UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHERS: A CASE

STUDY IN THE CAPE COAST METROPOLIS

MAXWELL KWESI GRAVES NYATSIKOR

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BY

MAXWELL KWESI GRAVES NYATSIKOR

Thesis submitted to the Department of Educational Foundations of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast in partial fulfillments of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Educational Psychology

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this Thesis is the result of my original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:……………………........... Date: ………………….

Candidate's Name: Maxwell Kwesi Graves Nyatsikor

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the Thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:……………………….. Date:………………..

Name: Mr. Koawo Anosem Edjah

Co-Supervisor's Signature:……………………..…… Date:………………..

Name: Mr. Bakari Yusuf Dramanu

ABSTRACT

The study sought to examine senior high school students' expectations of teachers' classroom behaviour with respect to teaching, discipline and personal qualities. The cross-sectional descriptive survey design was used for the study. The sample for the study was drawn through purposive and stratified sampling based on gender.

A total of 400 students drawn from four senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis namely; St.Augustine's College, Holy Child Senior High, Academy of Christ the King and University Practice Senior High took part in the study. A 24-item questionnaire was used for the data collection. Percentages, Chi-square, and Spearman rank order coefficient at alpha level of 0.05 were used in the analysis of data.

The study revealed that there was no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching, discipline and personal qualities. There was however a significant relationship in day and boarding students expectations of teachers manner of teaching, discipline and personal qualities. Students expect teachers to know a great deal about the subject they teach, praise them for behaving well and working hard and also to be patient, understanding, kind and sympathetic.

The study recommends the need for teachers not to resort to the use of the cane as a mode of enforcing discipline. The study also recommends the need for teachers to have a great deal of knowledge about the subject they teach. Finally, it is recommended that teachers be patient and kind in the course of teaching.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents: Ex-SGT Emmanuel Kwame Nyatsikor and Janet Christiana Esseni as well as my siblings who helped to lift me up where I belong.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Teaching has always been a complex role, and it has become more so as schools have taken on increased social responsibility. The role expectations of teachers continue to change with the dynamics of the society (Arends, 1991). According to Arends (1994), the nineteenth century role expectations of the teacher was teaching basic literacy and number with the curriculum dominated by what later came to be called the three Rs - Reading, Writing and Arithmetic.

The twentieth century has seen expanded role expectations of teachers and schools for that matter, to include the provision of health care, counselling and other mental health functions which are duties that in earlier eras belonged to the family or the church (Arends, 1994). According to Wright (1962), there has been the tendency in recent years to place increasing responsibility on the teacher in such things as mental health, attitudes, values and social awareness of adolescents and students in general. However, there are no indications that pupils, and for that matter students, expect these services from their teachers or that when they are rendered, they have good effect.

According to Musgrove (1966), the teacher, like any other member of society, plays many social roles in accordance with the different statuses he or she

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occupies both in his or her private and public lives. However, the nature of the teacher's occupation places him or her in a special position of having a complicated set of roles. The teacher, as it were, is in between the world of youth and the adult world, trying to meet the claims of his or her pupils while reconciling them with the expectations of their parents, and relating both to the needs of society at large. The teacher has, on one hand, an academic role concerned with the scholarship, and on the other hand, he is a character trainer concerned with the development of the child's whole personality.

In fact, Musgrove (1966) wrote that the teacher's principal roles include being an academic specialist, a methodologist and a character trainer. Teaching is further complicated by the fact that it is far more than a sharing of knowledge. Ayers (2001) states it this way:

> Before I stepped into my first classroom as a teacher, I
>
> thought teaching was mainly instruction, partly performing,
>
> certainly being in the front and at the centre of classroom life.
>
> Later, with much chaos and some pain, I learned that this is
>
> the least of it – teaching includes a more splendorous range of
>
> actions. Teaching is instructing, advising, counselling, model-
>
> ling, coaching, disciplining, prodding, preaching, persuading,
>
> proselytizing, listening, interacting, nursing, and inspiring.
>
> Teachers must be experts and generalists and cops, rabbis
>
> and priests, judges and gurus (p.4).

According to Elliot, Kratochwill, Cook and Travers (2000), the three kinds of information that teachers should need to become outstanding and successful include teaching knowledge (managing the classroom, instructional techniques etc) subject matter knowledge (facts, structures, beliefs etc) and teaching subject matter knowledge (how to make a subject understandable to others).

However, Morrison and McIntyre (1972), noted that in the midst of the ever-changing roles of the teacher, the fundamental expectation of students of the teacher is to teach. In other words, the primary task of the teacher, which manifests as an expectation of students, is the intellectual task. This statement appears to be true for all stages of education from infants' school to the university.

Kratz (1896) reported an investigation that showed that school children demanded first and foremost of their teacher's 'help in study'. Hollis (1935), cited by Morrison and McIntyre (1972), conducted a research with 8,000 children of different ages in both mixed and single-sex schools; the characteristic of teachers which they valued most highly was 'ability to explain difficulties patiently'. Other teacher characteristics they valued in descending order of importance were: 'sympathy'; 'fairness'; 'humour'; 'readiness to accept children's questions'; 'wide interest'; and 'firm discipline'.

In Ghana, a strike action by members of the National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT) during the 2006/2007 academic year brought to light how some sections of the society perceived the role expectations of the Ghanaian teacher. In the various print and electronic media, the clergy, academia,

parents, and in fact persons from all walks of life pleaded with teachers to go back to the classroom to teach. The Minister responsible for Education was reported in both the print and electronic media to have appealed to the headmasters and mistresses in the various senior high schools to temporarily engage retired as well as serving teachers who were in their communities to assist in teaching examination students so that they would not fail in their exams (Daily Guide, October 13, 2006).

More emphasis was focused especially on the final year students to pass their impending West African Senior Secondary School Certificate Examinations. There was virtually no appeal to teachers to consider such important psychological factors as security, love, affection, sympathy, belongingness, recognition, dignity and attention that their students need and expect from them and which play important roles in shaping the students personalities.

Stakeholders such as the Ghana Education Service (GES), Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) and School Management Committees (SMCs) are all concerned, primarily, about the teacher's ability to help or teach students to pass their examinations. The introduction of the ranking of the performance of senior high schools in the school certificate examinations has placed more pressure on school authorities than ever to emphasize on the teacher's pedagogical abilities to meet students' intellectual needs. Society, it may seem, judges the standard and performance of schools only in the academic or intellectual domain.

These observations are in line with a research carried out by Allen (1959), cited by Morrison and McIntyre (1972). In that study, both boys and girls in

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English secondary modern schools were found to have highly rated the teacher's 'competence as an instructor' and 'his pedagogical skills'. They also wanted their teacher to 'make lessons interesting' 'take a joke' and to be 'friendly and approachable'.

In the case of university students, Morrison & McIntyre (1972) found out in a study that students demanded first and foremost of a lecturer that he 'presents his or her material clearly and logically'. The students who took part in the inquiry rated forty lecturer characteristics. At the top of the list were: 'enables student to understand the basic principles of the subject' and 'makes his or her material intelligibly meaningful'. Far less weight was attached to a lecturer's more 'human' characteristics such as: 'has a sympathetic attitude towards students'; 'is spontaneous and friendly'; and 'appears to enjoy teaching'.

Sarason and Doris (1968) observed that teachers' roles vary in a number of dimensions with regards to the grade level they teach (kindergarten, elementary, junior and senior high), the kind of child they teach (retarded, disturbed, and physically handicapped), and the area of subject matter specialization (say, physical education, mathematics and English language). Others include the length of teacher experience, type of teacher training background and sex. Each of these dimensions perhaps serves as a basis for understanding the role of the teacher in the culture of the school.

However, according to Arends (1998), teachers, regardless of the levels they teach, subject area specialization, or the types of schools in which they teach, essentially perform three important functions namely; executive function

(providing leadership to a group of students); interactive function (providing direct, face to face instruction to students) and organizational function, (working together with colleagues and others to meet the mission and vision of the school).

A careful consideration of the mission statements of some senior high schools in Ghana reveals that the primary concern of almost all of these schools is the intellectual task. School authorities, parents and society in general are almost always interested in the academic prowess of their students and wards without much consideration of their psychological needs. That is to say, of the three domains of education, schools and teachers seem to be more interested in the cognitive domain. The affective and psychomotor domains it appears are largely relegated to the background.

Statement of the Problem

According to the international students' edition of the Collins Cobuild Advanced Learners English Dictionary, to expect is to 'think or believe that something would happen or that something will come' (p.496). Similarly, according to the Chambers 21st century English Dictionary, to expect is to 'think of something as likely to happen or come' (p.459). According to Perrot (1982), expectations exert powerful emotional effects. This is vividly illustrated by culture shock, that is, the emotional reaction that first-time travellers to foreign countries experience as they encounter strange behaviour patterns that violate their own cultural norms.

In our various senior high schools, first year students also go through a kind of shock as they experience some school cultures they are new to and may consider weird in the first few days before they become used to the system. Hayes (1993) noted that expectations can be said to be cognitive and that they are to do with what we are thinking and how we understand the situation.

According to Bull and Solity (1989), and Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1990), among other roles and expectations, the teacher acts as agents of change. They take decisions on what to teach, and how to teach it. They arrange the classroom environment in ways which enable children to learn more quickly and effectively than they would do alone. They also create positive classroom atmosphere which promotes successful learning. Teachers carefully observe the progress their pupils make and judge the outcomes of their teaching in terms what the children learn.

In the Ghanaian situation, schools, PTAs and SMCs seem to be interested solely in the students' academic performance. Less importance is placed on the other expectations of students of the teacher with regards to recognition, love, belonging, dignity and attention. The strong feeling that teachers have about the complexity of their task stems from the awareness that they are expected to bring their children (if not all, most) to a certain academic level by a time criterion which they have to meet. Faced with numbers and diversity of children and the pressure to adhere to a time schedule presents the teacher not only with a difficult task but an impossible one.

The new educational reform in Ghana which took effect on September 11th 2007 also seems to place a huge task on the teachers' ability to teach effectively.

Stressing more on this need, the reform has recommended the establishment of a National Council for Teachers, a body separated from the Ghana Education Service but under the Ministry of Education to supervise, monitor and maintain academic standards in all schools as if to imply that that is the only need and expectation of students.

According to Morrison and McIntyre (1972), in a study of the expectations of adolescent students, it was found that the teacher's method of teaching was adjudged to be his or her most important attribute. Of less importance were the teacher's 'personality' and 'his or her mode of enforcing discipline'. Gump (1964; 1967) indirectly studied pupils' expectations by asking them which of their classes they found especially good, satisfying, worthwhile and enjoyable. The results of the study revealed that first in importance was subject matter. The second was the type of classroom activity that the lesson required and the third, the teacher's personal and social qualities.

From the above research findings and diverse observations, one wonders if the Ghanaian senior high school student shares similar or different expectations with other students of different countries or cultures. This study therefore seeks to investigate the Ghanaian senior high school students' expectations of teachers in the classroom situation with respect to the manner of teaching, manner of enforcing discipline and desirable personal qualities.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study therefore, was to investigate senior high school students' expectations of teachers with regards to teachers' manner of teaching, manner of enforcing discipline and desirable personal qualities. Specifically the study focused on examining:

1. The different kinds of expectations students have about teachers.

2. Sex differences in students expectations.

3. Day and boarding students' expectations of teachers.

Research Questions

What are senior high school students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching, way of enforcing discipline, and desirable personal qualities? The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. Is there any difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching?

2. Is there any difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline?

3. Is there any difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities?

4. Is there any relationship in day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching?

5. Is there any relationship in day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline?

6. Is there any relationship in day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities?

Hypotheses

From the research questions, the following hypotheses were tested:

1. H_o: There is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching.

   H_i: There is a significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching.

2. H_o: There is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

   H_i: There is a significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

3. H_o: There is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities.

   H_i: There is a significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities.

4. H_o: There is no significant relationship in the expectations of day and boarding students with regards to teachers' manner of teaching.

   H_i: There is a significant relationship in the expectations of day and boarding students with regards to teachers' manner of teaching.

5. H_o: There is no significant relationship in the expectations of day and boarding students of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

H_{i:} There is a significant relationship in the expectations of day boarding

students of teachers' manner enforcing discipline.

6.   H_o: There is no significant relationship in the expectations of day and

boarding students of teachers' desirable personal qualities.

H_{i:} There is a significant relationship in the expectations of day and

boarding students of teachers' desirable personal qualities.

Significance of the Study

Primarily, the study would draw the attention of teachers to other psychological needs of students such as recognition, love, attention, dignity, belongingness, order, self esteem, respect and security, and not only on academic excellence. When teachers are able to meet the psychological and affective needs of students without neglecting the academic needs, students develop into integrated personalities who fit better into society.

The findings of this study, to a greater measure, will help teachers to exhibit the appropriate skills and behaviour in a given school environment. It is believed that the findings of this study would be beneficial to both teachers and students alike in meeting the different kinds of students' expectations stemming from differences in maturity, level of education, school settings, social class background, and student perceptions.

The findings of the study, it is hoped, would encourage the government, school administrators, teachers and parents to recognize the diverse expectations of students and adopt the appropriate policies and programmes to meet their

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diverse needs and not to treat students as if they had the same expectations. There is therefore no doubt that this research work will greatly contribute to knowledge and update existing ones.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was restricted to four public senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis in the Central Region of Ghana. Students in basic schools, technical institutions, polytechnics, colleges of education and the universities were not included in the study.

The study was delimited to only three areas of teacher's classroom behaviour – manner of teaching, manner of enforcing discipline and desirable personal qualities. Respondents for the study were also drawn from schools in the urban area. By implication, schools in the rural areas were not included in this study.

Limitations of the Study

The study covered only students in the country's public senior high schools. It is therefore acknowledged that the generalization of the findings to cover pupils in basic schools as well as students in polytechnics, colleges of education and the universities would be limited. Besides, the total sample size for the study might not adequately reflect the generality of expectations of senior high school students everywhere.

It is also acknowledged that the schools involved in the study were all perceived to be endowed schools hence the probability that they share peculiar expectations limited to urban schools.

Definition of Terms

The working definitions used for the study were:

Expectation: To demand or require as a person's duty.

Teacher: A person employed in an official capacity for the purposes of guiding and directing the learning experiences of pupils or students in an educational institution, whether, public or private (Good, 1973).

Student: A boy or girl attending a Senior High School.

Single-sex school: Educational institutions where only females or males learn.

Mixed-sex school: Educational institutions where male and female students learn at the same time and in the same classroom.

Boarding school: Educational institutions that provide comprehensive accommodation and feeding services for students.

Day school: Educational institutions that do not provide comprehensive boarding and feeding services for students.

Organization of the rest of the Study

In Chapter 1 the background to the study, statement of the problem, and the purpose of the study have been presented. Also, in the same chapter are the

research questions and hypothesis as well as the delimitation and limitations of the study. In Chapter 2 the literature review focuses on theoretical background and empirical studies related to the problem under study. Chapter 3 of the thesis discusses the research methodology. The research design, population, sample and sampling procedures, the instrument, data collection method(s) and finally the statistical tools used in analyzing the results of the study are discussed.

Chapter 4 presents the results and findings of the study. The chapter is divided into two main parts: one part deals with the analysis of the results while the other part discuses the findings of the study. A summary of the major findings, conclusions, recommendations as well as suggestions for further research are presented in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter is in two main parts: the theoretical literature and empirical literature. The theoretical literature focuses on some of the major theories of learning, motivation, self-concept and perception. These theories that have been reviewed explain how people form expectations about the social environment, events, and situations. In the empirical review, studies that have been conducted to support or disprove these theoretical positions are examined.

Theoretical Review

Various theories have been put forward to explain the causes, nature, and factors influencing behaviour and expectations of people. Those that are relevant to this study and which are reviewed in this chapter include the following:

i)   Classical Conditioning Theory.

ii)   Instrumental Learning Theory.

iii) Maslow's Theory of Motivation.

iv)   Vroom's Expectancy Theory.

 v)   Social Cognitive Learning Theory.

vi)   Rogers' Self Theory.

vii) Social Perception Theory.

Classical Conditioning Theory

Classical conditioning is the basic form of association learning. It is a kind of learning in which a previously neutral stimulus comes to elicit a response through its association with a stimulus that naturally brings about the response. Pavlov's (1927) classical conditioning takes place when a neutral (conditioned) stimulus gradually gains the ability to elicit a response because of its pairing with a natural (unconditioned) stimulus. Learning arises from two stimuli being paired together so that the automatic response to the original stimulus is learnt in connection with a second, previously neutral one.

Although the initial experiments were carried out with animals, classical conditioning principles were soon found to explain many aspects of everyday human behaviour. Pavlov (1927) came to the conclusion that all human learning was due to conditioning. Emotional responses are particularly likely to be learned through classical conditioning processes. Much of the affective behaviour (feelings and emotions) that students demonstrate in class can be explained by the work of Pavlov. Childhood fears, anxieties, joys and expectations can be traced to conditions within the classroom frequently without the awareness of their teachers.

The implication of the theory is that in the various senior high schools, students become conditioned to individual teacher's behaviour, subjects, and other experiences and activities. It is not surprising that through conditioning,

students have associated certain personality traits such as warm, wicked, friendly, brilliant, disciplinarian, stern, and principled with teachers. In the same vein, students have learned to associate different kinds of expectations with different categories of schools either through explicit means such as orientation exercise for first year students at the beginning each academic year or implicitly through the kind of school culture students are exposed to in those schools.

Instrumental Learning Theory

The central theme or thrust of the instrumental learning theory is that all learning is the formation of bonds or connections between stimulus and response. Thorndike (1934) and later on Skinner (1938) developed this learning theory by engaging animals in a series of experiments. Thorndike (1934) believed that all learning is explained by connections (or bonds) that are formed between stimuli and responses. These connections occur mainly through trial and error, a process Thorndike later designated as connectionism, or learning by selecting and connecting. Animals in problem solving situations tried to attain a goal such as obtaining food. From the many responses they performed, they selected one, performed it, and experienced the consequences. The more often they made a response to a stimulus, the more firmly that response becomes connected to that stimulus.

Out of the experiment came the idea of reinforcement. Convinced of the importance of reinforcement, Skinner (1974) developed an explanation of learning that stresses the consequences of behaviour that is, what happens after

we do something is all-important. According to Bales (1990), Skinner argued that the environment (that is, parents, teachers and peers) reacts to our behaviour and either reinforces or eliminates that behaviour. Rather than viewing internal cognitive structures and developmental stages as factors, Skinner (1938) believed that learning can be described by the positive and negative interactions that the learner has with people and things in the environment.

According to the theory, associations are formed mechanically through repetition; conscious awareness is not necessary. Thorndike (1934) and Skinner (1974) believed that it was not necessary for an organism to understand that there was a link between a response and a reward. Instead, Thorndike (1934) and Skinner (1974) thought that over time, and through experience, the organism would make a direct connection between the stimulus and the response without any awareness that the connection existed.

Thorndike (1934) and Skinner (1974) later concluded that the concept of reinforcement can be extended to human learning. Reinforcement has proven to be a powerful tool in the shaping and control of behaviour, both in and out of the classroom. Learning, according to Skinner (1974), is explained by the impact that environmental events have on people. The environment holds the key to understanding behaviour.

Pupils will learn more readily if the outcome of what is learnt produced pleasant consequences. In the Ghanaian senior high schools, students' behaviour, responses and expectations can be explained with respect to instrumental learning

theory. Students are encouraged to study harder if they receive pleasurable consequences such as prizes, commendations, and other privileges in the school.

With time, students learn to connect the attainment of high grades or success in academic work to self determination and longer hours of serious studies. Students expectations are formed and shaped through the connections they establish about teachers throughout their stay in and out of campus. Students learn to connect good behaviour with pleasurable consequences. Where students are praised and commended for behaving well, they are more likely to remain disciplined and subsequently conform to the school's expectations.

Maslow's Theory of Motivation

Maslow's (1987) theory of motivation postulates the fact that human beings are driven to achieve their maximum potential and will always do so unless obstacles are placed in their way. Maslow (1987) theorized that human needs are met in five levels or stages. These need levels are physiological needs, safety needs, love and belongingness needs. The others are esteem needs and the need for self actualization.

The physiological needs are the most potent of all the needs yet the least significant for self-actualization. The physiological needs include hunger, sex and thirst. They are referred to as physiological needs because they serve the function of the maintenance of the organism and other drives with a somatic basis. The most fundamental needs have priority over those at a higher rank for healthy level needs such as being valued by others. A student who comes to school without

breakfast because there is no food in the house presents an example of this type of need.

The safety needs are concerned with security, stability, dependency, protection, freedom from fear and need for structure and order. The safety needs become the dominant force in the personality of the individual when the physiological needs are successfully fulfilled. Such needs are most obvious in infants and children as in the young child's fear of strangers.

The needs of belongingness and love stage emphasize the basic psychological nature of human beings to identify with the group life. These are needs of making intimate relationship with other members of the society, being an accepted member of an organized group, needing a familiar environment as family.

The fourth level of the hierarchy includes two sets of esteem needs, representing the need for self-esteem and esteem from others. The first set of needs includes desires for strength, achievement, mastery and competence, confidence and independence. The second set includes the needs for respect and esteem from others, incorporating the desires for fame, status, dominance, attention and dignity. The highest need level is for self-actualization. Self-actualization is the tendency to feel restless unless we are being all that we can be.

Maslow (1987) believed that this theoretical model of five needs is applicable to every human being with those needs at the base of the hierarchy assumed to be more basic relative to the needs above them in the hierarchy. Maslow (1987) makes it clear that students who come to the classroom with

unmet lower level need are going to struggle academically. At any stage of the hierarchy, the individual is concerned with specific needs. As an individual satisfies one level of need a higher need emerges.

In the Ghanaian senior high schools, students would expect teachers to show love, kindness, respect and recognize them as social beings. They are not to be seen or regarded only as interested in learning but as individuals with varying levels of physiological and psychological needs to be met. Students would desire to be recognized, gain approval, and achieve higher laurels and excelling at their various programmes of study and endeavours.

Students would also expect favourable judgments from peers and teachers based on honest achievement. Deserving, hardworking students would expect their efforts recognized by teachers through the award of prizes and representing their schools in the various districts, municipal, metropolitan, regional and national competitions. Students would expect teachers to help them recognize their potential and guide them into activities that will enable them to feel both competent and fulfilled.

It is therefore very important that teachers do not only emphasize on academic work, but help students achieve the fullest of whatever they are capable of doing. In achieving all these, students expect their teachers to provide opportunities and the deserved reinforcements. The senior high school teacher who works hard to create a safe, stress-free, caring and favorable classroom atmosphere is assisting students with an important basic need. Once lower level

needs are met, the academic work that takes place in schools helps students meet the higher level needs of self-respect and self actualization.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory of Motivation

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation says that individuals have different sets of goals and can be motivated if they have certain expectations. This theory also holds that people are goal-oriented beings. To a large extent, a person's behaviour is a result of individual wants (values) and considerations of what is true about the world or oneself. Just as these values and beliefs differ from person to person, the relative importance which people attach to these factors will vary and be instrumental in determining what specific actions will or will not be taken by one individual under any particular set of circumstances.

Indeed, the same person may, in essentially identical situations, choose to perform different behaviours. The expectation theory of motivation offers the following propositions;

i) When deciding among behavioural options, individuals select the option with the greatest motivation forces; and

ii) The motivational force for a behaviour, action, or task is a function of three distinct perceptions. These are expectancy, instrumentality and valence. The motivational force is the product of the three perceptions. MF = Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence.

The expectancy probability is based on the perceived effort-performance relationship. The expectancy is the belief that one's effort (E) will result in the

attainment of desired performance (P) goals. This belief, or perception, is generally based on an individual's past experience, self confidence and the perceived difficulty of the performance standard or goal. For example a student might ponder over the probability of the relationship between the number of hours spent in studying a particular subject and the score he or she gets on that subject at the end of the term. The expectancy perception is affected by such variables as self-efficacy, goal difficulty and perceived control over performance.

According to Vroom (1964), goals that are set too high or performance expectations that are too difficult lead to low expectancy perceptions. When individuals perceive that the outcome is beyond their ability to influence, expectancy, and thus motivation is low based on perceived – reward relationship. The instrumentality function is the belief that if one does meet performance expectations, he or she will receive a greater reward. This reward may come in the form of promotion, recognition, and pay increase or sense of accomplishment.

Vroom (1964) noted that when it is perceived that valued reward follow all levels of performance, then instrumentality is low. For example if a particular teacher is known to give everyone in the class an 'A' grade regardless of performance level, then instrumentality is low. Among the factors to influence or affect the individual's instrumentality include trust, control and policies.

When students trust their teachers, they are more likely to believe teachers assurance that students performance will be rewarded. At the same time when students believe that they have some kind of control over how, when, and why rewards are distributed, instrumentality tends to increase. On the other hand,

teachers who fail to give student choices about what they do in the classroom and make all their education decisions for them are negatively influencing their sense of control.

The degree to which reward systems are formalized in written policies has an impact on the individuals' instrumentality perception. Formalized policies linking rewards to performance tend to increase instrumentality. The valence probability aspect of the motivational force refers to the value individual personally places on the reward [V (R)]. This is a function of his or her needs, goals and values. Because motivational force is the product of the three perceptions, if any one of the values is zero, the whole equation becomes zero. The expectancy theory in effect, helps us to understand the varied students' expectations of their teachers.

The theory also implies that students need to understand that to a large extent, a teacher's behaviour is a result of his or her individual values and considerations of what is true about the world or oneself. Students therefore should not expect all their teachers to exhibit the same behavioural and motivational tendencies since they may have different values which indirectly influence their behaviour. Some teachers would attach more value to morality than others. Some teachers would value grades more than stressing on discipline. Yet others too would value their personal qualities over other considerations.

At all times, students would expect their teachers to set specific, relevant and achievable goals. If goals are set too high beyond student's ability, their motivation will be low and so will be their expectations. Students would expect

school authorities to offer regular guidance and counselling sessions to help them make the right decisions and adopt appropriate behaviour and values.

Social Cognitive Theory

According to Bandura (1977; 1986), much of human learning occurs in a social environment. The central theme of the social cognitive theory has to do with observation, modeling and imitation. The theory stresses that not only do individuals observe and imitate but also, they act in accordance with beliefs about their capabilities and the expected outcomes of their actions.

Bandura (1999) calls attention to the fact that people do not respond passively or automatically to external conditions around them. Instead they plan, form expectations, set goals, imagine various outcomes and so on. By observing others, Bandura (1989) intimated that people acquire skills, knowledge, rules, expectations and strategies. Individuals also learn from models the usefulness and appropriateness of behaviours, and the consequences of modelled behaviour.

For Bandura (2000) social cognitive learning means that the information people process from observing other people, things and events influences the way people act. Among other things, the social cognitive theory underscores the fact that:

  i) people can learn by observing the behaviours of others, as well as by observing the outcomes of those behaviours,

  ii) learning can occur without a change in behaviour,

  iii) the consequences of behaviour play a role in learning,

iv) cognition plays a role in learning.

Social cognitive learning theory assumes that the motivation to learn is external to the individual. That is, the reactions of people or the consequences of events determine whether or not a person will be more or less motivated to learn in the future. The theory further suggests that people gain knowledge of the world by watching others and how the environment reacts to their actions.

Observational learning has particular classroom relevance, because children do not do just what adults tell them to do, but rather what they see adults do. If first year students witness undesirable behaviour from say seniors or teachers that either is reinforced or goes unpunished, undesirable student behaviour may result; the reverse also is true.

Bandura's ideas have particular relevance for the classroom since they give information about the characteristics of desirable models and the personal features of students, notably their self-efficacy. Those who have high status, competence, power are more effective in prompting others to behave similarly than are models of low standing.

Teacher behaviour is likely to be imitated by students as a teacher has high status and from the students' point of view, has great power and influence over events during school time. By behaving in certain ways, the teacher cues these behaviours to be imitated by the students. By keeping their own desk tidy and writing neatly on the board, they increase the likelihood that students will also keep their belongings tidy and write neatly. By being punctual rather than late,

and making positive rather than negative comments around the classroom, the teacher provides a model of these behaviours.

The expectations of students in senior high schools in part, stems from what they observe from the school environment. Students sometimes imitate fellow colleagues whose behaviour, attitude, skills and character they admire and yield positive consequences. If students observe fellow students being rewarded, commended or praised, for exhibiting a particular behaviour other students are likely to exhibit similar behaviour.

Rogers Self Theory

Rogers (1947) believed that behaviour is influenced greatly by sense of 'self' or self-concept. The 'self' is regarded as a hypothetical construction referring to the complex set of physical, behavioural and psychological processes characteristic of the individual. According to Rogers (1980), the self-concept is a mental picture of oneself. It consists of a collection of beliefs about one's own unique characteristics and typical behaviour. What a student expects depends on his or her self-concept. A student who pictures himself or herself as brilliant will expect good grades as against a student with a negative perception of the self.

Rogers (1980) stressed that the self-concept is available to awareness and not buried in the unconscious. To Rogers (1947), the key motivational force that governs behaviour is the self-actualizing tendency. However in Rogers view or system, this implies a self-imposed pressure to behave consistently with one's self concept.

According to Rogers (1980), the key to emotional health is the development of a self that is congruent with the organism. The person's self concept should be as broad as his experience so that new thought and feelings can fully be savoured and evaluated rather than screened out on the grounds of 'that's not me' or 'that's unworthy of me'. Rogers (1947), felt that most of us do more screening out than is good for us because we were taught to do so in early childhood.

Pollard and Triggs (1997) intimated that each person is unique, with particular cultural and material experiences making up his or her 'biography'. This provides the seed-bed for their sense of 'self' and influences their personality and perspectives. Indeed, because personal qualities such as having the capacity to empathize and having the confidence to project and assert oneself are so important to teaching, much of what particular teachers will be able to achieve in their classroom will be influenced by them.

In the various educational institutions and with reference to the senior high schools in particular, at the beginning of every academic year, students with diverse expectations, backgrounds, experiences and self-concepts are admitted to the first year. However, once they begin to interact with teachers and other colleagues in the classrooms, dormitories, dining halls and other social gatherings, students' self-concepts and expectations are subtly but eventually altered.

The person with positive self concept sets goals that are appropriate and realistic. His or her expectation of the teachers is more realistic and therefore likely to find the school very fulfilling. On the other hand, the student with negative self-concept is likely to find the school and its teachers disappointing.

Social Perception Theory

Social perception focuses on the processes by which impressions, opinions and feelings about other persons are formed. Often, opinions of others are not based on direct observation but statements by others or on some surface information. Moreover, opinions and evaluations of feelings involve inferences and subjective judgment that go beyond the kind of sensory impressions that characterized certain impression or perception.

According to Calhoun and Acocella (1990), in forming our social perceptions, we are not scientists who look only at the facts and all the facts. Rather, we are more like artists, who take from reality whatever facts fit the picture that we want to paint or that we have been taught to paint. The facts that do not fit, we throw out. The facts that do seem fit, we organize in such a way that they fit even better.

Social psychologists generally agree that the formation of a social perception is a creative act because different persons perceive people differently (Hayes, 1993; Feldman, 1996; Calhoun & Acocella, 1990).

According to Weiten and Lloyd (1997); Calhoun and Acocella (1990) and Myers (1996), the ability to form social impressions is developed during childhood, through the combinations of the biological maturation of individual and socialization. Impressions and perceptions are formed of others depending on factors such as gender, role, status, profession and level of education. It is therefore not surprising that students assume or perceive teachers to be intelligent,

knowledgeable, approachable, morally upright and disciplined because of the societal perception of their status as teachers.

Throughout their experiences from the pre-school level up to the senior high school level and beyond, students have perceived teachers as a class of people whose duty it is to teach. They have also known teachers to be reservoirs of knowledge and agents of change. Students' perceptions and expectations of teachers therefore, may stem from the various stereotypic views they have formed about teachers as a result of the varied and diverse social, cultural, experiences as well as memories students have accumulated over the years.

Empirical Review

In this part of the review, studies that have been conducted to explain how perception and expectations are formed have been discussed. Issues examined were broadly classed as environmental factors and school-based factors influencing expectations.

Environmental Factors Influencing Expectations

Some issues that have been examined as environmental factors influencing expectations include;

i)   Perception and Expectations

ii)   Social Roles and Expectations

iii)   Social Class and Expectations

iv)   Societal Expectations for Schools

Perception and Expectations

According to Jones (1990), perception is more than just seeing. What we expect affect what we perceive. Arends, Tannenbaum and Winitzky (1998) observed that expectations influence our perceptions and interpretations of events. According to Hayes (1993), in a study to investigate the relationship between perception and expectation, children were to draw picture of Father Christmas at intervals through the month leading up to Christmas and the month after.

The study revealed that the children's perceptions of the Father Christmas figure, as reflected in their drawings were strongly affected by their expectations. The drawing of the Father Christmas figure got bigger and bigger as Christmas season approached indicating their high levels of expectations as the Christmas season approached. Interestingly, the sizes reduced after the Christmas season.

According to Hayes (1984); Myers (1996) and Calhoun and Acocella (1990), an experiment involving 10-year old children discovered how one's motives and interests dictated their expectations. Bruner and Goodman (1947) established a relationship between an individual's need and their expectations where the needs and values of people reflected in their expectations. Bruner and Goodman (1947) used pupils from different economic backgrounds from rich to poor homes. The pupils were shown coins and were asked to draw these coins later.

Bruner and Goodman (1947) found out that children from poor homes exaggerated the value of the coins by drawing bigger size coins whereas those from rich homes drew the coins much like the value they associated with the coins. The conclusion drawn was that the exaggeration of the sizes of the coins reflected the extent of the needs of the two groups of children. Where one attaches a higher value to a particular need, one's expectation of that value becomes very high as indicated by the drawing by the children from poor homes. Individuals from different socio-economic background are likely to have different expectations for a given event, situation and experience.

In a related study, Bruner and Minturn (1955) demonstrated how perception influenced expectation by showing groups of students either letters or numbers quickly and asking them to write down what they had seen. Bruner and Minturn (1955) showed the children an ambiguous figure, which could be seen as either letter or a number. The results of the study showed that subjects who had previously seen numbers interpreted the figure as a number while those who had earlier seen letters thought that it was a letter they had seen.

Neville (1942), cited by Weiten (1986), in a classic experiment established the relationship between the effects of bodily needs upon the expectations of individuals. Subjects who had been deprived of food for different lengths of time were showed a variety of ambiguous drawings of objects including some depicting food. The drawings were viewed through a ground glass scheme that made it difficult to see very clearly what was being shown. Subjects were asked to think of a word which could be associated to each drawing. The results revealed

that those children who had been denied food for longer periods and were very hungry interpreted the drawing they had seen more often as food. This study was later replicated and the finding confirmed by (McLennan & Atkinson, 1948).

Kelly (1950) concluded in a study in which a group of students was given a description of a visiting lecturer. As part of the background information they were given, one group of students were made to believe that the lecturer was 'warm' and to the other group, the lecturer was described as being a 'cold' person.

Once the lecture was over, those students who stayed behind to interact with the visiting lecturer were those who had received the word 'warm' in their description of the lecturer. The members of the group of students who received the word 'cold' in their description did not fraternize with the lecturer at all. The study revealed how important expectations direct how individuals respond, interact and perceive others.

Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1990) noted that just as teacher's evaluation of a student is often clouded by certain preconceived expectations, so students' ratings of their teachers are influenced in the same manner. If a student has been told that his or her new teacher "really knows his or her stuff" or "has his or her act together" or that "he or she is a hard marker but you are really going to learn something," then the student will almost certainly perceive that teacher in a positive manner and the reverse also holds true.

Social Roles and Expectations

Roles are a set of norms that define how people in a given social position or profession ought to behave. Social role on the other hand is a cluster of socially defined expectations that individuals in a given situation are expected to fulfill (Eagly, 1987; Davies & Houghton, 1995; Feldman, 1996). According to Hayes (1993), any social roles we play in life tend to generate a similar set of expectations. Not the same expectations for each role but rather different people playing the same role will be expected to have things in common with one another. According to Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1990), throughout the world, different social role expectations results in different behaviour patterns by men and women.

Maier (1955) observed that people make statements about other people from their occupations. For example it is a common perception that members of the Armed Forces are most often than not, wicked, fearful, aggressive, unfriendly and inconsiderate where as teachers are generally perceived intelligent, gentle, approachable and knowledgeable. Maier (1955) concluded that people took for granted that persons with different occupations would have different personalities.

Haney, Banks and Zimbardo (1973) in an experiment used two groups of randomly assigned subjects into prisoners and guards. The study showed that the subjects behaved in exactly how they understood the prison world and what was expected of them. The guards assumed a harsh stance where as the prisoners were observed to have relinquished their rights by kowtowing to the commands of the guards.

According to Papalia and Olds (1988), and Myers (1996), roles do not just influence behaviour, but they also cause others to have expectations about what we are likely to do. Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1990); Davies and Houghton (1995) observed that social roles are defined by society, applied to all individuals in a particular social category and consist of well-learned responses by individuals. Musgrove (1966) noted that the teachers' social roles as sources of values, attitudes, agents of change, and role models, definitely cause students to have some expectations of what teachers behaviour should be and these expectations are as varied as the perceptions and expectations of students.

Social Class and Expectations

Anyon (1980) and Goodlad (1984) examined differences in school activities based on the type of neighbourhood in which the schools were located. Hallinam and Sorensen (1983) and Oaks (1985) found that the students' academic work and subsequently their perceptions differed greatly depending on the school's social milieu. In the working-class schools, children believed that learning meant 'following the steps of a procedure'. In contrast, 'getting the right answer' signified learning in the middle-class schools. 'Independent' and 'creative activity' characterized academic work in the affluent professional schools. In the executive elite school, learning meant 'developing one's analytical and intellectual powers'.

These findings reveal that low socio economic status students have verbal abilities that may not be assessed by typical classroom tasks. As with any cultural

group, people of each socio economic status behave in ways appropriate to their subculture. Middle-class teachers expect middle-class behaviour, and when low socio economic status students behave differently, as the above studies document, teachers' expectations about their abilities are negatively affected (Marger, 2002; Arends, 1998; Rosenbaum, 1976; Rist, 1970).

Weinstein, Marshal, Brattesani and Middlestadt (1982) indicated that in a single class, students' interpretations of what is meaningful and important can vary considerably, especially when students' social backgrounds are diverse. For example students from some cultures have difficulty understanding that one asks a question to evaluate understanding. In their cultures, one asks a question only to obtain an answer. Although much behaviour in the classroom does not involve such varied meanings, teachers and students often interpret the same behaviour quite differently.

According to Sizer (1992), schools in different neighbourhood often differ in their curricular and instructional practices. Schools located in low income areas tend to be more hierarchical and autocratic, where as schools in high income areas tend to focus more on developing students' intellect and autonomy. According Evans (1971), differences in background of teachers have significant implications for the efforts that the school has on the attitudes, values, and knowledge of the pupils. If differences exist, then it becomes important to know how they are distributed among the teachers and how they relate to various background characteristics of teachers.

Metz (1990) noted that students' social class and behaviour also influence teacher behaviour and that the attitudes, behaviours, interests and capabilities of the children in the class shape the initial teaching task.

According to Arends (1998), in the various educational institutions, some students come from homes of poverty; others will come from homes in which parents do not speak English; some will be emotionally or physically different from their classmates. Working with youth from diverse cultural backgrounds and with various handicapping conditions will necessitate that beginning teachers develop effective strategies and methods far beyond those required previously.

Another problem teachers face working with working-class students, and minority children, is ability grouping and tracking. Low socio economic students are disproportionately placed in low ability groups and low-track classes. Instructional quality is poorer in these groups than in the higher groups.

Societal Expectations for Schools

According to Garbarino and Benn (1992), a family's attitude toward the education of their children makes a significant difference in the classroom achievements. Garbarino and Benn (1992) observed that parents may not necessarily be present in the classroom but they have a profound influence on the ways their children view school and learning.

The extent to which the parents support the school's objectives directly affects their children academic performance and obviously children's expectations. Too often, low parental expectations for their children reflect the

parents own educational experiences. If parents themselves encountered difficulties in school; they may exercise a negative impact on their children's attitudes, performance and expectations for schools in general. The reverse also holds true (Garbarino & Benn, 1992).

In a study, Goodlad (1983) examined the goals for schools by sampling eight thousand six hundred (8,600) parents to rate four goal areas on a scale ranging from 'little or no importance' to 'great importance' and choose from among four goals the core goals they most wanted their schools to stress. All four goals were given high rating except for vocational educational at the elementary level (although even this category received a rating of highly desirable from 55 percent of the sample) about 50 percent of all parents (but some what fewer of those with children in senior high school) elected the academic category as their first choice; the other 50 percent scattered their choice among social and civic, vocational and personal goals. There was also evidence that suggested that a substantial numbers of parents wanted their schools to assume individual attention and safety for their children.

Goodlad (1983) cited that parents, it seemed, had extraordinary faith in education and grandiose expectations for schools. Goodlad (1984) concluded that parents expected schools to teach the fundamentals, expose students to the world's knowledge, socialize them into the ways of governing and conducting economic affairs, develop their individual talents, and 'civilize' them even when parents frequently felt unable to do so. Sadly, Goodlad (1984) observed that

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successive waves of disaffection for schooling concentrate almost exclusively on the small piece of academic shoreline we measure with achievement tests.

School Related Factors Influencing Expectations

Some issues that have been examined as school factors influencing expectations include:

i)   notions towards Teaching;

ii)   the School as a Social Unit;

iii)   characteristics of Teachers;

iv)   time use for Classroom Activities;

v)   teacher Expectations; and

vi)   students Expectations.

Notions towards Teaching

Teachers as people, have opinions, perspectives, attitudes, values and beliefs. This particularly human attribute of being able to review the relationship of 'what is' and 'what ought to be' is one which teachers often manifest when considering their aims and examining their educational values and philosophies (Elliot et al. 2000). According to Arends (1998), many beginning teachers naively assume that their love of the subjects they teach will infect their students. However, their students often disappoint them in this regard and if instruction has been predicted on students' love of subject, then learning will undoubtedly suffer.

Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford (1997) and Arends et al. (1998) noted that if one's first teaching job turns out to be very different from what he or she expected one experiences a kind of work-related cultural shock, not unlike that of travellers to foreign countries for the first time. However, teachers bringing their expectations into closer alignment with how teaching really is will minimize these negative emotional experiences. Many new teachers start out with quite an idealized picture of children as victims. They assume that misbehaviour is a result of some condition external to the child, such as a disruptive home life or poverty.

Cussick, (1983); Lieberman and Miller (2001) and Arends et al. (1998) indicated that at the outset of their careers, most teachers assume that classrooms are rather tame and boring, and that teaching is fairly simple, straightforward job. Many beginning teachers also assume that they would somewhat be different and better than previous generations of teachers, that they will be more interesting, more caring, more effective, and more appreciated by their students. Moreover, many beginning teachers also think that they already possess the knowledge and skills needed to accomplish all these.

According to Ryan and Cooper (1998), most students who are preparing to become teachers have high ideals in general and become particularly idealistic about children and education during their preparation. They believe that as teachers they should have warm relations with students, and they want to make the classroom more relaxed and more responsive to the needs of students than it normally is.

Weinstein (1989) in a study surveyed student teachers in educational foundations classes about their beliefs concerning good teaching. Weinstein (1989) found that student teachers shared a very rosy outlook, which she dubbed an optimistic bias. In that study, a whooping 75 percent of elementary and 80 percent of secondary teacher education students rated themselves slightly too much above average in teaching ability.

These findings suggest that prospective teachers may be so optimistic about their natural teaching abilities that they under estimate the importance for professional training. Ryan and Cooper (1998) further noted that as college students take more education courses and observe in classrooms, their views of children become more idealistic and, as a result, more positive. Nevertheless, the beginner's unrealistic expectations are a great source of his or her problems.

There appear to be other similarities in the beginning teacher assumptions about classroom life. Most beginning teachers think teaching primarily involves telling students what teachers know then testing them on that information. They see the learner's job as simply memorizing and practicing. When teachers have difficulty with schoolwork, especially with minority or low income students, novice teachers tend to blame the trouble on students low ability, lack of motivation, or inadequate support from home (Willis,1980; Powell, Cohen & Farrar,1985; & Arends et al. 1998).

Book, Byers and Freeman (1983) in a conclusion to a study observed that beginning teachers who teach at the elementary schools value the affective domain over the intellectual domain. Beginning teachers believed that building

students' self esteem and other 'warm fuzzies' take precedence over building students' academic achievements.

In contrast, Crow (1987) in a study concluded that many secondary school teachers' conditions tend to place much more emphasis on academics, over looking affective factors important to learning. According to Ryan and Cooper (1998), the idea that all children are innately good, plus the first-year teacher's insecurities and search for approval, makes it difficult for many to deal confidently with their role as disciplinarian.

Entwistle (1970) argued that a teacher by merely loving their pupils and establishing personal rapport is not sufficient. Elliot et al. (2000) in an observation noted that apart from the love for pupils and establishment of personal rapport with students, teachers need to be academically alive with students. In spite of the diverse notions of the beginning teachers, Arends et al. (1998) indicated that beginning teachers would have to be able to adapt curriculum to make it more suitable for those students who may find school devastatingly difficult or irrelevant to their lives.

The School as a Social Unit

According to Minchin and Shapiro (1983) cited by Elliot et al. (2000) schools differ in social contexts at the preschool, elementary, and secondary levels. Pre school experiences are more protective and caring than educational, with children interacting with one or two teachers, perhaps an equal number of aides, and several peers. Minchin & Shapiro (1983) cited by Elliot et al. (2000)

further observed that at the pre school level, socialization and communication needs are paramount and experiences are shaped by adults with two important, often unarticulated goals: desirable socialization (necessary conformity) and individuation (self-expression). Although there are many fundamental similarities from school to school, at another level there are great differences.

Waller (1967) and Ryan and Cooper (1998) indicated that schools today are not alike and the actual experience of teaching in one school may be profoundly different from that in another school. Some schools stress certain types of goals and focus on certain specialties. Again some schools have more rigid structures than others, with more rules and regulations for both teachers and students.

According to Gump (1967) and Ryan and Cooper (1998), each school has its own culture – a set of beliefs, values, traditions and ways of thinking and behaving that distinguishes it from other social institutions and from other schools. Some schools emphasize student participation in school-wide fine arts activities, such as plays or musical performances. However, according to Lieberman and Miller (1992), every school attempts to socialize children by getting them to value those things the school teaches both explicitly and implicitly. The more successful students tend to accept these values; where as many of the less successful students reject the ways of thinking and behaving that the school tries to teach.

Ryan and Cooper (1998) further noted that different socioeconomic groups, different communities and different sections of the country may produce

schools that are dissimilar in certain ways. Even two schools in contiguous neighbourhoods may be very different, and a single school can change radically in a few years' time. School environments differ considerably, often because of differences in class, race, and culture.

The elementary school classroom is more of a true social unit, with more intense interactions between teacher and student and among peers. Teachers, as authority figures, establish the climate of the classroom and the kind of relationships permitted. Peer group relationships stress friendship, belongingness, and status. In high school, the entire school, rather than a particular classroom, becomes the social context. Social relationships assume considerable importance, and social behaviour becomes the standard of acceptance. (Weinstein & Mignano 1996; Elliot et al. 2000).

According to Ryan and Cooper (1998), urban schools have the poorest, most ethnically diverse populations of students. Relatively these urban schools have low achievement scores and more discipline problems. Suburban schools tend to be safer, more orderly, and more academically focused.

Rural schools, which usually have small student sizes, have close student-faculty relationships. However, rural schools compensate for their sparse enrolments by 'stretching' students into a broad range of activities, so that a typical student may be involved in sports teams, the school newspaper, glee clubs, and school plays, rather than confined to a narrow niche like solely academic activities.

It is important to realize that classrooms are complex environments that involve a great deal of interpretation of ambiguous behaviour by both teachers and students. According to Weinstein and Mignano (1996), in some classes students can, with much agreement, identify differential patterns in teachers' interactions with different students. This awareness can be informative for students and suggest what the teacher expects from them.

At other times, various students can differentially interpret similar teacher behaviours. For instance, some students may perceive a teacher question during class discussion primarily as a chance to perform; other students may view the same question more negatively, emphasizing the teacher's evaluation. Sadker and Sadker (2003) reported that although teachers believed they held all of their students accountable to classroom rules, (for example, raising their hands when they want to speak), their observed behaviour was quite different.

According to Elliot et al. (2000), during the kindergarten and early elementary school grades, students are socialized to respond to teachers and get along with their peers. Discipline typically is not a major concern, since youngsters of this age usually react well to authority and seek teacher praise and rewards. The upper elementary and lower high school years are times when peer pressure mounts, and most students are concerned with pleasing friends rather than teachers.

Following their investigations into the social relations of teachers and their classes, Anderson and Brewer (1946) listed categories of behaviour with different

degrees of domination and integration. The first category was the situation where there is the evidence of conflict between teachers and students.

The second category was the situation where there was the evidence of the teacher and students working together. The third category was where co-operation was based on the child's expressed initiative, and he or she was allowed to contribute freely his or her suggestions and wishes. The student was expected as a partner in the enterprise, which he often showed that wanted.

The social relations that existed between teachers and students in the classroom varied considerably. Anderson and Brewer (1946) concluded in a study that:

i)   Teachers differed considerably in the extent of their dominative or integrative behaviour.

ii)   When the dominative contacts exceeded the number of integrative contacts the teacher would be more against the children than with them.

iii)   Differences in teachers' attitudes showed that students lived in very different psychological environments within the same school.

iv)   Where the teacher showed more integrative behaviour and less dominative behaviour, the responses of the children were more often in the categories of making social contributions.

(v)   The class of dominative teacher on moving up the academic ladder did not carry on their resisting behaviour but co-operated more with their new teacher who was less dominated than the previous one.

Galton, Simon and Croll (1980) observed teacher and student behaviour from one year to another and found out that teachers' basic teaching style did not change from one year to another over a two-year span. However, 70 percent of the students changed their patterns of behaviour on moving to a new teacher in ways compatible with the styles of the new teacher. Thus individual students behave differently, and they do so in response to different teaching styles.

According to Musgrave (1965) and Hughes (1994), in the world of the adolescent in school, part of becoming self confident as a young adult is about being given increasing responsibility and autonomy as a learner. Important in this is some degree of power sharing between pupils and teachers over lesson content and learning objectives. This may involve risk-taking for a teacher, and open up contested spaces in the classroom. Having a clear sense of 'self' as a teacher and a commitment to respect pupils in the process of learning is fundamental. Teachers who adopt the roles of 'facilitator ' and 'person' created more favourable attitudes toward the class for students than did teachers who adopted the roles of 'authority' and 'expert'.

According to Arends et al. (1998), in most cases, students who find it difficult to feel socially accepted tend to have greater trouble dealing with the academic aspects of schooling. Their energy and efforts are diverted into other areas and little is left for intellectual pursuits.

Characteristics of Teachers

According to Arends et al. (1998) and Ryan (1960), possessing favourable personal qualities and positive disposition towards people and knowledge are important for effective teaching. Researchers on effective teaching had discovered many skills that can be measured as well as numerous other skills that cannot effectively be measured but that, nevertheless, are observed in classrooms where students are the learning materials.

Reviewing some over fifty years of research, Ryan (1960); Barr (1958); Barr and Dreeben (1983), identified some characteristics important for successful teaching. Among the characteristics include: resourcefulness, intelligence, emotional stability, considerateness, objectives, dominance, drive, attractiveness, cooperativeness and reliability. Other teacher characteristics were sympathy, fairness, humour, wide interest and firm discipline.

According to Ryan (1960) and Perrot (1982), these characteristics important for successful teaching as listed above appear to reflect the competences required of teachers as revealed in a study by the University of Toledo in the 1980s. Of the 49 competences reflecting 2000 behavioural objectives teachers are expected to exhibit ten of them are indicated below.

i)   Plans instruction at a variety of cognitive levels.

ii) Can state pupil outcomes in the behavioural terms.

iii) Identifies and evaluates learning problems of students.

iv) Knows how to organize and use appropriate instructional materials.

v)   Uses a variety of instructional strategies.

vi)   Uses convergent and divergent inquiry strategies.

vii)   Establishes transitions and sequences in instructions that are varied.

viii)   Modifies instructional activities to accommodate learner needs.

ix)   Demonstrates ability to work with individuals, small and large groups.

x)   Demonstrates knowledge in the subject areas.

Wragg (1993) and Brophy and Good (1986) observed that elementary teachers scored higher than secondary school teachers on scales of understanding and friendly classroom behaviour. Differences between male and female teachers were insignificant in the elementary schools but in the secondary school female teachers consistently scored higher in being understanding, friendly and responsive. The men rather tended to exhibit business-like and systematic behaviours.

In a related study, Perrot (1982) observed that younger teachers under 45 years scored higher than older teachers in being understanding, friendly, stimulating and imaginative compared to older teachers who scored higher in being responsible, business-like and systematic. Ryan and Cooper (1998) noted that teachers with secondary licensure were more likely to be 'subject matter-oriented,' and middle grade students who were taught by subject-matter 'experts' showed higher levels of achievement. On the other hand, teachers who were licensed in elementary education were likely to be more "student-centered" and

tended to focus on both the academic and personal development of individual students. The relationships between students and teachers in self-contained classrooms tended to be more positive.

According to Perrot (1982), teachers range from novice to expert across fields of study. In stage one, the novice teacher is inflexible and follows principles and procedures the way he or she learned them; the advanced beginner at stage two, combines theory with on-the-job experiences. By stage three, the competent performer becomes more flexible and modifies principles and procedures to fit reality. In stage four, the proficient performer recognizes patterns and relations and has a holistic understanding of the processes involved. Experts (stage five) have the same big picture in mind but respond effortlessly and fluidly in various situations.

Wynne's (1981) study also showed that teachers who are rated as good care about teaching and their students in observable ways. They have regular and timely attendance, well organized lesson plans, reasonably orderly classes, routinely assigned and appropriately graded homework, friendly but authoritative relations with students, purposeful use of class time, and supportive relations with colleagues. According to Boyer (1995), effective teachers encourage students to remain curious and become active, self-directed learners.

Pollard and Triggs (2000) noted that good teachers are risk takers who use initiative to try out new ideas based on sound research and practice. Further, Ladson-Billings (1994) and Zeichner (1993) found that effective schools

empower teachers to decide issues related to at-risk students and encourage students to bring their problems to strong student councils for deliberations.

Brophy and Evertson (1976) in a study observed that effective teachers are not 'ordinary' teachers. They are probably brighter and more dedicated than average. They are certainly better organized and more efficient classroom managers, better prepared and more thorough instructors. The successes represented by their students' test scores are the cumulative result of daily planning, thorough preparation and simple hard work.

Brophy and Evertson (1976), however, admit that there is a limit to what even the most dedicated and talented teachers can accomplish on their own. For instance it is difficult to maintain an academic focus when classroom activities are frequently interrupted and where a class is more than the average number needed for effective teaching and learning to be maximized.

Time Distribution for Classroom Activities

Goodlad (1983) reported that over all, three clusters of activities account for most of the classroom time. About 60 percent of classroom time at the elementary level, 59 percent at the junior high level and 54 percent at the senior high level were used for preparing and cleaning up after assignments; listening to teachers explain or lecture, and fulfilling written assignment respectively. The only other category of significantly large time expenditure is for psychomotor or physical practicing and performing. On the average, the study revealed that a total of approximately 12 percent of available class time was spent on combination of

observing demonstrations; 1.7 percent for discussions; 1.2 percent for simulations; 0.2 percent for role-playing; 1.9 percent for reading and 2.9 percent for activity involving the use of audio-visual equipment.

In a longitudinal study to investigate how some teachers teach, Goodlad (1983) found out that the amount of class time spent on instruction increased from about 70 percent at the elementary school level to nearly 75 percent at the senior high level. The typical high school class teacher used about forty three (43) minutes of the average fifty-seven (57) minutes involved in verbal interaction or 'talk' with students.

On the average, teachers 'out-talked' their entire classes of students by a ratio of about three to one. It appears that students are exposed to approximately two hours of 'teacher-talk' during a five-period day. About seven of these one hundred and fifty (150) minutes, on the average, involved teacher responses to individual students.

Cypher and Willower (1984) found out that on the whole, teachers averaged thirty eight hours per week in in-school work. They concluded that instructional time took 34.4 percent of the time; 27.8 percent for classroom management; 19.3 percent for pupil control; 11.6 percent went into private-personal issues (including talking to other teachers on non school-related topics at lunch) 5.3 percent for travel (time from class to class), and 1.8 percent for extra curricular activities.

According to Jackson (1990), the elementary school teacher engages in as many as a thousand interpersonal interchanges each day. The teaching-learning

process consists, for the most part, of talking, and the teacher controls and directs discussion. The teacher acts as a gatekeeper (deciding who shall and who shall not speak), the teacher also acts as a dispenser of supplies, granting of special privileges to deserving students and timekeeping where the teacher decides when a certain activity ends and another begins. Jackson (1990) observed that in the various schools, 'things happen because it is time for them to occur and not because students want them to' (p. 57).

In another study, Eder (1981) found that students in low group spent 40 percent of their listening time not attending to the lesson as against 22 percent in the high group. Low students frequently read out of turn, adding to the general confusion. Eder (1981) noted twice as many teacher 'managerial acts' in the low groups as in the high group; (157) as against (61). As a result of managerial problems, frequent interruptions, and less actual teaching, low students may inadvertently have been encouraged to respond to social and procedural aspects of the reading group rather than to academic tasks.

According to Bailey (1993), cited by Elliot et al. (2000) how teachers interact with students has long intrigued researchers but one finding has been consistent: Regardless of the level of schooling, teachers pay more attention to boys than to girls. Ryan and Cooper (1998) further noted that although most teachers are genuinely concerned about the students' welfare and encouraging of their efforts, elementary school teachers do make most of the decisions about what goes on in the classroom, only rarely involving students in meaningful ways. The many ways in which students learn what a school values include how the

school allocates time to subjects of study, the rules established for the school, and even the architecture of the school.

Teacher Expectations

According to Perrot (1982), perhaps the most important and certainly, the most studied teacher disposition are their expectations. Teacher expectations are defined here as inferences that teachers make about the future academic achievement of students and about the types of classroom assignments that students need given their abilities.

According to Good (1987), over the past five decades, researchers have discovered that teachers who communicate clear academic and social goals for students, who hold high expectations for all children, and who convey a 'can do' attitude motivate students to engage in learning and to aspire to excellence.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) observed in a study that teachers' expectations act as self-fulfilling prophecies because student achievement comes to reflect the expectations. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) further suggested that results are stronger with young children because they have close contact with teachers. Older students may function better after they move to a new teacher.

Though Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) study has been criticized on conceptual and methodological grounds and many attempts to replicate have not been successful, yet Brophy and Good (2003) contend that early in the school year teachers form expectations based on initial interactions with students and information in records. Many researchers such as Clifton (1979); Cooper and Tom

(1984) and Rosenthal (1991) concluded in a study that expectations are not generally formed on the basis of 'false conceptions' at all. Rather, they are based on the best information available about the students.

According to Schunk (2004), and Ormrod (2004), teachers may begin to treat students differently consistent with their expectations. Teacher behaviour and expectations are reciprocated; for example, teachers who treat students warmly are apt to receive warmth in return. Student behaviours begin to complement and reinforce teacher behaviour and expectations.

According to Rosenthal (1991), once teachers form expectations, they may convey them to students through socio-emotional climate. Socio-emotional climate, according to Howes (2000) and Cooper and Tom (1984), include smiles, head nods, eye contacts, and supportive and friendly actions. Teachers create a warmer climate for students for whom they hold high expectations than those for whom expectations are lower. Teachers praise high-expectation students more while criticizing low-expectation students more.

According to Weinstein and Marshall (1984), a variety of classroom environment may reflect different teacher performance expectations that in turn influence students' own expectations and performance. Weinstein and Marshall (1984) argued that the amount of responsibility students have may affect their susceptibility to teachers' expectations. Students perceive that teachers offer more choices to high achievers than to low achievers and that teachers give more directions to low achievers.

Verbal input or opportunities to learn new material and difficulty of material, varies with high expectation students having more opportunities to interact with and learn new material and be exposed to more difficult material. Students tend to internalize the beliefs teachers have about their ability. Generally they 'rise or fall to the level of expectations of their teachers. When teachers believe in students, students believe in themselves. That is, 'when those you respect think you can, you think you can' (Raffini, 1993).

Goodlad (1983) argues that a basic reason and cause of differential teacher behaviour is that classrooms are busy and complex environments that make it difficult for teacher to assess accurately the frequency and quality of their interactions with individual students. To Goodlad (1983) one reason why teachers differentiate more or less in their behaviour toward high-and-low achieving students involves causality. Some teachers believe that they can and will influence student learning. Such teachers may interpret student failure as a need for more instruction, more clarification, and eventually increased opportunity to learn.

Goodlad (1983) and Rist (1970) further noted that some teachers because they assign blame rather than assume partial responsibility for student failure, may interpret failure as a need to provide less challenge and fewer opportunities to learn. Another explanation for differential teacher behaviour involves the way in which students present themselves to the teacher. Because of linguistic deficiencies or lack of awareness of social cues, some students may have much more difficulty convincing teachers that they need to know the material than will other students. Thus there are different reasons why teachers may hold and

communicate low expectations, and each of these explanations applies in certain contexts.

According to the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development (1989), year book, teachers who have developed ways to monitor classroom behaviour more systematically and more accurately and who are willing to examine classroom from multiple viewpoints may be more likely to communicate rigorous expectations to all students. Although some schools and teachers maintain uniformly high expectations for all students, others have 'great expectations' for particular segments of the student population but minimal expectations for others. In many urban and inner city schools, low expectations predominate (Brophy & Good, 1974).

According to Schunk (2004), some teachers however consistently encourage lower achievers and treat them much like high achievers. Brophy and Good (1986) noted that most teachers at the elementary level hold positive expectations for pupils and provide a lot of successes, and use praise often. For instance, Miller (1975), cited by Kauchak and Eggen (2001), in a study of children littering in three different classrooms but in the same school noted that by repeatedly telling pupils they are hardworking and kind (rather than lazy and mean) they lived up to their label. It seems likely that students construct theories about what their teachers think and expect of them.

Schunk (2004) noted that our beliefs about what others expect of us may motivate, demotivate or lead us to act contrary to our theories. According to Joyce, Hersh & Mckibbin (1993):

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"High expectations carry several messages. First they

symbolize the demand for excellence and tell the

student, 'I think you ought to and can achieve'. Second,

they communicate to the student that the teacher cares

by saying, in effect, 'The reason I have high expectations

for you is that I believe in you'. Third, high expectations

serve as the adult's world of professional judgments

this is translated to the student as 'I am really more

capable than even I at times think I am" (p.26).

Bishop (1989) and Bamburg (1994) observed that teachers who view intelligence as dynamic and fluid rather than static and unchanging are less likely to have rigid preconceived notions about what students will or will not be able to achieve. Nearly all schools claim to hold high expectations for all students. In reality, however, what is professed is not always practiced. When teachers and administrators maintain high expectations, they encourage in students a desire to aim high rather than to slide by. To expect less is to do students a disservice, not a favour.

Pupils and Students Expectations of Teachers

Kyriacou (1986); Keys and Fernades (1993) and Rudduck, Chaplain and Wallace (1995) in a study observed that pupils like teachers who make them learn. They expect teachers to teach, by which they seem to mean to take initiatives to be in control and to provide interesting activities. Pupils also like

teachers who are prepared to be flexible, and to respond to the different interests of the individuals in the class and to provide some scope for the pupil's choice.

Children like teachers who are kind, friendly, cheerful, patient, helpful, fair, have a sense of humour, show understanding of children's problems, allow plenty of pupil activity and at the same time maintain order. They dislike teachers who use sarcasm, are domineering and have favourites, who punish to secure discipline, fail to provide for the needs of individual pupils and have disagreeable personality peculiarities (Evans, 1962; Taylor, 1962; Wragg, 1994; Blishen 1969; Stubbs & Delamont, 1976).

On their part, Morrison and McIntyre (1969) wrote that children in British schools commonly expect their teachers to act as policeman and a judge; a teacher who ignores this and behaves as if his or her task were simply to instruct or as if he or she will be accepted as a friend, counsellor and stimulator of ideas, is not likely to be perceived as he or she perceives his or herself. He or she will rather be categorized by pupils as 'soft' and incompetent, and be given little respect.

According to Blishen (1969) and Meighan (1986), pupils dislike teachers who have favourites or who are unpredictable in their moods. Most pupils like a teacher who can sometimes 'have a laugh'. Over all, it seems that pupils like teachers who are flexible, fair and firm, and help them to be successful as learners.

Findings identifying pupils' likes and dislikes about teachers are remarkably consistent. Wragg (1984) and Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford (1997) found that pupils like teachers who are consistent, efficient at organizing and

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teaching, stimulating, patient, fair, interested in individual, and who have a sense of humour. Also pupils expect to be taught, to be helped or in many cases made to learn. They dislike teachers who are domineering, critical, boring, unkind, unpredictable and unfair. Above all, they do not want to be 'bored' (often a blanket term for anything disliked or difficult) and they want to feel a sense of achievement.

Kauchak and Eggen (2005) and Wragg (1984) noted pupils would 'test' individual teachers to discover how far rules can be manipulated. Teachers who are firm but fair are positively valued. Those teachers who are aloof and distant are not usually liked. In relationships pupils also hope for respect; to be allowed to retain a sense of dignity, not to be publicly humiliated or adversely compared to other individuals or groups; to be known and valued as individuals. Blishen (1969) indicated that universally, pupils respond to teachers who can 'have a laugh' or 'take a joke'.

According to Gump (1964), more indirect approaches to the study of pupils' expectations have produced similar results. In a study of American high school pupils preferences of classroom activities, Gump (1964) found out that first in importance was subject matter. Second in importance was the type of classroom activity that the lesson required, and thirdly, the teacher's personal pedagogical ability.

Gump (1964) observed from the study that far less importance was attached to the teacher's personal and social qualities; only 9 percent of the pupils' responses referred to these, while 27 percent referred to subject matter.

According to Gump (1964), the pupils did not seem to 'value their teachers highly as persons'.

According to Musgrove (1966), there is little evidence that pupils are expecting their teachers to take on less specialized role with reduced emphasis on pedagogical functions. Home rather than school is still the main source of expressive, emotional satisfactions. The school and its teachers are expected to meet intellectual needs. According to Gump (1967) and Wright (1962), pupils value their teachers mainly for their intellectual abilities; they are little concerned with their more general, human qualities in so far as the pupils do identify with teachers, it is restricted to those aspects of personality which relate to academic achievement.

Dreikurs, Grunwald and Pepper (1982) provided insight into the understanding of the personal needs pupils bring to the classroom. For very young children, acceptance by the classroom teacher is the most important. Over time, this need becomes more peer-oriented. Older pupils, while still wanting the approval of their teachers, are often more focused on seeking acceptance from their classmates.

In a longitudinal study of pupils' expectations of the transition from primary to secondary school, Fouracre (1991) observed that 80 percent of primary seven (7) pupils expected secondary school work to be more difficult. After transfer only 50 percent thought the work was more difficult; 84 percent of the primary seven (7) pupils expected to get more homework at secondary school but after transfer only 14 percent later believed that they get more homework. The

impression from the study was that the primary 7 teachers were really working their pupils hard and pushing them in preparation for harder work at the big school apparently referring to senior high school. Blishen (1969), cited by Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford (1997), in a summary to a study wrote that children expect their teachers to be patient, enthusiastic, punctual for lessons and willing to have points made against them. They also wanted teachers who are humble, kind, capable of informality and simply pleasant.

According to Miller, Bender and Schuh (2005), students arrive at college with expectations about classes and residence hall, about their own ability levels and study skills, about how much they should have to study and about how learning happens. Students also have expectations about teachers and how they should behave and what they should expect in the way of student effort and behaviour. In a conclusion to a study, Wragg (1984) observed that students have desire for order, rules, and predictability and in general they expect this to be imposed. Students admire teachers for their cleverness and knowledge.

Comparatively little work has been done on the expectations of university students, but one study of English science undergraduates indicates that they demand first and foremost of a lecturer that he or she 'presents his or her material clearly and logically'. The students who took part in the inquiry rated forty lecturer characteristics. At the top of the list were; 'enables the student to understand the basic principles of the subject' and 'makes his or her material intelligibly meaningful'.

Far less weight was attached to a lecturer's more human characteristics such as 'has a sympathetic attitude towards students', 'is spontaneous and friendly' and 'appears to enjoy teaching'. Students also highly regard teachers who are empathetic and who deliver well-prepared, well-organized, clear classroom presentations (Wragg, 1984; Blishen, 1969; Morrison & McIntyre, 1972).

In a study to elicit students' views on the qualities of good teachers, Omotani and Omotani (1996) and Oblinger (2003) found that the expectations varied among juniors, seniors and graduate teaching assistants. Across all groups, only three common qualities emerged: 'flexibility', 'clear communication skills' and 'sense of humour'. In the study, freshmen and advanced undergraduates each had four qualities common to their lists; 'likes to teach', 'available to students', 'listens to students' and 'is well organized'.

In a national survey of over a thousand and three hundred (1,300) high school students in the United States of America, teens were asked through questionnaires and in focus group discussions what they think of and want from their schools. The teens' responses concerning what they want were clustered in three main areas:

i)   A yearning for order: They complained about lax instructors and uninformed rules. Many felt insulted at the minimal demands placed upon them. They stated unequivocally that they would work harder if more were expected of them.

ii)   A yearning for structure: They expressed a desire for closer monitoring and

watchfulness from teachers. In addition very significant numbers of respondents wanted after-school classes for youngsters who are failing.

iii)   A yearning for moral authority: Although teens acknowledged cheating was commonplace, they indicated that they wanted schools to teach ethics such as honesty and hard work (Public Agenda, 1994; 1997).

According to Oblinger (2003) and Singh (2004), the lecturer's ability to clearly explain a concept was tertiary students' most important expectation. This observation re-affirms the time-tested belief that nothing was more important for students learning than a clear-cut explanation. Singh (2004) noted that contrary to belief, university students do not seem to give high weight to individual attention. The reason was that the students expected and wanted to be treated as matured individuals who like their own free space.

According to Singh (2004), university students are highly dissatisfied with lecturers who do 'not listen to their point of view'. Students liked to be treated as mature grown up individuals and expected their point of view to be given due respect though they also acknowledge disciplining the students caused minimal dissatisfaction.

In a conclusion to a study, Pinker (1994) specified universal human characteristics such as humour, insults, fear, anger, love, common facial expression, crying and displays of affection, among others. To Pinker (1994), humans are quite similar regardless of any male-female distinctions with respect to desirable and undesirable human qualities.

Summary

Students expect teachers to teach. They also value lucid exposition, the clear statement of problems, and guidance in their solution. Personal qualities like kindness, sympathy and patience are secondary, appreciated if they make teachers more effective in carrying out their primary, intellectual task. There appears to be little demand on teachers to be friends or temporary mothers and fathers.

Students appreciate teachers who are remarkably consistent, efficient at organizing and teaching, stimulating, patient fair interested in individuals and who have a sense of humour. They dislike teachers who are domineering, critical boring, unkind, unpredictable and unfair. Students also desire for order, rules and predictability and in general they expect this imposed. In sum, students admire teachers for their cleverness and knowledge.

Teachers, of course, vary in activities they find rewarding. Some draw their rewards from the cooperative environments they have been able to established; some from resolving complicated problems for students, and some from seeing students work and learn independently.

Characteristically, teaching is a moral enterprise. The teacher, whether he or she admits it or not, is out to make the world a better place and its inhabitant's better people. He or she may not always succeed of course, but his intention, nevertheless, is to benefit others.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design, the study population, and the sampling procedures. In addition, the research instruments, pilot study, actual field work and data processing and analysis are described.

Research Design

The researcher considered the cross-sectional descriptive design most appropriate for this study. The design was preferred for its advantage of economy, rapid turn around in data collection and the ability to identify attributes of a population from a small group of individuals (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003; Gay, 1992). The design was again preferred because the researcher aimed at generalizing from the sample to a population so that inferences could be made about some characteristics, attitudes or behaviour of the population (Best & Khan, 1993; Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009).

The cross-sectional descriptive survey is versatile and practical in that it determines and reports the way things are. It focuses on vital facts about people and their beliefs, opinions, attitudes, motives and behaviours, and simply describes and provides understanding of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2005).

Furthermore, Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (1990) indicated that descriptive survey provides information on which to base sound decisions. It interprets, synthesizes, integrates data, and points to implications and interrelationships. Further still, it can be used with greater confidence with regard to particular questions of special interest to the researcher. Follow-up questions can be asked and items that are not clear can be explained using the design (Babbie, 1990; Wiersma, 1980).

These advantages notwithstanding, there is the difficulty of ensuring that the questions to be answered or statements to be responded to using descriptive survey designs are clear and not misleading. This is because survey results can vary significantly depending on the exact wording of questions or statements. It may also produce untrustworthy results because they delve into personal issues that people may not be truthful about. Finally, getting sufficient number of questionnaires completed and returned so that meaningful analysis can be made remains a challenge in using descriptive survey design (Fraenkal & Wallen 2000; Osuala, 1993).

These perceived limitations were however remedied by constructing clear and straight forward statements, appealing to students to be truthful about the responses having explained the rationale for the study and lastly administering the questionnaire using the hand-delivery method which resulted in a hundred percent return rate.

The Study Population

The population for the study was made up of students in public senior high schools in the Central Region. However, the accessible population comprised students from four public senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis namely; St. Augustine's College, Holy Child Senior High, Academy of Christ the King Senior High and University Practice Senior High Schools.

The purposive sampling technique was adopted to identify the senior high schools for the study. Having identified these schools, random sampling was used to select the actual study population. This exercise was important because in descriptive research, the most important tasks were to be sure that, the measures being used were reliable and valid and that the individuals from whom information is received were the true representatives of the population to whom the results are applicable (Amedahe, 2000; Triola, 1989; Razaviet,1990).

Table 1

List of Schools and Enrolments of Participating Schools

School	Number of students	Number of boys	Number of girls
St. Augustine's College	1,442	1,442	-
Holy Child Senior High	1,237	-	1,237
Academy of Christ The King Senior High	1,044	511	533
University Practice Senior High	1,166	574	592
Total	4,889	2,527	2,362

The Study Sample

The sample size for the study was 400 students. According to Glass and Hopkins (1984); Anastasia (1982) and Fraenkal and Wallen (2000), for descriptive studies, a sample with a minimum number of 100 is essential provided the population under study is homogenous. Furthermore, Amedahe (2000) indicated that a sample size of 5 % to 20 % of a population in most quantitative studies was valid enough to make the conclusions arrived at, barring any serious flaws, sufficient for generalization purposes.

Table 2

Sample Size for Participating Schools

School	Number of students	Sample size	
		Boys	Girls
St. Augustine's College	1,442	101	-
Holy Child School	1,237	-	99
Academy of Christ The King Academy	1,166	46	49
University Practice Senior High	1,044	53	52
Total	4,889	200	200

Sampling Procedures

Purposive and random sampling techniques were used in selecting respondents for the study. Purposive sampling was used to identify the senior high schools for the study. Having identified these schools, participating schools were selected randomly using the lottery method. This process was very important and necessary because in descriptive research, the most important tasks were to be sure that, the measures being used were reliable and valid and that the individuals from whom information is received were the true representatives of the population to whom the results are applicable (Razaviet, 1990; Creswell, 2002; Amedahe, 2000).

The researcher used the disproportional sampling method to constitute the sample sizes for the participating schools. The adoption of the disproportional sampling method was necessitated by two main reasons. The first reason was the unequal sizes of the student populations in the participating schools and secondly the desire to use fair representations of numbers with respect to sex. The sampling sizes ranged from 7 percent for schools with populations more than one thousand two hundred (1,200) to 9 percent for schools with populations less than one thousand two hundred (1,200). According to Amedahe (2000) and Van Dalen (1979), a sample size of 5 % to 20 % of a population in most quantitative studies was valid enough to make the conclusions arrived at, barring any serious flaws, sufficient for generalization purposes. The sampling process started with the designing of

sampling frames for each of the participating senior high schools from the class registers obtained from the school authorities.

St. Augustine's College was selected through simple random sampling among the three boys' senior high schools in the Cape Coast metropolis as respondents for male boarding schools. Holy Child Senior High school was selected through simple random sampling from the two girls' senior high schools in the metropolis as respondents for female boarding schools. Christ the King Academy and University Practice senior High Schools were also selected through simple random among the three day senior high schools in the metropolis for respondents in the day schools.

Sources of Data

The study made use of both primary and secondary data. The primary data were collected through fieldwork from the students in the four participating senior high schools using questionnaire. The secondary data were from textbooks, journals and published articles.

Instrumentation

The instrument was a replication of an existing questionnaire used for a similar study conducted by Musgrove, F. and Taylor, P. H. (1969). It was however modified and adapted for this study. For example, in the original instrument, a statement like 'A good teacher is fair and just about punishment and has no favourites' was modified to read 'A teacher should be fair and just about

punishment and should have no favourites'. Similarly a statement like 'A good teacher is cheerful, friendly, good tempered', was modified to read 'A teacher should be cheerful, friendly, good tempered'.

Kerlinger (1986); Yin (2003) and Marshall and Rossman (1995) observed that questionnaire is widely used for collecting data in educational research because it is very effective for securing functional information about practices and conditions for enquiring into the opinions and attitudes of respondents. According to Amedahe (2000), the questionnaire as a tool is preferred because of the following advantages:

1. It is less expensive than other methods like both interviews and observation;

2. The use of questionnaire promises a wider coverage since the researcher can approach respondents more easily than other methods;

3. It is stable, consistent and uniform, without variation; and

4. It can be completed at the respondents own convenience.

The items of the questionnaire consisted of series of statements grouped under different themes of the study for respondents to rank in order of preference. The questionnaire items which was in the closed form, were constructed and grouped under three themes namely; Teachers' manner of enforcing discipline, Teachers' manner of teaching and Teachers' desirable personal qualities. Under each theme were series of six statements. A set of questionnaire consisted of

twenty four (24) statements grouped and labeled as scale A, scale B, scale C and scale D.

Scale A consisted of six statements comprising two items each from the three themes labeled as teaching, discipline and personal qualities which were randomly grouped together. The second scale (B) consisted of six statements describing teachers' manner of enforcing discipline. The third scale (C) consisted of six statements describing the teachers' manner of teaching. The fourth scale (D) was constructed in a similar manner to describe teachers' desirable personal qualities. The items under each of the themes were presented in random order for the students to rank in order of their preference.

The Pilot Survey

Initial drafts of the questionnaire were pilot-tested. The instrument was pilot-tested in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis in the Western Region to ascertain the reliability and validity of the instrument. The pilot-testing was done using students with similar characteristics from Archbishop Porter Girls Senior High School, Ghana Secondary Technical Senior High School and Takoradi Senior High School. For Takoradi Senior High which is a mixed-sex schools the students were first stratified into two based on sex. From each stratum the required numbers of respondents were selected using the lottery method.

The disproportional sampling method was adopted to constitute the sample size. This sampling method was adopted because the student enrolments for the schools were unequal. From each stratum, the required number of respondents

was selected through the lottery method. The lottery method involved the construction of sampling frame using names of students in class registers obtained from the participating schools. The names were written on slips of paper and put in a container and mixed well. The names were selected from the container without looking into it.

The selected names of respondents for each school were recorded and where a particular name was picked more than once, it was put back into the container before the next slip was picked. This process ensured that each respondent had equal chance to be selected. The process was continued until the required number of respondents was recorded. Having determined the sample sizes for the respective schools, the actual participants for the pilot study were selected using names that have been picked and recorded.

The researcher went to each school and met the respondents. Students were informed that participating in the exercise was voluntary and if any one did not want to be part of it he or she had the right to do so. Those who willingly decided to participate were informed about what was required of them, the purpose of the study and were also assured that their responses were meant for purely academic work and for that reason be kept confidential. The questionnaires were administered to the respondents in each of the participating schools with the help of four research assistants.

The total sample size for the pilot study was one hundred and twenty (120) students comprising sixty (60) boys and sixty (60) girls. This sample size constituted 3 percent of the total accessible population for the pilot study.

Table 3

Schools, Enrolments and Sample Sizes for Pilot Survey

School	Number of Students	Number of Boys	Number of Girls	Sample size Boys	Girls
Ghana Senior High Technical	1,333	1,333	-	30	-
Archbishop Porter Girls Senior High	1,250	-	1,250	-	30
Takoradi Senior High	1,489	741	748	30	30
Total	4,072	2,074	1,998	60	60

The pilot testing provided the opportunity for the researcher to revise and edit the questionnaire used for the main study to make it more specific and effective in eliciting the needed responses. The pilot study also helped to try the planned statistical tools and procedures as well as to test the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. On the average the response to each questionnaire lasted for twenty minutes.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

Validity, according to Fraenkal and Wallen (2000) and Gay et al. (2009), revolves around the defensibility of the inferences researchers make from data collection through the use of an instrument. The issue about validity therefore has to do with the instruments used to collect data and whether the instrument permits

the researchers to draw valid conclusions about the characteristics of the individuals about whom they collected the data. The validity of the instrument for this study was therefore established by making the instruments available to experienced lecturers at the Department of Educational Foundations of the Faculty of Education of the University of Cape Coast.

The lecturers assessed the language construction as well as the clarity of directions. In achieving construct validity, the lecturers further considered and determined whether the administration of the instrument to the targeted respondents would permit accurate inferences about the expectations of students. Fraenkal and Wallen (2000) defined reliability as the consistency of scores obtained from one administration of an instrument to another. Internal consistency for each of the subscales was calculated using the Cronbach's alpha.

The alphas for each of the subscales were examined against the acceptable range of 0.70 or above after which the alpha for the entire instrument was calculated. The reliability test on the instrument resulted in Cronbach's coefficient alpha of 0.6771. This coefficient was considered acceptable so the instruments were used for the study (Cronbach, 1984). The responses were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

Data Collection Procedure

The collection of data was done through the hand-delivery method. This method was suitable for the researcher because all the four public senior high schools were located in the Cape Coast Metropolis and were easily accessible.

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From experience, the postal method was not used because only relatively few questionnaires would be returned and even so, they might even be returned late.

The hand-delivery method enabled the researcher and research assistants who had been well briefed on their roles to actually supervise and monitor the respondents thus preventing collusion so that the individual's response was not influenced by their friends. This method also gave the respondents ample opportunity to ask questions if they were in doubt of any item(s) of the instrument. In order to encourage respondents to frankly respond to the items, the researcher reiterated the fact that the study was for purely academic purpose therefore respondents should feel free to express their feelings. The confidentiality of their responses was also assured.

The respondents were given a maximum of twenty-five minutes within which to complete the questionnaire. However, those who finished before the stipulated time were allowed to submit their questionnaire and permitted to leave the room. The entire questionnaires were administered within a period of two weeks for all the four schools.

Data Analysis Procedure

The 400 students who took part in the study attached importance to the three aspects of teachers' behaviour (Teaching, Discipline and Personal Qualities) by ranking the statements on scale A. In analyzing the results for scale A, the rankings were inverted so that the highest score (6) was given to an item ranked first, and the lowest score (1) to an item ranked sixth.

The inverted rankings for each pair of items representing the three areas of the teachers' behaviour were added together. In this way, the weight attached to each pair of items was obtained. The weight attached to each pair was then calculated in percentages to determine the percentage distribution of students' expectations for the three areas of teachers' behaviour.

The responses to the items in scale A were analyzed using the test-of-independence chi-square (x^2) statistic. The test-of-independence chi-square (x^2) statistic was used because it was the most appropriate statistical tool in testing hypotheses concerned with category within group comparison. Besides, the test-of-independence chi-square was the most appropriate tool for analyzing phenomena involving association and independence of variables (Triola, 1989; Wallgren, Wallgren, Persson, Jorner & Haaland, 1996). The chi-square (x^2) test statistic was used to answer hypotheses one, two, and three.

In analyzing the remaining three scales, the rankings attached by the different groups of students to the scale items were obtained by summing their rankings. From these summations a rank order of the items in each of the scales was obtained for the various students groups. The extent to which one group of students agreed with another in the value they attached to the items in a scale was calculated by using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was the most appropriate statistic because it describes the linear relationship between two variables measured using rank scores as well as data involving ordinal or rank order (Gordon & Gordon, 1994; Best & Khan, 1993; Gay et al, 2009).

For analysis purposes, the set of questionnaires for the participating schools were arbitrarily labeled as 'A' for University Practice Senior High, 'B' for St. Augustine's College, 'C' for Holy Child Senior High School and 'D' for Academy of Christ The King Senior High School. The use of the hand-delivery method ensured a hundred percent return rate, saved time and money.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of findings and discusses the results of the study. The presentation is done in two sections. The first section presents the results of the responses to the questionnaires in tabular form. The second section focuses on the analysis and discussion of the results. The analysis and discussion of the results are based on the responses of 400 students from the four public senior high schools who participated in the study.

Sex Distribution of Respondents for the Study

Out of the 400 respondents for the study, 50.0% were male students and 50.0% were female students. Table 4 shows the number and percentage distribution of sex characteristics of respondents.

Table 4

Sex Distribution of Respondents for the Study

Sex	Number of students	%
Male	200	50.0
Female	200	50.0
Total	400	100

Out of the four public senior high schools for the study, two of them offered boarding facilities for students and the remaining two were day senior high schools. The respondents from the boarding schools constituted 50.0% while those from the day senior high schools also constituted 50%. For the two boarding schools, St. Augustine's College formed 25.2 percent while Holy Child School constituted 24.8 percent. With regard to the day schools, 23.8% were respondents from Academy of Christ the King while respondents from University Practice Senior High formed 26.8%.

Table 5

Residential Status of Respondents

School	Type of school	No	%
St. Augustine's College	Boarding	101	25.2
Holy Child School	Boarding	99	24.8
Academy of Christ the King	Day	95	23.8
University Practice Senior High	Day	105	26.2
Total		400	100

Kinds of Students' Expectations

The kinds of expectations students have about teachers were analyzed by the summation of respondents ranking of statements constituting teachers manner

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of teaching, manner of enforcing discipline and desirable personal qualities. The results as shown in Table 6 indicates that the most important expectation senior high school students have about teachers was teachers' manner of teaching which accounted for 39.0% of the total respondents.

The second most important expectation of students of teachers was the teachers' desirable personal qualities which represented 34.2 % of the total sum of responses by students. The least of the students' expectations was teachers' manner of enforcing discipline accounting for 26.8 %.

Table 6

Kinds of Students' Expectations

Students expectations	Sum of ranks	%	Rank
Teaching	3,278	39.0	1st
Personal qualities	2,870	34.2	2nd
Discipline	2,252	26.8	3rd
	8,400	100.0	

Students' Expectation of Teachers' Manner of Teaching

Table 7 shows the ranking the items describing teachers' manner of teaching for scale 'A'. From Table 7, 186 (46.5%) of the total respondents ranked 1st the statement 'A teacher should know a great deal about the subject she or he is teaching'. Second in importance was the statement 'A teacher should encourage you to work hard at school' ranked by 111 (27.8%) of the total

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respondents.

Table 7

Students' Expectations of Teachers' Manner of Teaching

Statement	No	%	Rank
A teacher should encourage you to work hard at school	111	27.8	2nd
A teacher should explain the work you have to do	28	7.0	5th
A teacher should know great deal about the subject he/she is teaching	186	46.5	1st
A teacher should give interesting lessons	32	8.0	3rd
A teacher should give enough time to finish your work	12	3.0	6th
A teacher should mark your work regularly and fairly	31	7.7	4th
Total	400	100	

The least of senior high school students' ranking of statements describing the expectation of teachers' manner of teaching which was ranked by 12 (3.0%) students was the teacher 'giving enough time to students to finish work'.

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Male and Female Students' Expectations of Teachers' Manner of Teaching

From the results in Table 8, 91 (45.5%) of male students ranked 1st the statement 'A teacher should know great deal about the subject she or he is teaching', the second in preference of was the statement 'A teacher should encourage you to work hard at school' ranked by 57 (28.5%) of the male students.

In the case of female students, 95 (47.5%) ranked 1st the statement 'the teacher should know a great deal about the subject he /she is teaching. The second most important expectation, according to the responses for the female students was the statement 'A teacher should encourage you to work hard at school' accounting for 54 (27.0%) of female respondents. The least expectation of female students about teachers manner of teaching was the statement 'A teacher should give you enough time to finish your work' which was ranked 6th with only 7 (3.5%) of total female respondents.

A comparative study of the rankings for both male and female students indicate that students were in perfect agreement in the ranking the statements 'A teacher should know great deal about the subject he/she is teaching as the most important expectation and 'A teacher should give you enough time to finish your work as the least expectation with respect statements describing teachers manner of teaching.

Table 8

Male and Female Students' Expectations of Teachers' Manner of

Teaching

Statement	Male			Female		
	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank
A teacher should encourage you to work hard at school	57	28.5	2nd	54	27.0	2nd
A teacher should explain the work you have to do	13	6.5	5th	15	7.5	3rd
A teacher should know great deal about the subject he/she is teaching	91	45.5	1st	95	47.5	1st
A teacher should give interesting lessons	17	8.5	3rd	15	7.5	3rd
A teacher should give enough time to finish your work	5	2.5	6th	7	3.5	6th
A teacher should mark your work regularly and fairly	17	8.5	3rd	14	7.0	5th
Total	200	100		200	100	

Students' Expectations of Teachers' Manner of Enforcing Discipline

Ranking the items describing teachers manner of enforcing discipline in schools as shown in Table 9, 135 (33.7%) students ranked the statement 'A

teacher should praise you for behaving well and working hard' as the most important expectation of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline in the senior high schools. The second most important and effective manner of enforcing discipline in the senior high schools, according the 90 (22.5%) students was teachers' ability to 'maintain and keep order in class'.

Table 9

Students' Expectations of Teachers' Manner of Enforcing Discipline

Statement	No	%	Rank
A teacher should			
be firm and keep order in the classroom	90	22.5	2nd
A teacher should			
be fair and just about punishment	47	11.7	4th
A teacher should praise you for behaving well			
and working hard	135	33.7	1st
A teacher should have no favourites	67	16.8	3rd
A teacher should			
sometimes be considerate	38	9.5	5th
A teacher should			
use the cane when necessary	23	5.8	6th
Total	400	100	

The least of students' expectations about how a teacher should maintain discipline was the use of the cane. This manner of enforcing discipline in the senior high schools was ranked the least with only 23 (5.8%) students of the total respondents.

Male and Female Students' Expectations of Teachers' Manner of Enforcing Discipline

The results of the study as shown in Table 10 indicates that 69 (34.5%) of male students ranked the statement 'A teacher should praise you for behaving well and working hard' as the most important manner of enforcing discipline in the senior high schools. Second in importance was the statement 'A teacher should be fair and just about punishment' ranked by 44 (22.0%) of the male students. The rankings of male students further showed that the least expectation was the teachers 'use of the cane when necessary'. This statement was ranked the least by 13 (6.5%) of male students.

With respect to female respondents, 66 (33.0%) ranked 1st the statement 'A teacher should praise you for behaving well and working hard'. The statement 'A teacher should be firm and keep order in the classroom' was ranked 2nd by 46 (23.0%) the female students. The female students ranked 6th the statement 'A teacher should use the cane when necessary'. A careful consideration of the rankings shows that both male and female students were perfectly in agreement in ranking all the statements describing teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

Table 10

Male and Female Students' Expectations of Teachers' Manner of Enforcing Discipline

Statement	Male			Female		
	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank
A teacher should be firm and keep order in the classroom	44	22.0	2nd	46	23.0	2nd
A teacher should be fair and just about punishment	24	12.0	4th	23	11.5	4th
A teacher should praise you for behaving well and working hard	69	34.5	1st	66	33.0	1st
A teacher should have no favourites	32	16.0	3rd	35	17.5	3rd
A teacher should sometimes be considerate	18	9.0	5th	20	10.0	5th
A teacher should use the cane when necessary	13	6.5	6th	10	5.0	6th
Total	200	100		200	100	

Students' Expectations of Teachers' Desirable Personal Qualities

Ranking the items describing teachers' desirable personal qualities for scale 'A' as observed in Table 11, 129 (32.3%) of the total 400 students ranked the statement 'A teacher should be patient, understanding, kind and sympathetic' as the most important expectation of teachers' desirable personal quality. Second in importance as ranked by 78 (19.5%) of total respondents was the statement 'A

teacher should be cheerful and good tempered'.

The least of students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal quality which accounted for only 31 (7.8%) of students was the statement 'A teacher should be friendly with students in and out of school'.

Table 11

Students' Expectations of Teachers' Desirable Personal Qualities

Statement	No	%	Rank
A teacher should be cheerful and good tempered	78	19.5	2nd
A teacher should look nice and well dressed	53	13.2	4th
A teacher should be well mannered and polite	73	18.2	3rd
A teacher should be patient, understanding, kind and sympathetic	129	32.3	1st
A teacher should have a sense of humour	36	9.0	5th
A teacher should be friendly with students in and out of school	31	7.8	6th
Total	400	100	

Male and Female Students' Expectations of Teachers' Desirable Personal Qualities

A careful consideration of the rankings of male students showed that 62 (31.0%) ranked 1st the statement 'A teacher should be patient, understanding, kind and sympathetic'. The statement 'A teacher should be cheerful and good

tempered was ranked 2nd by 37 (18.5%) of the male respondents. The least desired personal quality of teachers as ranked by male students was the teacher being 'friendly with students in and out of school'. On the part of the female students, 67 (33.5%) ranked the statement 'A teacher should be patient, understanding, kind and sympathetic' as the most important personal quality of teachers. Out of the total female respondents, 37 (18.5%) ranked 2nd the statement 'A teacher should be cheerful and good tempered'. The least desired of teachers personal quality was the teacher being 'friendly with students in and out of school'.

Table 12

Male and Female Students' Expectations of Teachers' Desirable Personal Qualities

Statement	Male			Female		
	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank
A teacher should be cheerful and good tempered	37	18.5	2nd	41	20.5	2nd
A teacher should look nice and well dressed	24	12.0	4th	29	14.5	4th
A teacher should be well mannered and polite	36	18.0	3rd	37	18.5	3rd

Table 12 continued

A teacher should be patient, understanding, kind and sympathetic	62	31.0	1st	67	33.5	1st
A teacher should have a sense of humour	21	10.5	5th	15	7.5	6th
A teacher should be friendly with students in and out of school	20	10.0	6th	11	5.5	5th
Total	200	100		200	100	

In spite of the differences in the percentage ranking of the responses to statements, a critical observation showed that both male and female students were in perfect agreement of their rankings. Arguably, the closest in agreement of male and female students was to the statement 'A teacher should be well mannered and polite' ranked by 3rd by male and female students with percentage score of 18.0% and 18.5% respectively.

Day and Boarding Students' Expectations of Teachers' Manner of Teaching

Analyzing the data in Table 13, it is observed that 86 (43.0%) of day students ranked the statement 'A teacher should know a great deal about the subject he or she is teaching' as the most important expectation with regard to teachers' manner of teaching. The second most important expectation ranked by 61 (30.5%) of the day students was the statement 'A teacher should encourage

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you to work hard' The least ranked statement by day students was the statement 'A teacher should give you enough time to finish your work' constituting 7 (3.5%) of total day students responses to statements describing teachers manner of teaching.

In the case of boarding students, the statement 'A teacher should know a great deal about the subject he or she is teaching' was ranked 1st by 92 (46.0%) of them followed by the statement 'A teacher should encourage you to work hard' ranked by 58 (29.0%) of students. The least ranked statement by boarding students was the 'A teacher should give you enough time to finish your work' constituting 9 (4.5%) of total boarding students responses.

Table 13

Day and Boarding Students' Expectations of Teachers' Manner of Teaching

Statement	Day			Boarding		
	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank
A teacher should encourage you to work hard	61	30.5	2nd	58	29.0	2nd
A teacher should explain the work to you	17	8.5	3rd	13	6.5	4th
A teacher should know a great deal about the subject he/she is teaching	86	43.0	1st	92	46.0	1st

Table 13 continued

A teacher should give interesting lessons	15	7.5	4th	17	8.5	3rd
A teacher should give enough time to finish your work	7	3.5	6th	9	4.5	6th
A teacher should mark your work regularly	14	7.0	5th	11	5.5	5th
Total	200	100		200	100	

Day and Boarding Students Expectations of Teachers Manner of Enforcing

Discipline

In analyzing the data in Table 14 it is obvious that 80 (40.0%) of day students ranked the statement, 'A teacher should praise you for behaving well and working hard' as the most important attribute of the teacher with regard to his or her manner of enforcing discipline. Furthermore, 44 (22.0%) of day students ranked 2nd the statement 'A teacher should be firm and keep order in the classroom'. The least important expectation of day students about how teachers are to enforce discipline is the 'use of the cane when necessary' with a score of 4.5%.

With respect to boarding students, the statement 'A teacher should praise you for behaving well and working hard' was ranked 1st by 62 (31.0%) of the

total boarding students' responses. Furthermore, 45 (22.5%) students ranked the statement 'A teacher should be firm and keep order in the classroom' as the second most important expectation.

The statement 'A teacher should use the cane when necessary was ranked 6th by 12 (6.0%) of boarding students. Though day and boarding students differed in their ranks to the statements 'A teacher should have no favorites' and 'A teacher should sometimes be considerate' yet they agreed in ranking same four of the statements with special reference to the statement 'A teacher should use the cane when necessary as the least expectation.

Table 14

Day and Boarding Students Expectations of Teachers Manner of

Enforcing Discipline

Statement	Day			Boarding		
	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank
A teacher should be firm and keep order in the classroom	44	22.0	2nd	45	22.5	2nd
A teacher should fair and just about punishment	18	9.0	4th	24	12.0	4th
A teacher should praise you for behaving well and working hard	80	40.0	1st	62	31.0	1st

Table 14 continued

A teacher should						
have no favourites	16	8.0	5th	36	18.0	3rd
A teacher should some times be considerate	33	16.5	3rd	21	10.5	5th
A teacher should use the cane when necessary	9	4.5	6th	12	6.0	6th
Total	200	100		200	100	

Day and Boarding Students' Expectations of Teachers' Desirable Personal Qualities

Day and boarding students' ranking of teachers' desirable personal qualities is shown in Table 15. From the Table it is gathered that 65 (32.5%) of day students ranked first the statement 'A teacher should be patient, understanding, kind and sympathetic'. A further 44 (22.0%) ranked 2nd the statement 'A teacher should be cheerful and good tempered'. The least expectation of teachers' personal qualities that they desired was the statement 'A teacher should have a sense of humour'. This statement was ranked 6th by 17 (8.5%) of day students.

Analyzing the rankings by respondents in boarding schools in Table 15, 68 (34.0%) and 35 (17.5%) of the students ranked the statements 'A teacher should be patient, understanding, kind and sympathetic and 'A teacher should be cheerful and good tempered' as 1st and 2nd respectively. The least in the rankings was the statement 'A teacher should be friendly with students in and out of

school' with a score of 8.0% of the total boarding schools respondents.

However, day and boarding students differed in the ranking of the statement 'A teacher should have a sense of humour' which was ranked 6th by day students but 5th by boarding students. On the other hand, 19 (9.5%) of the day students ranked 5th the statement 'A teacher should be friendly with students in and out of school' as compared to 16 (8.0%) of the boarding students ranking the same statement 6th.

Table 15

Day and Boarding Students Expectations of Teachers Desirable

Personal Qualities

Statement	Day			Boarding		
	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank
A teacher should be cheerful and good tempered	44	22.0	2nd	35	17.5	2nd
A teacher should look nice and well dressed	24	12.0	4th	25	12.5	4th
A teacher should be well mannered and polite	31	15.5	3rd	33	16.5	3rd
A teacher should be patient, under standing, kind and sympathetic	65	32.5	1st	68	34.0	1st

Table 15 continued

A teacher should have a sense of humour	17	8.5	6th	23	11.5	5th
a teacher should be friendly with students in and out of school	19	9.5	5th	16	8.0	6th
Total	200	100		200	100	

Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching.

The rankings for male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching as shown in Table 8 were analyzed using the chi-square test. The analysis of the results showed a chi-square value ($x^2 = 4.402$) and a critical value ($\rho = 5.536$) at 0.05 significant level. The small chi-square value ($x^2 = 4.402$) indicates a very close agreement between observed and expected values. Referring to Table 16, since the calculated chi-square value ($x^2 = 4.402$) falls out of the critical region bounded by ($x^2 = 5.536$) we fail to reject the null hypothesis which states that 'there is no significant difference in the expectations of male and female students of teachers' manner of teaching' given the sample size for the

study.

Table 16

Chi-square Test for Male and Female Students Expectations of

Teachers' Manner of Teaching

Sex	Observed Frequency (n)	Expected Frequency (n)	Percentage	X^2	df	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)
Boys	200	200	50.0	4.402	5	5.536
Girls	200	200	50.0			
Total	400	400	100			

The outcome of this study gives support to results of studies conducted by Meighan (1986); Cypher and Willower (1984); Morrison and McIntyre (1972) and Ruddock et al. (1995) who observed that students, irrespective of differences in sex, like teachers who make them learn. According to McIntyre and Morrison (1972) fundamentally, pupils expect teachers to teach and this statement appears to be true for all stages of education from the infants' school to the university. McIntyre and Morrison (1972) noted that in a study of the expectations of adolescent students, the teachers' method of teaching was adjudged to be the most important attribute.

According to Oblinger (2003) and Singh (2004), the teacher's ability to clearly explain a concept was an important expectation for male and female students. Musgrove (1966) noted in a study that by far, the greatest expectation demanded by pupils fell in the intellectual category comprising the teachers'

ability to do his primary professional duty of teaching. Crow (1987) observed that many secondary school teachers' conditions tend to place much more emphasis on academics over looking affective factors important to learning.

According to Wright (1962), pupils value their teachers mainly for their intellectual abilities; they are little concerned with their more general, human qualities in so far as the pupils do identify with teachers, it is restricted to those aspects of personality which relate to academic achievement. It is important to say that the result of this study re-affirms the time tested belief that the fundamental expectation students have about teachers irrespective of their sex differences is teachers' ability to teach. Personal qualities like kindness, sympathy and patience are secondary, appreciated by students only if they make the teacher more effective in carrying out his or her primary intellectual task.

School authorities and teachers in particular are expected, therefore, to create congenial environment for teaching and learning to take place in the school. Contact hours should be maximized and all efforts must be made by the school authorities to minimize disruptions during teaching and learning sessions.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

The rankings for male and female students' expectations of teachers'

manner of enforcing discipline as shown in Table 10 were analyzed using the chi-square test. The results of the analysis in Table 17 show the chi-square test for male and female students ranking of statements describing teachers' manner of enforcing discipline for scale A. The results showed a chi-square value ($x^2 =$ 0.766) and a critical value ($\rho = 5.536$) at 0.05 significant level. The extremely small chi-square value of ($x^2 = 0.766$) indicates an extremely close agreement between observed and expected values of students' expectations with respect to teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

Table 17

Chi-square Test for Male and Female Students' Expectations of Teachers Manner of Enforcing Discipline

Sex	Observed Frequency (n)	Expected Frequency (n)	Percentage	X^2	df	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)
Boys	200	200	50.0	0.766	5	5.536
Girls	200	200	50.0			
Total	400	400	100			

The calculated chi-square value ($x^2 = 0.766$) falls out of the critical region bounded by ($\rho = 5.536$) therefore we fail to reject the null hypothesis which states that 'there is no significant difference in the expectations of male and female students of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline' given the sample size for the study.

Referring to Table 10 it was obvious that of the three areas of teachers' behaviour under study male and female students were in perfect agreement in

their expectations with regards to how teachers are to enforce discipline in the various senior high schools. Interestingly, male and female students thought that teachers could best enforce discipline in schools by the use of extrinsic motivation strategies such as 'praise' and 'commendation' for good behaviour and hard work.

This line of thought by students could be explained by Thorndike's principle of the law of effect which postulates that when an individual performs an activity or exhibit a behaviour that brings about pleasant or satisfying effect, that behaviour is more likely to be sustained or reinforced. Students would always comport or remain disciplined if they were reinforced to do so as long as the consequences for doing so are pleasurable. Bandura's social cognitive learning also maintains that people model or imitate certain behaviours and manners if they saw that those behaviours were socially approved and brought about favourable effects on those who exhibited it. According to Chauhan (2004), it is human nature that everyone wants some praise for his or achievement and to motivate them to sustain a desired action. Chauhan (2004) noted that praise is more effective than blame for motivating students to behave well in the school even though Chauhan (2004) acknowledged that successful use of praise and blame depends upon the students, their personality and prior learning experiences.

The ranking of the statement 'A teacher should use the cane when necessary' as the least of students expectations of teachers manner of enforcing discipline is easy to understand because the use of the cane was the only manner of enforcing of discipline that suggested the infliction of pain to the physical body

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so naturally students would least expect that from any individual including teachers. Perhaps this position of the respondents' dislike for caning gives weight to the call by some educators and educational psychologists such as Kazdin (1994) against the use of corporal punishment as a manner of enforcing discipline.

According to Kazdin (1994), aversive events such as physical intervention (corporal punishment) have been identified as having functional punishing effects, but they should not be used except in extraordinary circumstances, and even then, their use remains quite controversial. According to Donnellan and LaVingna (1990); Kazdin (1994); Repp and Singh (1990) and Skinner (1974), teaching will become more pleasant, teachers more successful, and teacher-student relationships more positive when teachers abandon aversive techniques in favour of designing personally satisfying schedules of reinforcement for student. According to Elliot et al. (2000), there has been considerable discussion recently about the use of aversive techniques to control behaviour yet they have not been proved to be effective.

According to Dreikurs et al. (1982), discipline does not mean control by punishment. Dreikurs et al. (1982) believe that self-discipline comes from freedom with responsibility, while forced discipline comes from the use of force, power and fear. The classroom atmosphere must be positive, accepting, and non threatening. Students do need limits, however, discipline means teaching them that certain rules exist that everyone must follow but rather not the resort to corporal punishment.

Stenhouse (1967) observed that if good educational discipline and behaviour are to be maintained, a measure of understanding and agreement between teacher and children as to interests and immediate work-goals, though necessary is not sufficient. Students, rather, must also have some common ground in regard to social and moral values, and norms of conduct, for education is equally concerned with the development of these, and of attitudes.

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities.

The rankings for male and female students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities as shown in Table 12 were analyzed using the chi-square test. The results in Table 18 show the chi-square test for male and female students ranking of statements describing teachers' desirable personal qualities for scale A. The results indicated a chi-square value ($x^2 = 4.498$) and a critical value ($\rho = 5.536$) at 0.05 significant level. The small chi-square value ($x^2 = 4.498$) indicates a very close agreement between observed and expected values of students expectations with respect to teachers' personal desirable qualities.

The calculated chi-square value ($x^2 = 4.498$) falls out of the critical region bounded by ($\rho = 5.536$) therefore the null hypothesis which states that 'there is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers'

desirable personal qualities' is not rejected given sample size for the study.

Table 18

Chi-square Test for Male and Female Students' Expectations of

Teachers' Desirable Personal Qualities

Sex	Observed Frequency (n)	Expected Frequency (n)	Percentage	X^2	df	Asymp. sig. (2-sided)
Boys	200	200	50.0	4.498	5	5.536
Girls	200	200	50.0			
Total	400	400	100			

Analyzing the percentage weights male and female students attached to the items constituting teachers' desirable personal qualities in Table 12, both male and female students scored the teachers' attribute or personal quality of being 'patient, understanding, kind, and sympathetic' as the most important expectation. Similarly, 20.4% of female students and 18.5 % of male students said they liked a teacher who was 'cheerful and good mannered'. Interestingly, 10.6 % of male students and 7.5% of female students ranked the statement 'A teacher should have a sense of humour as the 5th most important out of the six statements.

Giving credence to this trend of expectations of students, Wragg (1984) and Meighan (1974) noted that pupils like teachers who are consistent, efficient at organizing and teaching, stimulating, patient, fair, and interested in individual and who have a sense of humour. They dislike teachers who are domineering, critical, and unkind, unpredictable and unfair. According to Evans (1962), children like

teachers who are kind, friendly, cheerful, patient, helpful, fair, have a sense of humour, show understanding of children's problems, allow plenty of pupil activity and at the same time maintain order. They dislike teachers who use sarcasm, are domineering and have favourites, who punish to secure discipline, fail to provide for the needs of individual pupils and have disagreeable personality peculiarities.

According to Meighan (1986), pupils dislike teachers who have favourites. Rather students, irrespective of sex differences preferred teachers who can sometimes 'have a laugh' but not a joker. If teachers were too friendly with students, with time teachers would have favourites and that is likely to undermine their authority in the classroom.

According to Stenhouse (1967), for a teacher to effectively exercise control in his or her classroom by means of authority, a teacher must have certain personal qualities which assures his or her pupils of his or her benevolence and his or her effective commitment to their well being. The personality traits which children seem to find pleasant and reassuring about teachers include the ability of the teacher to be kind, cheerful, patient, helpful, fair, have a sense of humour, understanding of their problems and allow for plenty of pupils activity while maintaining order. Stenhouse (1967) further noted that pupils dislike teachers who employ sarcasm, or ridicule, are domineering, resort to punishment in order to maintain discipline, or fail to provide for the needs of individual pupils. However, according to Ryan and Cooper (1998) teachers' insecurities and search for approval of students, makes it difficult for many teachers to deal confidently

with their role as disciplinarian.

Hypothesis 4

There is no significant relationship in the expectations students in day and boarding schools with regards to teachers' manner of teaching.

The result in Table 19 shows the spearman rank correlation coefficient for day and boarding students' ranking of items describing teachers' manner of teaching. The result indicates that there is an extremely strong and positive correlation ($r_s = 0.999$) between day and boarding students' ranking of their expectations of teachers' with respect to teaching.

By the result of the test, the null hypothesis which states that 'there is no significant relationship in day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching' is rejected given the sample size for the study.

Table 19

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient for Day and Boarding Students Ranking of Teachers' Manner of Teaching

Correlation Coefficient	$r_s = 0.999$
Sig. (2-tailed)	$\rho = 0.139$
Number of pairs	200

The implication for this finding is that residential status of students did not have any bearing and influence on their expectations about teachers with regards to their manner of teaching. In other words, the status of a student either as day or boarder did not matter as far as students expectations for teachers' manner of teaching. According to Wright (1962), pupils value their teachers mainly for intellectual abilities; they are little concerned with their more general, human qualities in so far as the pupils do identify with teachers, it is restricted to those aspects of personality which relate to academic achievement.

According to Oblinger (2003) and Singh (2004), the teacher's ability to clearly explain a concept was students' most important expectation. Musgrove (1966) noted in a study that by far, the greatest expectation demanded by pupils fell in the intellectual category comprising the teachers' ability to do his or her primary professional duty of teaching.

Pupils expect teachers to teach and this appears to be true for all stages of education from infants' school to the university. This statement pre-supposes that no matter the level, sex and residential status of students, they all have similar or at best the same expectations about what constitutes effective characteristics of teachers with regards to teaching (Ruddock et al. 1995; Meighan & Siraj-Blatchford, 1997; Cypher & Willower, 1984; McIntyre & Morrison, 1972).

Hypothesis 5

There is no significant relationship in the expectations of day and boarding

students of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

The result of the analysis in Table 20 shows the spearman rank correlation coefficient for day and boarding students' rankings of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline in the senior high schools. The result indicates that there is an extremely strong and positive correlation ($r_s = 0.999$) between day and boarding students' ranking of their expectations of teachers with respect to the manner of enforcing discipline.

Table 20

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient for Day and Boarding Students Ranking of Teachers Manner of Enforcing Discipline

Correlation Coefficient	$r_s = 0.999$
Sig. (2-tailed)	$\rho = 0.139$
Number of pairs	200

By this result, the null hypothesis which states that 'there is no significant relationship in day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline' is rejected given the sample size for the study.

With reference to Table 14 day and boarding students were in close agreement in their rankings with regards to how they expect teachers to enforce discipline in the senior high schools. Interestingly, both day and boarding

students thought that teachers could best enforce discipline in schools by the use of extrinsic motivation strategies such as 'praise' and 'commendation' for good behaviour and hard work. Students were equally unanimous in their dislike of the teacher resorting to the use of the cane as the least expected manner to secure discipline.

This line of thought by students could be explained by Thorndike's principle of the law of effect and Bandura's social cognitive learning theory. According to Thorndike, people and for that matter students would always comport or remain disciplined if they were reinforced to do so long as the consequences or the effect for doing so are pleasurable. In the same vein Bandura contends that behaviour that is rewarded or socially approved is likely to be imitated by others.

According to Chauhan (2004), it is human nature that everyone wants some praise for his or achievement and to motivate them to sustain a desired action. Hurlock (1978), cited by Chauhan (1995), noted that praise is more effective than blame for motivating students to behave well in the school even though Hurlock (1978), cited by Chauhan (1995), acknowledged that successful use of praise and blame depends upon the students, their personality and prior learning experiences.

Evans (1962) noted that pupils and for that matter students disliked teachers who punished to secure discipline. Perhaps this position of the respondents' dislike for caning gives weight to the call by some educators and educational psychologists such as Kazdin (1994) against the use of corporal punishment as a manner of enforcing discipline. Teaching will become more

pleasant, teachers more successful, and teacher-student relationships more positive when teachers abandon aversive techniques in favour of designing personally satisfying schedules of reinforcement for student.

Stenhouse (1967) suggests that good discipline must develop the ability to move from the particular to the general in the field of behaviour. Students must be able to deal with new situations as they arise, in the light of rules and conduct which they have already come to accept, and this is true both inside school and outside. This suggestion leaves little or no room for the use of cane to achieve the standards of discipline senior high school desire to achieve.

Hypothesis 6

There is no significant relationship in the expectations of students in day and boarding schools with regards to teachers' desirable personal qualities.

The result in Table 21 shows the spearman rank correlation coefficient for day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities.

Examining the sample correlation coefficient ($r_s = 0.999$) and the critical value ($\rho = 0.139$) at 0.05 level of significance we conclude that there is a positive correlation between day and boarding students expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities because the sample statistic ($r_s = 0.999$) exceeds the critical value ($\rho = 0.139$). By this result, the null hypothesis which states that 'there is no significant relationship in day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities' is rejected given the sample size for the study.

Table 21

Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient for Day and Boarding

Students Ranking of Teacher's Desirable Personal Qualities

Correlation Coefficient	$r_s = 0.999$
Sig. (2-tailed)	$\rho = 0.139$
Number of pairs	200

A careful consideration of the students ranking showed that a teacher by being friends with students was not an important desirable personal quality. Day and boarding students were unanimous in their dislike for teachers' who had the tendency to show favouritism in carrying out their duties. A teacher who was patient, understanding, kind, and sympathetic was cherished by students irrespective of differences in residential status.

Findings identifying pupils' like and dislikes are remarkably consistent. Wragg (1993) and Meighan (1974) noted that pupils like teachers who are consistent, efficient at organizing and teaching, stimulating, patient, fair, and interested in individual and who have a sense of humour. According to Evans (1962), children like teachers who are kind, friendly, cheerful, patient, helpful, fair, have a sense of humour, show understanding of children's problems, allow plenty of pupil activity and at the same time maintain order. On the other hand they dislike teachers who are domineering, critical, and unkind, unpredictable and

unfair. Furthermore students dislike teachers who use sarcasm, have favourites, who punish to secure discipline, fail to provide for the needs of individual pupils and have disagreeable personality peculiarities.

Pinker (1994) specified universal human characteristics such as humour, insults, fear, anger, common facial expression, crying and displays of affection, among others. Pinker (1994) noted that all humans dislike humiliation, embarrassment and pain. Conversely humans desire for respect, dignity, recognition and above all affection. These positive attributes are appreciated universally by humans including students regardless of their sex and residential status. The implication of this finding is that teachers should be very cautious in how they relate to students dislike teachers who are too close students or have favourites among students. Teachers who are too humourous are also thought of by students as jokers who are failing to meet their fundamental roles as custodian of knowledge and moral values.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In this chapter, the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study are provided. The summary highlights the objectives of study, some aspects of the methodology and the main findings of the study. The conclusions of the findings of the study and recommendations are also presented in the chapter. Finally, areas for further research are suggested in the chapter.

Summary of the Study

The study focused on senior high school students expectations of their teachers. Specifically, the study examined students' expectations of teachers with respect to teachers' manner of teaching, method of enforcing discipline and desirable personal qualities.

The cross-sectional descriptive survey design was used for the study. In all, 400 students comprising 200 females and 200 males were randomly selected from four public senior high schools to participate in the study.

A close-ended form of questionnaire was constructed to elicit students' responses about their expectations. The research questions were analyzed using percentages, chi-square test statistic and Spearman rank correlation coefficient.

The following are the main results of the study:

1. The hypothesis that there is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching failed to be rejected. Male and female students were found to have similar expectations of teachers' manner of teaching.

2. The hypothesis that there is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline failed to be rejected. Male and female students were found to have similar expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

3. The hypothesis that there is no significant difference in male and female students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities failed to be rejected. Both male and female students were found to have the same expectations of what constitute desirable personal qualities of teachers.

4. The hypothesis that there is no significant relationship in day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching was rejected. There is a very strong and positive correlation between day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' manner of teaching.

5. The hypothesis that there is no significant relationship in day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline was rejected. The rankings for day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline strongly correlated positively.

6. The hypothesis that there is no significant relationship in day students and boarding students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities was rejected. There is a very strong and positive correlation between day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities.

Conclusions

From the study, the following conclusions are drawn.

1. Male and female students have similar expectations of teachers' manner of teaching.

2. Male and female students have similar expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

3. Male and female students have the same expectations of what constitute teachers' desirable personal qualities.

4. Day and boarding students have the same expectations with regard to teachers' manner of teaching.

5. Day and boarding students' have similar expectations of teachers' manner of enforcing discipline.

6. Day and boarding students' expectations of teachers' desirable personal qualities are similar.

Recommendations

Considering the findings and conclusions drawn from the study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Teachers should be abreast with the concepts and dimensions of the subject (s) they teach. This can be achieved through the periodic conduct of workshops, seminars, fora, and symposia by the Ghana Education Service and other stakeholders such as the Ministry of Education and Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition.

2. The Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service should, as a matter of policy, enforce the ban on the use of cane in the schools. Caning is most likely to breed enmity, tension and hostility between teachers and students. This can negatively affect teaching and learning.

3. Teachers' ability to meet the intellectual needs of students should take precedence over other considerations such as the desire to endear themselves to students.

4. Discipline in the school does not mean control by punishment. Teaching will become more pleasant, teachers more successful, and teacher-student relationships more positive when teachers abandon aversive techniques in favour of designing personally satisfying schedules of reinforcement for students.

5. It is difficult to maintain academic focus when classroom activities are frequently interrupted. Schools should create favourable conditions for teaching and learning to take place smoothly.

6. Teachers should be patient, kind and sympathetic in the course of teaching.

Areas for further Studies

It is suggested that a similar study be conducted in other parts of the country using rural and urban; endowed and less endowed schools. It is also recommended that the study be replicated using students at the colleges of education, polytechnics and the universities. Finally, students' expectations of male and female teachers would also be an interesting area to consider in future studies.

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UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

This questionnaire is part of a thesis work aimed at obtaining information on senior high school students' expectations of teachers. You are kindly requested to read through the items and respond to them as frankly and objectively as possible. Your objective response will constitute a strong basis upon which policies aimed at improving the lots of students will be based. Confidentiality, except for the above purpose, in respect of whatever information you give is fully assured. Thank you.

Section A

Tick (/) where applicable.

1. Course/Programme of study……………………………………..…..

2. Sex: Male [   ] Female [   ]

3. Year / Form: [   ] [   ] [   ]

Section B

Below are a series of statements labeled as scales A to D .Under each of the scales are six statements. Rank the statements in order of priority using numbers 1 to 6 with the most important being ranked 1st to the least ranked 6th.

Scale A

A teacher should be fair and just about punishment and
should have no favorites.   [   ]

A teacher should explain the work you have to do and help
you with it.   [   ]

A teacher should be patient, understanding, kind and
sympathetic.   [   ]

A teacher should be cheerful, friendly, good tempered,
and has a sense of humour.   [   ]

A teacher should be firm and maintain order in the
classroom.   [   ]

A teacher should encourage you to work hard at your
school work.   [   ]

Scale B

A teacher should be firm and keep order in the classroom.   [   ]

A teacher should be fair and just about punishment.   [   ]

A teacher should praise you for behaving well and
working hard.   [   ]

A teacher should have no favourites.   [   ]

A teacher should sometimes be considerate.   [   ]

A teacher should use the cane when necessary.   [   ]

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Scale C

A teacher should encourage you to work hard at school.   [   ]

A teacher should explain the work you have to do

and help you with it   [   ]

A teacher should know a great deal about subject

he/she is teaching.   [   ]

A teacher should give interesting lessons.   [   ]

A teacher should give enough time to finish

your work.   [   ]

A teacher should mark your work regularly and fairly.   [   ]

Scale D

A teacher should be cheerful and good tempered.   [   ]

A teacher should look nice and dressed.   [   ]

A teacher should be well mannered and polite.   [   ]

A teacher should be patient, understanding,

 kind and sympathetic.   [   ]

A teacher should have a sense of humour.   [   ]

A teacher should be friendly with students in and

out of school.   [   ]