and be quiet when the material is being presented, but he/she must also follow the teacher. The child must use his/her imagination to judge for himself/herself, to accept or reject what he/she hears. The child must develop interest and a certain inquiring disposition. In the lower grades of the primary school, the telling of stories plays a very crucial part. A primary school where there are no stories would indeed be a miserable place (Duminy & Sohng 1980:62).

Indeed it is difficult to see how the telling style can be done away with in any classroom from the infant right through to university (Duminy & Sohng 1980:61).

In the higher classes the primary school and even in secondary school, narration is used to clarify and explain certain points arising from the teaching of the subject matter (Duminy & Sohng 1980:63).

Research carried out by Flanders, San Francisco University and subsequently broadened by other researchers Duminy & Sohng (1980:64) confirm a very firm place in the classroom for the telling style. According to research, amongst others, the following suggestions help to make the telling method successful:

- Never attempt a lesson of this kind unprepared.
- Keep the general and particular objectives of the lesson in mind.
- See to it that the various subsections of the lesson fit into each other logically.
- Keep the perceptual background of the pupils in mind.
- Start the lesson with the posing of a question.
- Do not talk too fast. Allow time for meditation, digestion and assimilation.
- Do not be afraid to allow discussion from time to time.
- In many cases the lesson can be consolidated by a written summary.

In spite of these suggestions, the telling style can be regarded as non-invitational because of the role that is assigned to the teacher in this style of teaching. The teacher takes a dominating and particularly significant role. By not allowing pupils plenty of activity during the lesson, the style may not develop the full potential in the pupil. The child must be able to listen well. There is not much time given to the child to analyse, to question and evaluate. Failure to cater for divergent thinking strategies can be regarded as a weakness in the method.

3.7.3 The learner-initiated style

The objective of the learner-initiated style is to provide the child with a chance to discover, to create and develop ideas in an area of endeavour. The child makes the decisions about the general subject matter and decides on which areas to focus on. The child will ask the teacher the skills that he/she wishes to be taught (Muska & Ashworth 1990:278-9).

The teacher must accept the decisions made by the child and assist by evaluating performance. In the primary school it amounts to individual learning. Very clever and highly motivated pupils may accept this style and make remarkable progress in deepening their knowledge. Less motivated pupils may waste time attempting this or that.

The implementation of this style takes a bit of time (Muska & Ashworth 1990:280). The pupil needs to have a plan to follow which includes the study area and the right questions that will assist in the search for information. This style is useful for enrichment and once the pupils have developed the skills of self-learning, they can profit a lot by way of private study.

The degree of independence in this style is very high (Muska & Ashworth 1990:281). The teacher must guard against the development of permissiveness through the use of this style. It would appear that the learner-initiated style might not invite pupils to the learning situation because it is too demanding of both the teacher and the pupil.

Primary school pupils are not mature enough to operate at the level demanded by the learner-initiated style. It would amount to asking pupils to make their own timetables without teacher support. The style would therefore degenerate into time wasting, boredom, indecisiveness and confusion for young pupils.

3.8 CONCLUSION

A teaching style is the teacher's particular way of teaching. Teaching can be inviting when the teacher's style shows concern for the pupil and non-inviting when the pupil's existential needs do not receive priority. Teachers should be concerned with maximising the pupils' potential during teaching. The teacher's teaching style must develop the self-concept of the pupil in such a way as to make the pupil feel accepted. Pupils who feel accepted are more likely to achieve in class.

CHAPTER 4

THE RESEARCH DESIGN OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION AND THE FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The research problem namely, can teaching styles influence the acceptance of pupils, and how will the acceptance of pupils lead to a positive self-concept that will ultimately enhance scholastic performance was stated in Chapter one. The literature study was discussed in Chapters two and three. Chapter two focussed on the self-concept and acceptance of pupils, Chapter three discussed teaching styles that could promote the acceptance of pupils. This Chapter will focus upon a research design that can be used in an empirical investigation and the formulation of hypotheses. The empirical investigation will test the hypotheses that have been formulated on the basis of the literature study. In this chapter a brief reference will be made to the purpose of the study and the following aspects will be discussed:

The descriptions of the research group

The measuring instrument

Formulation of hypotheses

Method of investigation

Statistical techniques for processing the data

4.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study is an endeavour to obtain empirical information on how teaching styles will influence the acceptance of pupils which is a requirement for the development of a

positive self-concept and how the acceptance of pupils will foster scholastic performance. The empirical investigation will concentrate on three scales namely:

- self-concept;
- acceptance of pupils; and
- invitational/non-invitational teaching styles.

It is hypothesised that there is a significant correlation between the way the teacher teaches and the development of self-concept and between the way pupils feel accepted and their scholastic performance.

4.3 DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH GROUP

4.3.1 Population

The population consisted of grade seven pupils affiliated to schools in Masvingo District. This population was chosen because of the following reasons:

- (1) Grade seven pupils are entering the adolescence period of development. This period is critical for the formation of a stable self-concept and the development of a personality.
- (2) Grade seven pupils need to identify themselves with a model as they move towards adulthood. They are therefore well placed to assess the teacher's teaching styles and the way these styles influence the self-concept, acceptance and scholastic performance.
- (3) Grade seven pupils compete for places for Form One. Those who do well in the final examination will find places in Form One at good boarding schools, while those who do not, find themselves in poor rural day schools. Scholastic performance is therefore very important to these pupils.

4.3.2. The sample

The sample consisted of 500 pupils from five primary schools. 100 pupils were randomly selected from each school. The schools themselves were randomly selected in an area consisting of 15 schools. All the 500 pupils completed the questionnaire.

Table 4.1 : Division of sample according to gender

SEX	TOTAL
BOYS	260
GIRLS	240

The ages of the pupils covered a range from 10 to 16 years of age.

4.4 THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

A questionnaire that covers the four variables of self-concept, the acceptance of pupils, invitational and non-invitational teaching was developed by the researcher. The questionnaire was validated by the supervisor and his colleagues.

The questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section contains 75 items which were answered on a five point scale by putting a cross on the respondent's most preferred answer.

Example

	Not at all	To a minimal extent	Neutral	To some extent	To a great Extent
Question					
1. To what extent do you like yourself?					
30. To what extent do you feel you can cope with your school work?					

Points were allocated according to the values of the questions. If a five was chosen, then five points were allocated. The questions that relate to the different variables are:

- self-concept 1, 11, 15, 29, 32, 13, 41, 45, 63, 16, 58, 67, 42, 61, 30, 69, 54, 73, 48, 53.
 - acceptance of pupils 2, 12, 31, 43, 17, 46, 14, 50, 18, 20, 44, 56, 71, 49, 19.
 - invitational teaching 6, 75, 64, 52, 36, 7, 37, 24, 65, 74, 8, 38, 62, 59, 25, 9, 39, 60, 26, 40, 68, 28.
- or
- non-invitational teaching 3, 21, 33, 57, 55, 4, 34, 51, 22, 47, 5, 35, 70, 72, 23, 10, 27, 66.
 - invitational and non-invitational teaching styles are two bipolar variables that will form one scale for statistical analysis.

The second section of the questionnaire contains the biographical information which was necessary to determine important variables such as age, gender, family size, family socio-economic situation.

4.5 FORMULATION OF HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses will be formulated in terms of scales and biographical information.

- Scales
1. Self-concept
 2. The acceptance of pupils
 3. Invitational teaching style
or
Non-invitational teaching style

Biographical information

1. Gender
2. Age
3. Grade
4. Father's education (FEDUC)
5. Mother's education (MEDUC)
6. Father's profession (BROS)
7. Number of brothers and sisters (BROS)
8. Do you live with your parents? (LIVPRN)
9. Is your father presently employed? (FEMPLD)
10. Is your mother presently employed? (MEMPLD)

Hypotheses are formulated over the following aspects:

Hypothesis 1

There is a significant positive correlation between self-concept and the acceptance of pupils.

Hypothesis 2

There is a significant positive correlation between teaching styles and the acceptance of pupils.

Hypothesis 3

There is a significant positive correlation between self-concept and scholastic performance.

Hypothesis 4

There is a significant positive correlation between invitational teaching styles and scholastic performance.

Hypothesis 5

There is a significant negative correlation between non-invitational styles and scholastic performance.

Hypothesis 6

There is a significant positive correlation between the fathers' profession and scholastic performance.

Hypothesis 7

There is a significant positive correlation between parents' employment and scholastic performance.

Hypothesis 8

There is a significant negative correlation between the self-concept of boys and that of girls.

Hypothesis 9

There is a significant positive correlation between parents' education and scholastic performance.

4.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

4.6.1 The pilot study

The pilot study was conducted by the researcher in one primary school in Masvingo District. A sample of 20 pupils was chosen. The pilot research did not include pupils

who would form part of the final sample. The results of the pilot research were not incorporated into the final statistical analysis.

The main purpose of the pilot research was to evaluate the questionnaire in order to identify problems and so be able to eliminate them in the administration of the questionnaire. The researcher also wanted to determine the duration for completing the questionnaire. The pilot research yielded the following results:

- Pupils had difficulty in understanding the five point scale.
- Pupils had vocabulary problems.
- Pupils found the questions generally interesting especially about themselves and their teachers.
- The questionnaire was completed in thirty to fifty minutes.

The researcher noted the problem areas with a view to explaining them in the final research.

4.6.2 The gathering of data

The researcher administered the questionnaire himself at each of the five schools. The teachers only assisted in distributing the questionnaire and were then asked to leave the researcher alone with the pupils. This was done to avoid pupils shying away from telling the truth about their teachers in their presence.

The following procedure was followed to obtain the data:

- Instructions were read to the pupils.
- The five point scale was explained.
- The difficult questions identified during the pilot research were explained.
- The pupils were encouraged to ask the researcher questions at any time.
- Pupils were assured that all information was confidential.
- The researcher created a relaxed atmosphere.

4.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND TECHNIQUES

After completion, the questionnaires were checked for mistakes and omissions. Corrections were made, data obtained were computerised and assimilated at the University of South Africa.

The following are some of the techniques that were used to interpret the data:

- Factor Analysis
- Cronbach Alpha
- Regression Analysis
- Significance Level of Tests

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In section 1.4 it was mentioned that the researcher aimed to determine the influence that the independent variables such as the self-concept, the acceptance of pupils, invitational and non-invitational teaching styles had on the scholastic performance of the learners.

The data collected by means of the researcher's questionnaire will be analysed by means of Factor Analysis, Cronbach Alpha, Multiple Regression Analysis and significance level of tests. The item-analysis will be explained and the reliability coefficient of the researcher's questionnaire will be determined. Multiple regression will be used to establish the specific variables that influence the scholastic performance of the children. These techniques are now fully explained below.

5.2 STATISTICAL METHODOLOGY

5.2.1 Factor analysis

A statistical technique which is most suitable for the investigation of the underlying structure of a questionnaire is "factor analysis" (Mulaik 1972). Factor analysis is especially useful when the purpose is to uncover dimensions in a questionnaire. The rationale is that those items that refer to the same dimensions or share the same orientation, correlate highly with one another. One might then create a factor or dimension by combining a respondent's score on such correlated items or items that constitute the same factor. If one should now describe respondents on these

factors' scores instead of a multiple of items, this provides an economically and theoretically meaningful way of describing groups and individuals within groups.

Kerlinger (1986:569) states it as follows: "Factor analysis serves the cause of scientific parsimony. It reduces the multiplicity of tests or measures to greater simplicity. It tells us, in effect, which tests or measures belong together, in other words how much do they do so. In this manner it reduces the number of variables with which the scientist must cope. It also helps the scientist locate and identify unities or fundamental properties underlying tests and measures".

In the present study the factor analysis program PROC FACTOR of the statistical software SAS (Statistical Analysis Systems) was used (SAS User's guide 1985). The method of factor analysis was Principle Factor Analysis (Mulaik 1972).

The steps followed in the factor analysis of any set of items were as follows:

- the computation of a matrix of correlations between the items that were generated to measure a construct such as self-concept;
- obtaining a single factor as well as a two-factor solution for each of the three basic constructs of this study using the Principle Factor Analysis solutions according to Promax Criterion;
- rotating the factor solutions according to the Promax Criterion; and
- reporting and interpreting the factor structure matrix containing the standardized regression co-efficient.

The values in the so-called rotated factor solutions are often called factor loadings and gives the regression of the items on the factors in the case of the factor structure. In this study these regression co-efficients are called factor loadings. By studying all those items that have high loadings on a particular factor, one can discern the nature of the factor. In this study it was decided to consider all factor loadings = or > 0,30 as significant. The cut off point of 0,30 is to a large extent

arbitrary and based on judgement by the researcher. The program was also instructed to omit decimal points, round values off to two digits and to omit loadings smaller than 0,25 to facilitate the identification of clusters of items loading on the same factor.

5.2.2 Cronbach Alpha

The main objective of the factor analysis in the present study was to obtain at least a scale that clearly measures each of the main constructs of this study. It is this motivation that directed the search for a single factor underlying each of the three sets of items. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was computed which is an index of the degree of internal consistency of the reliability of the scale.

5.2.3 Multiple Regression Analysis

The hypotheses of this study involve inter-correlations between a multitude of variables such as biographical variables, self-concept, invitational and non-invitational teaching styles. Invitational and non-invitational styles are taken as invitational style for regression analysis because they are bipolar variables. As all the biographical variables were coded as dichotomies, it was possible to include them in a multivariate regression analysis together with the other scales. The great advantage of multiple regression (Draper & Smith 1981) is that the regression coefficient of a predictor reflects the predictor's unique contribution to the explanation of the criterion. The multiple R-square coefficient also reflects the combined explanation of all the predictors in the equation. In the present study a step wise regression analysis procedure is used. Draper & Smith (1981:307-9) explains this method as: "The order of insertion is determined by using the partial correlation coefficient as a measure of the importance of variables not yet in the equation. The basic procedure is as follows: First we select the Z most correlated with Y (suppose it is Z_1) and find the first-order, linear regression equation $\hat{Y} = f(Z_1)$. We check if this variable is significant. If it is not, we quit and adopt the model $Y = Y$ as best;

otherwise we search for the second predictor variable to enter regression. We examine the partial correlation coefficients³ of all the predictors not in regression at this stage, namely Z_j , $j \neq 1$, with Y ; that is, Y and Z_j are both adjusted for their straightline relationships with Z_1 , and the correlation between these adjusted variables is calculated for all $j \neq 1$. Mathematically this is equivalent to finding the correlations between (1) the residuals from the regression $\hat{Y} = f(Z_1)$ and (2) the residuals from each of the j regressions $Z_j = l_j(Z_1)$ (which we have not actually performed). The Z_j with the highest partial correlation coefficient with Y is now selected, (suppose this is Z_2) and a second regression equation $\hat{Y} = f(Z_1, Z_2)$ is fitted. The overall regression is checked for significance, the improvement in the R value is noted, and the partial F -values for both variables now in the equation (not just the one most recently entered⁴) are examined. The lower of these two partial F 's is then compared with an appropriate F percentage point, and the corresponding predictor variable is retained in the equation or rejected according to whether the test is significant or not significant. This testing of the "least useful predictor currently in the equation" is carried out at every stage of the step-wise procedure. A predictor that may have been the best entry candidate at an earlier stage may, at a later stage, be superfluous because of relationships between it and other variables now in the regression. To check on this, the partial F criterion for each variable in the regression at any stage of calculation is evaluated and the lowest of these partial F -values (which may be associated with the most recent entrant or with a previous entrant) is then compared with a pre-selected percentage point of the appropriate F -distribution. This provides a judgement on the contribution of the least valuable in the regression at that stage, treated as though it had been the most recent variable entered, irrespective of its actual point of entry into the model. If the tested variable provides a non-significant contribution, it is removed from the model and the appropriated fitted regression equation is then computed for all the remaining variables still in the model. The best of the variables not currently in the model (i.e. the one whose partial correlation with Y given the predictors already in the equation is greatest) is then checked to see if it passes the partial F entry test. If it passes, it is entered, and we return to checking all the

partial F 's for variables in. If it fails, a further removal is attempted. Eventually (unless the α -levels for entry and removal are badly chosen to provide a cycling effect⁵), when no variables in the current equation can be removed and the next best candidate variable cannot hold its place in the equation, the process stops. As each variable is entered into the regression, its effect on R^2 , the square of the multiple correlation coefficient, is usually recorded and printed".

5.2.4 Significance level of tests

Once the reliability and validity of scales for self-concept, invitational style and acceptance are established, the hypotheses involving these constructs are tested at the 0,05 level of significance. All *apriori* hypotheses in the study were tested at the 0,05 level of significance. This level was used throughout for all statistical tests relating directly to the hypotheses. At this point it is necessary to explain the motivation for the selection of these significance levels. Conventionally, the rather strict levels 0,05 and 0,01 are used as levels of significance for statistical tests performed. The reason for these rather severe levels of significance is to keep the so-called type - 1 error (Hays 1963) as small as feasible, that is to limit the risk of incorrectly rejecting the null hypotheses or conducting a significant result incorrectly.

Researchers are often, however just concerned with missing a significant result (type - 11 error). Winer (1971:14-15) points out that when both types of errors are equally important levels such as 0,2 (and possibly 0,30) are more appropriate than the conventionally used, 0,05 and 0,01 levels. Another consideration in the choice of the level of significance is the sample size. In the present study the sample size is relatively small with a consequence that statistical tests lack power (that is significant results are not easily obtained). One way to increase the power of a test is to use a less strict significance level. Finally, when a multiple number of tests are performed on the data the type-1 errors compound. Although a less strict level of significance such as 0,30 is more appropriate for statistical tests in the human

sciences according to Winer (1971:14), due to the large number of hypotheses tested in the present study a level of significance of 0,05 is selected for testing of an individual hypotheses to compensate for the compounding of type - 1 errors.

5.3 BIOGRAPHICAL PROFILE OF SAMPLE

5.3.1 Gender of respondents

The gender composition of the sample is given in table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 : Gender distribution of the sample population

Grade	Frequency	Percentage
Male	260	52.0
Female	240	48.0

The total sample of 52% female and 48% male represented a good balance of sexes.

5.3.2 Age of respondents

The age composition of the sample is given in table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2 Age distribution of the sample population

Age	Frequency	Percent
10	1	0,2
11	36	7,5
12	160	33,2
13	186	38,6
14	65	13,5
15	21	4,4
16	13	2,7
Frequency Missing	18	

Table 5.2 shows the largest number of respondents falling between 12 and 13 years. If one takes into account that all pupils are from grade 7, the age of the pupils show a considerable spread.

5.3.3 Respondents living with parents

Table 5.3 below shows the respondents who live with their parents and those who do not.

Table 5.3 : Distribution of respondents living with their parents

	Frequency	Percent
YES	451	90,6
NO	47	9,4
Frequency missing	2	

An overwhelming number of children live with their parents. This could indicate a favourable situation for the scholastic performance of the pupils.

5.3.4 Respondents' fathers' profession

Table 5.4 below shows the distribution of fathers' profession of the respondents.

Table 5.4 : Father's profession

Father's profession	Frequency	Percent
0	131	39,1
1	204	60,9
Frequency Missing	165	

Only 204 fathers of the respondents had a profession known to their children. The 165 missing frequency could mean that the fathers had no profession and the children could therefore not bother to answer. It would be unusual for a child in grade 7 not know the father's profession.

5.3.5 Brothers and sisters

Table 5.5 below shows the distribution of brothers and sisters among the respondents.

Table 5.5 : Number of brothers and sisters

Number of brothers or Sisters	Brothers		Sisters	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
0	62	12.6	69	14.1
1	125	25.4	140	28.7
2	118	24.0	116	23.8
3	86	17.5	84	17.2
4	61	12.4	43	8.8
5	21	4.3	19	3.9
6	14	2.8	8	1.6
7	4	0.8	9	1.8
8	1	0.2	-	-
Frequency Missing	8		12	

If one takes into account that the majority of the respondents come from rural areas, it is interesting to note that the majority of the pupils come from relatively small families.

5.3.6 Parents' employment

Table 5.6 below shows the distribution of the employment of the pupils parents.

Table 5.6 : Distribution of respondents parents employment.

Parents employment	Fathers		Mothers	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	337	68.6	122	24.6
No	154	31.4	373	75.4
Frequency Missing	9		5	

The table shows more fathers in employment than mothers.

5.4 FACTOR ANALYSIS RESULTS

5.4.1 Self-concept

The factor analysis solution matrix for the single and two-factor Promax-rotated are given in tables 5.7 and 5.8 below.

Table 5.7 : Promax–rotated single-factor solution (standardised regression)

Self-concept.

Item	Factor loading	Item description
Q67	49	Wish you were somebody
Q13	47	Worried about tests in class
Q58	42	Feel useless at times
Q32	37	Nervous when teacher calls you
Q73	34	Finds it difficult to make decisions
Q54	28	You are not good at all
Q11	25	You are a failure at school
Q63	.	Can you usually solve your problems
Q61	.	Postpone doing homework
Q1	.	What extent do you like yourself
Q53	.	Self-conscious in company of others
Q42	.	You greatly respected by others
Q30	.	Cope with school work
Q45	.	Are you a cheerful person
Q15	.	Able to make friends
Q29	.	Important to achieve at school
Q41	.	Yourself a successful pupil
Q48	.	Teacher sees you as a capable person
Q16	.	Much to be proud of
Q69	.	Do others enjoy your company

Table 5.8 : Promax-rotated two-factor solution (Standardised Regression) : self-concept.

Items	Factor loading		Item description
	Factor 1	Factor 2	
Q13	50	.	Worried about tests in class
Q67	47	.	Wish you were somebody else
Q58	44	.	Feel useless at times
Q32	35	.	Nervous when teacher calls you
Q73	33	.	Find it difficult to make decisions
Q54	29	.	Your are not good at all
Q11	26	.	You a failure at school
Q61	.	.	Postpone doing homework
Q53	.	.	Self-conscious in company of others
Q16	.	.	Much to be proud of
Q41	.	43	Yourself a successful pupil
Q1	.	33	What extent do you like yourself
Q45	.	33	Are you a cheerful person
Q42	.	31	You greatly respected by others
Q63	.	31	Can you usually solve your problems
Q15	.	26	Able to make friends
Q48	.	.	Teacher sees you as a capable person
Q69	.	.	Do others enjoy your company
Q29	.	.	Important to achieve at school
Q30	.	.	Cope with school work

From the tables above it would appear that only one factor (the one-factor solution in table 5.8 above can be identified that might be identified as self-concept. This is factor 1 in table 5.8 which consists of the following items: Q13, Q67, Q58, Q32, Q73, Q54, Q11.

The Cronbach Alpha was subsequently calculated on these items and found to be 0,54. It was decided to calculate a self-concept for each child as the child's mean score on the items. Some of the items were reversed scored such that the net effect was that a high score indicated a poor self-concept.

5.4.2 Invitational teaching style

A factor analysis on the items which was generated to tap invitational versus non-invitational style resulted in the solution matrices below:

Table 5.9 : Promax-rotated single-factor solution (Standardised Regression) invitational/non-invitational style

Items	Factor loading	Item Description
Q75	52	Teacher encourages you to answer question
Q60	43	Teacher allows you to participate in class
Q24	42	Use local environment, during teaching
Q6	39	Teacher ask you questions
Q68	38	Teacher makes sure you contribute
Q38	37	Teacher mark exercise books
Q74	34	Do you have class discussions
Q36	32	Teacher assist in answering
Q64	32	Allowed to ask each other questions
Q28	32	Allowed to collect things from environment
Q51	31	Expected to obey teacher
Q25	30	Teacher assist you work on your own
Q72	30	Make progress learning on your own
Q47	27	Teacher talking about useful things
Q10	26	Teacher trusts you to find things
Q8	25	Teacher give homework
Q66	25	Teacher patient with you in class
Q62	.	Teacher gives you written work
Q59	.	Teacher gives additional work
Q26	.	Allowed to conduct experiments in class
Q23	.	Can make progress on own
Q40	.	Teacher call on you during lessons
Q39	.	Finding out things for yourself
Q52	.	Teacher tolerates a lot of questions
Q4	.	Teacher talking in class
Q65	.	School expected to raise money
Q21	.	Teacher tell you to do all time
Q37	.	Class involved in comm projects
Q9	.	Opportunity to find out things
Q27	.	Feel accepted by teacher
Q3	.	Teacher force you to do things
Q5	.	Timetable without teacher
Q57	.	Extent of teacher shouting at pupils
Q70	.	Tell the teacher what to do
Q33	.	Teacher cane pupils
Q22	.	Teacher not take time to explain
Q7	.	Class produce something for sale
Q35	.	Work alone on difficult things
Q34	.	Teacher talk – no questions
Q55	.	Teacher unable to accept pupil mistakes

Table 5.10 : Promax-rotated two-factor solution (Standardised Regression)
Invitational/non-invitational teaching.

Items	Factor loading		Item description
	Factor 1	Factor 2	
Q75	55	.	Teacher encourages you to answer question
Q60	43	.	Teacher allows you to participate in class
Q38	42	.	Teacher mark exercise books
Q24	40	.	Use local environment during teaching
Q6	39	.	Teacher ask you questions
Q36	37	.	Teacher assist in answering
Q74	37	.	Do you have class discussions
Q28	36	.	Allowed to collect things from environment
Q10	34	.	Teacher trusts you to find things
Q68	34	.	Teacher makes sure you contribute
Q25	31	.	Teacher assist you work on your own
Q52	31	.	Teacher tolerates a lot of questions
Q64	30	.	Allowed to ask each other questions
Q66	28	.	Teacher patient with you in class
Q62	26	.	Teacher gives you written work
Q51	25	.	Expected to obey teacher
Q8	.	.	Teacher give homework
Q59	.	.	Teacher gives additional work
Q26	.	.	Allowed to conduct experiments in class
Q40	.	.	Teacher call on you during lessons
Q39	.	.	Finding out things for yourself
Q21	.	.	Teacher tell you to do all time
Q9	.	.	Opportunity to find out things
Q3	.	.	Teacher force you to do things
Q55	.	.	Teacher unable to accept pupil mistakes
Q47	.	.	Teacher talking about useful things
Q72	.	53	Make progress learning on your own
Q57	.	49	Extent of teacher shouting at pupils
Q4	.	31	Teacher talking in class
Q23	.	31	Can make progress on own
Q5	.	.	Timetable without teacher
Q33	.	.	Teacher cane pupils
Q37	.	.	Class involved in comm projects
Q65	.	.	School expected to raise money
Q70	.	.	Tell the teacher what to do
Q35	.	.	Work alone on difficult things
Q27	.	.	Feel accepted by teacher
Q22	.	.	Teacher not take time to explain
Q7	.	.	Class produce something for sale
Q34	.	.	Teacher talk – no questions

From the table above it would appear that only one factor the one-factor solution in table 5.10 above can be identified as invitational teaching. This factor 1 in table

5.10 which consists of the following items: Q75, Q60, Q38, Q24, Q6, Q36, Q74, Q28, Q10, Q68, Q25, Q52, Q64, Q66, Q62, Q51.

The Cronbach Alpha coefficient was subsequently calculated on these items and found to be 0,67. It was decided to calculate the invitational style score for each child as that child's mean score on the items. Some items were reversed scored such that the net-effect was that a high score on the scale indicated a strong effect of the style and a low score indicated a weak effect.

5.4.3 Acceptance of pupils

Factor analysis of the acceptance items resulted in the solution matrices below:

Table 5.11: Promax-rotated single-factor solution (Standardised Regression): Acceptance

Items	F a c t o r loading	Item description
Q31	60	Teacher loves you
Q20	46	Important member of class
Q44	44	Do you enjoy being in class
Q2	40	What extent do you like teacher
Q17	38	Comfortable in classroom
Q18	38	Class make you feel good
Q12	37	Teacher frightens you
Q43	34	Teacher doesn't like you
Q46	34	Value your relationship with teacher?
Q49	29	Teacher gives you useful feedback
Q71	.	Teacher is fair
Q50	.	Communicating with the headmaster
Q56	.	Can put up your hand in class
Q14	.	Talk to teacher about personal problems
Q19	.	Free to express your ideas

**Table 5.12 : Promax-rotated two-factor solution (Standardised Regression):
Acceptance**

Items	Factor loading		Item description
	Factor 1	Factor 2	
Q43	52	.	Teacher doesn't like you
Q20	49	.	Important member of class
Q31	48	.	Teacher loves you
Q12	43	.	Teacher frightens you
Q44	37	.	Do you enjoy being in class
Q17	33	.	Comfortable in class
Q46	29	.	Value your relationship with teacher?
Q2	26	.	What extent do you like teacher
Q71	.	.	Teacher is fair
Q49	.	.	Teacher gives you useful feedback
Q18	.	43	Class make you feel good
Q14	.	36	Talk to teacher about personal problems
Q50	.	29	Communicating with the headmaster
Q56	.	27	Can put up your hand in class
Q19	.	.	Free to express your ideas

From the tables above it would appear that only one factor (the one-factor solution in table above can be identified that might be identified as "acceptance". This is factor 1 in table 5.12 which consists of the following items: Q43, Q20, Q31, Q12, Q44, Q17, Q46, Q2.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was subsequently calculated on these items and found to be 0,65. It was decided to calculate an acceptance score for each child as that child's mean score on the items. Some items were reversed scored such that the net-effect was that a high score on the scale indicated good acceptance and a low score poor feeling of being accepted.

5.5 REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS

5.5.1 Determinants of scholastic performance

From the correlation matrix in appendix B it can be seen that scholastic performance correlates significantly with the following variables:

- gender ($r = 0,09$; $p = 0,034$)
- age ($r = -0,18$; $p = 0,000$)
- brothers ($r = -0,09$; $p = 0,046$)

These variables are themselves inter-correlated and it is quite possible that a particular variable can be correlated with scholastic performance but that this can be a spurious correlation caused by the so-called "third" variable. It was thus decided to perform a step-wise multiple linear regression using scholastic performance as the criterion or dependent variable. Table 5.13 below gives a summary of the predictor variables entered into the equation at the 0,05 level.

Table 5.13 : Multiple regression results : Dependent variable : Scholastic performance.

Variable	Parameter Estimate	F	P-value
INTERCEPT	66,726	55,59	0,0001
AGE	-1,595	6,59	0,0106
FEMPLD	-4,009	7,55	0,0063
MEMPLD	-3,631	5,01	0,0257
INVIT	3,925	11,17	0,0009
ACCEPT	2,902	7,50	0,0064

From the results in the table above the following observations can be made:

- Younger children in grade 7 perform better.
- Children with father and mother in employment fare better.
- An invitational teaching style leads to better performance.
- Children who experience acceptance appear to fare better.

It is interesting that self-concept as measured in this study did not enter the predictive equation.

5.5.2 Determinants of self-concept

From the correlation matrix in appendix B it can be seen that self-concept correlates significantly with the following variables:

- mother's education ($r = -0,112$; $p = 0,0137$)
- invitational style ($r = 0,099$; $p = 0,0256$)
- acceptance ($r = 0,212$; $p = 0,0001$)

Again, a multiple regression analysis was performed, this time with self-concept as the dependent variable. Scholastic performance was excluded from this analysis. Only the variable "meduc" (mother's education) entered the equation so that it is not necessary to summarise the results in a table. It appears that children whose mothers are educated to a higher degree, have a better self-concept.

5.5.3 Determinants of acceptance

From the correlation matrix in appendix B it can be seen that acceptance correlates significantly with the following variables:

- gender (r = 0,136; p = 0,0023)
- LIVPRN (r = -0,119; p = 0,0075)
- self-concept (r = 0,212; p = 0,0001)
- invitational style (r = 0,492; p = 0,0001)

These variables are themselves inter-correlated and it is quite possible that a particular variable be correlated with scholastic acceptance but this can be a spurious correlation caused by the so called "third" variable. It was thus again decided to perform a step-wise linear regression using acceptance as dependent variable.

Table 5.14 : Multiple regression results : Dependent variable : acceptance

Variable	Parameter	F	P – value
	Estimate		
INTERCEPT	0,792	13,44	0,0003
SEX	0,144	6,24	0,0129
SELFEC	0,171	17,13	0,0001
INVIT	0,527	133,19	0,0001

From the above table the following observations can be deduced:

- An invitational style of teaching might be conducive to a feeling of acceptance.
- A good self-concept might be conducive to feeling "accepted".
- As girls were the higher coded in the dichotomous variable sex, the indication is that girls feel more accepted than do boys.

It is interesting to note that the variables self-concept and sex, although influencing "acceptance" do not contribute directly to scholastic performance. Invitational style

on the other hand, influences acceptance and also shows (see table 5.13) a direct and unique contribution to the explanation of scholastic performance.

5.6 SUMMARY IN TERMS OF HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

(1) Hypothesis 1

There is a significant positive correlation between self-concept and the acceptance of pupils. This hypothesis was confirmed.

(2) Hypothesis 2

There is a significant positive correlation between teaching styles and the acceptance of pupils. The empirical investigation found that invitational teaching style correlated with acceptance. A non-invitational style did not correlate with acceptance.

(3) Hypothesis 3

There is a significant positive correlation between self-concept and academic achievement. The empirical investigation found that self-concept did not correlate with scholastic performance. The hypothesis was therefore not confirmed.

(4) Hypothesis 4

There is a significant positive correlation between invitational teaching and scholastic performance. The empirical investigation confirmed this hypothesis.

(5) Hypothesis 5

There is a significant negative correlation between non-invitational teaching style and scholastic performance. The empirical investigation found very low mean scores on non-invitational items. The hypothesis was therefore not positively confirmed.

(6) Hypothesis 6

There is a significant positive correlation between the father's profession and scholastic performance. This hypothesis was not tested because a large number of pupils did not indicate the father's profession and the professions were rather difficult to quantify.

(7) Hypothesis 7

There is a significant positive correlation between parents' employment and scholastic performance. This hypothesis was confirmed.

(8) Hypothesis 8

There is a significant negative correlation between the self-concept of boys and that of girls. The empirical investigation found that self-concept correlated significantly with acceptance and girls were found to feel more accepted than boys. Girls would therefore have a better self-concept than boys. This then confirms the hypothesis.

(9) Hypothesis 9

There is a significant positive correlation between parents' education and scholastic performance. This hypothesis was not tested because many pupils did not know or did not answer the item on parents' education.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters the researcher focussed on how teaching styles influence self-concept, and the acceptance of pupils to develop a positive self-concept.

In this chapter a summary will be made of the research undertaken. Findings derived from the literature study and the empirical research will be outlined. This will be followed by conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for future research.

6.2 THE AIMS OF THE INVESTIGATION AND THE EXTENT TO WHICH THESE HAVE BEEN ACHIEVED

The researcher stated in chapter one that the investigation was generally aimed at investigating how teaching styles will influence the acceptance of pupils leading to the development of a positive self-concept and how the acceptance of pupils will enhance scholastic achievement. Specific aims of the investigation were outlined as follows:

- To assess the teaching styles used by teachers in order to evaluate their effectiveness.

- To assess the degree of pupil acceptance by teachers and significant others so that solutions to problems can be suggested.
- To explain how the acceptance of pupils is related to teaching styles in the primary school.
- To establish the relationship between teaching styles, self-concept and scholastic performance.

6.2.1 General aim

To investigate how teaching styles will influence the acceptance of pupils leading to the development of a positive self-concept and how the acceptance of pupils will enhance scholastic performance. The study found that teaching styles do influence the acceptance of pupils and also that self-concept influences the acceptance of pupils. Invitational teaching styles and acceptance were found to influence performance but self-concept was shown not to influence performance. Non-invitational teaching was found not to influence the scholastic performance of pupils.

6.2.2 Specific aims

6.2.2.1 The study found that the invitational teaching style may enhance pupil performance. The styles that were associated with invitational teaching are the guided discovery style, the project style, the practice style and the question and answer style. According to the study, non-invitational teaching styles namely the command style, the teaching method and the learner-initiated style may not influence the scholastic achievement of pupils. In spite of its positive connotations, the learner-initiated style was found not to have a positive influence on performance.

6.2.2.2 The study found a positive correlation between the acceptance of pupils and performance. Particularly interesting was the finding that girls found more acceptance than boys. Self-concept was also found to influence acceptance.

6.2.2.3 The research found a positive correlation between invitational teaching styles and performance. There was a positive influence by invitational teaching style on the acceptance of pupils.

6.2.2.4 Self-concept was found not to influence performance but it did show an influence on acceptance but not on teaching styles. Therefore self-concept did not feature prominently in influencing variables other than acceptance.

6.3 FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE STUDY

The literature study investigated the relationship between invitational and non-invitational styles, self-concept, acceptance of pupils and scholastic performance.

The following were some of the major findings:

- Pupils who accept themselves were more likely to be accepted by others.
- Self-acceptance will lead the child to realise his/her potential.
- Teachers can demonstrate the acceptance of pupils by showing love, trust, care and responsibility for the child.
- The most dominant feature in terms of acceptance is love. Pupils who are loved feel a sense of worth which provides the motivation to succeed in school.
- The terms self-esteem, self-image, self-worth, self-identity are smaller components of the larger self-concept. All of them are used in a complimentary way. A good self-concept results from being accepted.

- Pupils with high self-esteem and those who come from high self-esteem homes achieve better performance in school. They are likely to like school and stay in school longer.
- A positive and well-balanced self-control is a good sign of a mentally healthy person who can interact well with the others.
- Esteem from parents, teachers and peers is necessary for success in school.
- Many research findings have confirmed a firm piece for a positive relationship between self-concept and scholastic performance.
- The foundation for a good self-concept and solid acceptance is laid in the home.
- Every teacher is a unique person who brings a personal style into the classroom. A style is one's way of doing things.
- Pupils who feel invited to the teaching/learning situation have positive ideas about themselves which will lead them to good performance in school.
- The characteristics of invitational teaching are positiveness, realness, emphatic listening, communication and love, democratic classroom atmosphere, inclusion etcetera.
- The characteristics of non-invitational teaching are authoritarianism, intimidation, permissiveness etcetera.
- The overriding feature in respect of teaching style is flexibility. Effective teachers move from one style to the other in any one teaching period.

6.4 FINDINGS FROM EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

After reviewing the literature, the researcher undertook an empirical study. A questionnaire which was developed by the researcher was administered by the researcher himself to 500 grade 7 pupils from 5 different primary schools in Masvingo District.

For pupil performance the researcher used a mean score from the end of term results for all the ten subjects taught in the primary school.

The Factor Analysis, the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient, the multiple regression analysis and the significance level of tests were used to interpret and analyse data.

- From the results of the factor analysis the calculated Cronbach Alpha Coefficient on self-concept was found to be 0,54. On invitational teaching style the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was found to be 0,67. For purposes of analysis both invitational and non-invitational teaching were taken as one. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for acceptance was found to be 0,65.
- The result of the regression analysis on the determinants of performance showed that the younger the children the better they performed in class. Pupils whose parents are employed were also found to perform better. Invitational teaching style and acceptance were also found to influence performance. An interesting finding was that self-concept did not appear to influence performance.
- Regarding determinants of self-concept only the mothers education was found to influence self-concept development in pupils.
- Acceptance was found to be determined by invitational teaching, self-concept and gender.
- Performance was therefore found to be directly influenced by acceptance, invitational teaching, age, mother's employment as well as father's employment.

The literature study investigated the relationship amongst the variables of teaching styles, self-concept, acceptance of pupils and scholastic performance.

- The literature study clearly points out that a warm and loving family environment lays a solid basis for the development of self-concept and acceptance.
- Peer group influence prepares the child for adult life by helping the child to internalise the values of self-acceptance as well as acceptance by others.
- Self-regard, self-worth, adjustment and acceptance of others are behaviours that depend on self-concept. A positive self-concept gives the child security and confidence to become involved with others.
- Literature points out that more than anything else, the teacher's teaching style influences pupil performance to a great extent.
- Pupils who feel invited to the teaching-learning situation blossom like flowers while those that do not feel invited feel a sense of rejection, resentment, helpless and despair.
- The empirical research found that the self-concept plays no part in the performance of pupils. This differs from literature which confirms a firm place for the self-concept in the academic achievement of pupils.
- The empirical research found that a good self-concept might be conducive to being accepted. This finding confirms the literature study findings that pupils who feel good about themselves will find it easy to accept others.
- The empirical research found that younger children perform better in grade 7. This is an interesting finding which appears to confirm the situation on the ground. Grade 7 pupils who are older start school late because such pupils usually come from disadvantaged families.
- The empirical research found that children whose father and mother are employed perform better in school. This concurs with the literature study findings which state that children of working mothers have advantages over home keepers. Parents in employment have got the resources to provide for their children's academic well-being.

- Findings from the empirical research were able to confirm most of the researcher's hypotheses. The research was worthwhile and some interesting findings came to the fore. There are however certain areas that would need further investigation.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

6.5.1 The research instrument

It is possible that the questionnaire developed by the researcher may have contained language and concepts which the children could not handle competently. Consequently some children may have answered haphazardly. The questionnaire itself could have been too long for some grade 7 children.

6.5.2 The schools used in this research

Four of the five schools used in this research came from rural areas. These are generally disadvantaged areas. This explains the wide spread of the age range of the respondents and may also shed light on the negative influence of the self-concept on pupil performance. It is possible pupils from poor rural backgrounds have difficulty in developing a solid self-concept.

6.6 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.6.1 On account of the lack of other work opportunities, many people who join Teachers Training Colleges in Zimbabwe are not teacher material. They do not have the calling. Their hearts are not on the job. Consequently many headmasters have loudly complained about the quality of teaching of newly qualified teachers. They have said that these new brooms have not

demonstrated the correct work ethos as befit the profession. The government may consider stricter selection procedures to enhance the quality of teaching in schools.

6.6.2 Rural school teachers have been known to leave their posts at any time and for long periods. The recently introduced clocking-in system may improve the situation. But it will not help very much as long as the heads of schools are not themselves strictly supervised. School authorities need to visit schools more regularly than they do at present.

6.6.3 The development of effective teaching styles is a life-long process. This can be encouraged by demonstration lessons at schools. Although this idea is known to school heads, many of them pay lip-service to the practice. Education officers may consider making demonstration lessons compulsory in schools.

6.6.4 In a rapidly changing technological age, modernism, especially the electronic media impacts negatively on children's values wherever they are. Family influence tends to have weakened in many homes. Schools should therefore make sure that parents know who is teaching their child and what their child is doing at school.

6.6.5 Teachers must create a sense of industry in pupils by gainfully occupying them all the time through regular homework, extra work and constant supervision. Many teachers have a superficial attitude towards the supervision of their pupils.

6.6.6 Finally every school must be made to develop a culture of recognition and commendation for pupil effort. This can be done through a systematically

developed way of giving prizes, awards, rewards and commendations. This should be accompanied by seriousness and ceremony.

6.7 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

6.7.1 In view of the research findings, it is vital that further research be conducted on the self-concept of grade 7 children with a view to seeing how it affects their scholastic performance.

6.7.2 The literature study showed that the self-concept is a function of self-acceptance mostly generated by family support. It is necessary to conduct further research on how the socio-economic situation of the child influences the development of the self-concept and scholastic performance.

6.7.3 Teacher-child relationship is crucial to scholastic performance. In view of the present lax attitude among teachers towards their work, it is necessary to conduct research into teacher attitudes with a view to improving their teaching styles.

6.7.4 The researcher believes that it is necessary to conduct research into how teaching styles can be made to suit and improve the environment in which the children live.

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APPENDIX A : QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

M.Ed. PSYCHOLOGY QUESTIONNAIRE

You can help us understand how you learn in class and how you feel about yourself and also how you feel about your teacher. We want to know how you are taught and how the teacher accepts you as a pupil and as a person. This is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers. Try to respond honestly and accurately, you do not have to spend a lot of time on one item.

Put a cross in the box which corresponds to your answer. If your answer is: To a great extent put a cross in box 5; to some extent put a cross in box 4; neutral put a cross in box 3; to a minimal extent put a cross in box 2 and, not at all, put a cross in box 1.

QUESTION	1	2	3	4	5
1. To what extent do you like yourself?					
2. To what extent do you like your teacher?					
3. To what extent does the teacher force you to do things?					
4. To what extent does the teacher do the talking in class?					
5. To what extent do you have to make your own timetable without teacher support?					
6. To what extent does the teacher ask you questions?					
7. To what extent does your class produce something for sale e.g. vegetables?					
8. To what extent does the teacher give you homework?					
9. To what extent does the teacher give you the opportunity to find out things for yourself?					
10. To what extent do you feel that the teacher trusts you to find out things on your own?					

	1	2	3	4	5
11. To what extent do you feel that you are a failure at school?					
12. To what extent do you feel that your teacher frightens you?					
13. To what extent do you get worried when you have tests in class?					
14. To what extent can you talk to your teacher about personal problems you are facing?					
15. To what extent are you able to make friends?					
16. To what extent do you feel that you haven't much to be proud of?					
17. To what extent do you feel comfortable in the classroom?					
18. To what extent does being in class make you feel good about yourself?					
19. To what extent do you feel free to express your ideas in class?					
20. To what extent do you feel that your teacher sees you as an important member of your class?					
21. To what extent does the teacher tell you what to do all the time?					
22. To what extent does the teacher not take time to explain things to the class?					
23. To what extent do you feel you can make progress when you are allowed to choose what to learn?					
24. To what extent does the teacher make use of the local environment during teaching?					
25. To what extent does the teacher assist you when you are working on your own?					
26. To what extent does the teacher give you the opportunity to conduct experiments in class?					
27. To what extent do you not feel accepted by the teacher?					

	1	2	3	4	5
28. To what extent does the teacher allow you to collect things from the environment that are used during lessons in class?					
29. To what extent do you find it important to achieve at school?					
30. To what extent do you feel you can cope with your school work?					
31. To what extent do you feel that the teacher loves you?					
32. To what extent do you feel nervous when the teacher calls on you?					
33. To what extent does the teacher cane pupils?					
34. To what extent does the teacher talk without allowing pupils to ask questions?					
35. To what extent are you expected to work alone on things that you find difficult to do?					
36. To what extent does the teacher assist those who cannot answer his/her questions?					
37. To what extent is your class involved in community projects?					
38. To what extent does the teacher mark your exercise books regularly?					
39. To what extent do you like finding out things for yourself?					
40. To what extent does the teacher call on you during lessons?					
41. To what extent do you see yourself as a successful pupil?					
42. To what extent do you see yourself as greatly respected by others?					
43. To what extent do you feel that the teacher doesn't like you?					
44. To what extent do you enjoy being in class?					

	1	2	3	4	5
45. To what extent are you a cheerful person?					
46. To what extent do you value your relationship with your teacher?					
47. To what extent does the teacher talk about useful things in class?					
48. To what extent do you think your teacher sees you as a capable pupil?					
49. To what extent do you feel that your teacher gives you useful feedback in class?					
50. To what extent do you feel communicating with the headmaster is important?					
51. To what extent are you expected to obey the teacher?					
52. To what extent does the teacher tolerate those who ask a lot of questions?					
53. To what extent do you feel self-conscious in the company of others?					
54. To what extent do you think you are not good at all?					
55. To what extent is the teacher unable to accept pupils' mistakes?					
56. To what extent do you feel you can put up your hand in class?					
57. To what extent does the teacher shout at pupils in class?					
58. To what extent do you feel useless at times?					
59. To what extent does the teacher give you additional work?					
60. To what extent does the teacher allow you to participate in class activities?					
61. To what extent do you postpone doing your homework?					
62. To what extent does the teacher give you written work?					

	1	2	3	4	5
63. To what extent do you know that you can usually solve your own problems?					
64. To what extent does the teacher allow pupils to ask each other questions?					
65. To what extent is your school expected to raise money for buying things for the school?					
66. To what extent is the teacher patient with you when teaching?					
67. To what extent do you sometimes wish you were somebody else?					
68. To what extent does the teacher make sure that you contribute during a lesson?					
69. To what extent do you feel that others enjoy your company?					
70. To what extent do you have to tell the teacher what to do?					
71. To what extent do you feel that your teacher is fair?					
72. To what extent are you expected to make progress learning on your own?					
73. To what extent do you find it difficult to make decisions?					
74. To what extent do you have class discussions?					
75. To what extent does the teacher encourage you to answer questions in class?					

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Gender

male

female

2. Age

years

3. Grade

4. Father's education

Mother's education

Father's profession

Number of brothers and sisters

brothers

sisters

5. Do you live with your parents?

yes

no

6. Is your father presently employed?

yes

no

7. Is your mother presently employed?

yes

no

APPENDIX B : CORRELATION MATRIX

APPENDIX 8: INTERCORRELATION MATRIX

Correlation Analysis

Pearson Correlation Coefficients / Prob > |R| under Ho: Rho=0 / Number of Observations

AGE	AGE	FEDUC	MEDUC	BROS	SIS	RLIVPRN
AGE	1.00000	-0.14472	-0.12279	0.16976	0.10217	-0.04580
AGE	0.0	0.0018	0.0084	0.0002	0.0264	0.3167
	482	463	460	475	472	480
FEDUC	-0.14472	1.00000	0.65926	-0.13423	-0.04891	-0.02025
FEDUC	0.0018	0.0	0.0001	0.0034	0.2905	0.6580
	463	481	468	475	469	480
MEDUC	-0.12279	0.65926	1.00000	-0.11448	-0.03854	0.03953
MEDUC	0.0084	0.0001	0.0	0.0129	0.4070	0.3895
	460	468	477	471	465	476
BROS	0.16976	-0.13423	-0.11448	1.00000	0.11502	0.01705
BROS	0.0002	0.0034	0.0129	0.0	0.0115	0.7066
	475	475	471	492	482	490
SIS	0.10217	-0.04891	-0.03854	0.11502	1.00000	0.00741
SIS	0.0264	0.2905	0.4070	0.0115	0.0	0.8706
	472	469	465	482	488	486
RLIVPRN	-0.04580	-0.02025	0.03953	0.01705	0.00741	1.00000
	0.3167	0.6580	0.3895	0.7066	0.8706	0.0
	480	480	476	490	486	498
RTEMPLO	-0.16400	0.11135	0.05866	-0.09738	-0.13259	0.13041
	0.0003	0.0148	0.2043	0.0324	0.0036	0.0038
	473	479	470	483	480	490
RMEMPLD	-0.19368	0.24170	0.23409	-0.09555	-0.14553	0.03813
	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0348	0.0013	0.3978
	478	478	475	488	483	494
SELFC	0.03191	-0.02359	-0.11279	-0.00546	0.01355	-0.00579
	0.4846	0.6058	0.0137	0.9039	0.7653	0.8974
	482	481	477	492	488	498
INVIT	-0.04390	0.11039	0.04899	-0.00613	0.01558	-0.07989
	0.3362	0.0154	0.2856	0.8921	0.7313	0.0749
	482	481	477	492	488	498
ACCEPT	-0.04293	0.07004	0.04920	-0.05546	0.04323	-0.11961
	0.2740	0.1250	0.2835	0.2194	0.3406	0.0075
	482	481	477	492	488	498
PERF	-0.17620	0.08153	0.03075	-0.08986	-0.08284	-0.00974

PERF	0.0001 482	0.0740 481	0.5029 477	0.0463 492	0.0675 488	0.8283 498
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Pearson Correlation Coefficients / Prob > |R| under Ho: Rho=0 / Number of Observations

	REEMPLD	RHEMLD	SELEFC	INVIT	ACCEPT	PERF
AGE	-0.16400	-0.19368	0.03191	-0.04390	-0.04993	-0.17620
AGE	0.0003 473	0.0001 478	0.4846 482	0.3362 482	0.2740 482	0.0001 482
FEDUC	0.11135	0.24170	-0.02359	0.11039	0.07004	0.08153
FEDUC	0.0148 479	0.0001 478	0.6058 481	0.0154 481	0.1250 481	0.0740 481
MEDUC	0.05866	0.23409	-0.11279	0.04899	0.04920	0.03075
MEDUC	0.2043 470	0.0001 475	0.0137 477	0.2856 477	0.2835 477	0.5029 477
BROS	-0.09738	-0.09555	-0.00546	-0.00613	-0.05546	-0.08986
BROS	0.0324 483	0.0348 488	0.9039 492	0.8921 492	0.2194 492	0.0463 492
SIS	-0.13259	-0.14553	0.01355	0.01558	0.04323	-0.08284
SIS	0.0036 480	0.0013 483	0.7653 488	0.7313 488	0.3406 488	0.0675 488
RLIVERN	0.13041	0.03813	-0.00579	-0.07989	-0.11961	-0.00974
RLIVERN	0.0038 490	0.3978 494	0.8974 498	0.0749 498	0.0075 498	0.8283 498
REEMPLD	1.00000	0.26034	-0.03889	-0.03251	-0.06037	0.17847
REEMPLD	0.0 491	0.0001 488	0.3899 491	0.4723 491	0.1817 491	0.0001 491
RHEMLD	0.26034	1.00000	-0.06163	-0.01859	-0.05167	0.16517
RHEMLD	0.0001 488	0.0 495	0.1710 495	0.6798 495	0.2512 495	0.0002 495
SELEFC	-0.03889	-0.06163	1.00000	0.09982	0.21239	0.09462
SELEFC	0.3899 491	0.1710 495	0.0 500	0.0256 500	0.0001 500	0.0344 500
INVIT	-0.03251	-0.01859	0.09982	1.00000	0.49253	0.21307
INVIT	0.4723 491	0.6798 495	0.0256 500	0.0 500	0.0001 500	0.0001 500
ACCEPT	-0.06037	-0.05167	0.21239	0.49253	1.00000	0.17064
ACCEPT	0.1817 491	0.2512 495	0.0001 500	0.0001 500	0.0 500	0.0001 500

PERF
PERF

0.17047
0.0001
491

0.16517
0.0002
495

0.09462
0.0344
500

0.21307
0.0001
500

0.17064
0.0001
500

1.00000
0.0
500

APPENDIX C : REGRESSION ANALYSIS

APPENDIX C: RESULTS OF STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSES

The SAS System
 Wednesday, October 28, 1998 21

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Stepwise Procedure for Dependent Variable PERF

Step 1 Variable INVIT Entered R-square = 0.05972855 C(p) = 52.35033564

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Prob>F
Regression	1	5260.28145989	5260.28145989	27.12	0.0001
Error	427	82809.51341191	193.93328668		
Total	428	88069.79487179			

Variable	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Type II Sum of Squares	F	Prob>F
INTERCEP	46.76377546	3.83175178	28885.29159191	148.94	0.0001
INVIT	5.46915473	1.05012718	5260.28145989	27.12	0.0001

Bounds on condition number: 1, 1

Step 2 Variable FEMPLD Entered R-square = 0.09010670 C(p) = 38.92817158

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Prob>F
Regression	2	7935.67897425	3967.83948713	21.09	0.0001
Error	426	80134.11589754	188.10825328		
Total	428	88069.79487179			

Variable	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Type II Sum of Squares	F	Prob>F
INTERCEP	48.37325191	3.79782207	30517.51665737	162.23	0.0001
FEMPLD	-5.37761660	1.42593458	2675.39751436	14.22	0.0002
INVIT	5.49219903	1.03425403	5304.51811606	28.20	0.0001

Bounds on condition number: 1.000035, 4.00014

Step 3 Variable AGE Entered R-square = 0.10916912 C(p) = 31.25069758

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Prob>F
Regression	3	9614.50237277	3204.83412426	17.36	0.0001
Error	425	78455.29249903	184.60068823		
Total	428	88069.79487179			

Variable	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Type II Sum of Squares	F	Prob>F
INTERCEP	72.47594430	8.83366843	12426.21584662	67.31	0.0001
AGE	-1.87521824	0.62182184	1678.82339852	9.09	0.0027
FEMPLD	-4.62539323	1.43443177	1919.42367208	10.40	0.0014
INVIT	5.42136978	1.02483521	5165.86796062	27.98	0.0001

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Bounds on condition number: 1.03166, 9.190315

Step 4 Variable ACCEPT Entered R-square = 0.12387711 C(p) = 25.78384961

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Prob>F
Regression	4	10909.83203232	2727.45800808	14.99	0.0001
Error	424	77159.96283948	181.98104443		
Total	428	88069.79487179			

Variable	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Type II Sum of Squares	F	Prob>F
INTERCEP	67.23112931	8.98837842	10181.32425691	55.95	0.0001
AGE	-1.79051048	0.61820983	1526.53959293	8.39	0.0040
FEMPLD	-4.77227661	1.42528119	2040.21651860	11.21	0.0009

INVIT	3.82901449	1.17966473	1917.26870988	10.54	0.0013
ACCEPT	2.84047477	1.06466716	1295.32965955	7.12	0.0079

Bounds on condition number: 1.349395, 19.04539

Step 5 Variable MEMPLD Entered R-square = 0.13412884 C(p) = 22.57932552

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Prob>F
Regression	5	11812.69953795	2362.53990759	13.11	0.0001
Error	423	76257.09533385	180.27682112		
Total	428	88069.79487179			

Variable	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Type II Sum of Squares	F	Prob>F
INTERCEP	66.72579268	8.94904137	10022.46026727	55.59	0.0001
AGE	-1.59504825	0.62147635	1187.51287879	6.59	0.0106
FEMPLD	-4.00920859	1.45899477	1361.28709424	7.55	0.0063
MEMPLD	-3.63184075	1.62287373	902.86750563	5.01	0.0257
INVIT	3.92598948	1.17492741	2012.87165387	11.17	0.0009
ACCEPT	2.90259786	1.06003375	1351.68111948	7.50	0.0064

Bounds on condition number: 1.350321, 29.7065

All variables left in the model are significant at the 0.0500 level.
 No other variable met the 0.0500 significance level for entry into the model.

The SAS System

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Wednesday, October 28, 1998 23

Summary of Stepwise Procedure for Dependent Variable PERF

Step	Variable Entered	Variable Removed	Number In	Partial R**2	Model R**2	C(p)	F	Prob>F	Label
1	INVIT		1	0.0597	0.0597	52.3503	27.1242	0.0001	

2	FEMPLD	2	0.0304	0.0901	38.9282	14.2226	0.0002	FEMPLD
3	AGE	3	0.0191	0.1092	31.2507	9.0944	0.0027	AGE
4	ACCEPT	4	0.0147	0.1239	25.7838	7.1179	0.0079	
5	MEMPLD	5	0.0103	0.1341	22.5793	5.0082	0.0257	MEMPLD

The SAS System
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Stepwise Procedure for Dependent Variable SELFC

Step 1 Variable MEDUC Entered R-square = 0.01129932 C(p) = 8.47445822

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Prob>F
Regression	1	2.41699484	2.41699484	4.88	0.0277
Error	427	211.48919421	0.49529085		
Total	428	213.90618905			

Variable	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Type II Sum of Squares	F	Prob>F
INTERCEP	3.48370121	0.04077708	3615.01262848	7298.77	0.0001
MEDUC	-0.05368081	0.02430028	2.41699484	4.88	0.0277

Bounds on condition number: 1, 1

All variables left in the model are significant at the 0.0500 level.
 No other variable met the 0.0500 significance level for entry into the model.

Summary of Stepwise Procedure for Dependent Variable SELFC

Step	Variable Entered	Variable Removed	Number In	Partial R**2	Model R**2	C(p)	F	Prob>F	Label
1	MEDUC		1	0.0113	0.0113	8.4745	4.8800	0.0277	MEDUC

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 Wednesday, October 28, 1998 25

23:49

Stepwise Procedure for Dependent Variable ACCEPT

Step 1 Variable INVIT Entered R-square = 0.25629254 C(p) = 24.13144704

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Prob>F
Regression	1	55.52307158	55.52307158	147.15	0.0001
Error	427	161.11636229	0.37732169		
Total	428	216.63943387			

Variable	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Type II Sum of Squares	F	Prob>F
INTERCEP	1.47504714	0.16901571	28.73885259	76.17	0.0001
INVIT	0.56189150	0.04632033	55.52307158	147.15	0.0001

Bounds on condition number: 1, 1

Step 2 Variable SELFC Entered R-square = 0.28536077 C(p) = 8.57689088

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Prob>F
Regression	2	61.82039556	30.91019778	85.05	0.0001
Error	426	154.81903831	0.36342497		
Total	428	216.63943387			

Variable	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Type II Sum of Squares	F	Prob>F
INTERCEP	0.98241715	0.20376402	8.44795616	23.25	0.0001
SELFC	0.17355070	0.04169229	6.29732398	17.33	0.0001
INVIT	0.53312787	0.04598150	48.85525296	134.43	0.0001

Bounds on condition number: 1.023105, 4.092419

Step 3 Variable SEX Entered R-square = 0.29570338 C(p) = 4.33089875

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Prob>F
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Regression	3	64.06101250	21.35367083	59.48	0.0001
Error	425	152.57842137	0.35900805		
Total	428	216.63943387			

Variable	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	Type II Sum of Squares	F	Prob>F
INTERCEP	0.79288714	0.21626554	4.82561055	13.44	0.0003
SEX	0.14480415	0.05796279	2.24061694	6.24	0.0129
SELFC	0.17152175	0.04144612	6.14858084	17.13	0.0001
INVIT	0.52797370	0.04574777	47.81772241	133.19	0.0001

The SAS System

Wednesday, October 28, 1998 26

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Bounds on condition number: 1.02519, 9.154313

All variables left in the model are significant at the 0.0500 level.
 No other variable met the 0.0500 significance level for entry into the model.

Summary of Stepwise Procedure for Dependent Variable ACCEPT

Step	Variable Entered	Removed	Number In	Partial R**2	Model R**2	C(p)	F	Prob>F	Label
1	INVIT		1	0.2563	0.2563	24.1314	147.1505	0.0001	
2	SELFC		2	0.0291	0.2854	8.5769	17.3277	0.0001	
3	SEX		3	0.0103	0.2957	4.3309	6.2411	0.0129	SEX