CHAPTER III

THE PROCEDURE

The purpose of the Chapter is to describe the method and procedure used in this study. This study was aimed at comparing the attitudes and values of expatriate Indian and native teachers working in the schools of Ethiopia. In addition to this, it was also aimed at studying perceptions of these teachers with regard to certain aspects of their mutual social contacts and their views on certain cultural and educational aspects. These considerations have helped in deciding the methods and procedures to be adopted in this study. In the light of this, discussion of tools, descriptions of population and sample, and description of statistical techniques used are presented respectively. Scope and limitations of this study are presented at the end.

3.1 SELECTION, ADAPTATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF INSTRUMENTS FOR THE STUDY

This study made use of three types of data as indicated by its aims. They were the data concerning the values of teachers, the data concerning the attitudes of teachers and the data concerning concepts and views of teachers. As these represented three different areas, three types of instruments were to be used to obtain them. Of these areas, the first two were vastly probed ones. Hence a variety of measuring instruments were available for studying values and attitudes of teachers. But an appropriate selection had to be made from the available tools. After the selection, these tools were to be tested for their efficiency in the changed environment. Based on 'pilot results', sometimes necessary adaptation procedures had to be made so as to make the tool suitable under the specific conditions of the study. This study being a cross cultural one, these procedures were found necessary in refining the tools selected to collect value and attitude data in this study. Since the third aspect of this study dealt with perceptions of teachers with regard to certain selected socio-cultural aspects, an instrument to suit the specific needs was found to be developed. Discussion on selection, adaptation and development of these tools and their nature, content and limitations are presented in this section. The description of the schedule that contains all the three

instruments used in this investigation is presented at the end of this section and the schedule as such in Appendix-I.

3.1.1 THE VALUE SCALE : ITS SELECTION AND ADAPTATION

3.1.1.1 Measurement of Values

'Value measurement' posed a crucial problem for those social scientists, who attempted to study value in the beginning. Even now, it is not just like any routine, problem of psychometry (Raths, 1942; Mc Curdy, 1950; Grace and Grace, 1952). Hence the empirical investigation of values remains an isolated area within the field of social psychology; although its vital importance is accepted. The "highly conditional character of value" judgements, "the question of common denominator for the possible approaches" to values and "the apparent lack of transitivity in some evaluations", put together, made the application of mathematics difficult in the study of values (Dukes, 1955). Levitin (1973) pointed out the problem of proper specification of the universe from which value items are to be sampled. Items of very general nature are likely to elicit only cultural cliches, eliminating the possibility to bring to surface the individual differences in value systems. Whereas, very specific items may tap constructs labeled as attitudes, motives etc. According to Levitin (1973), still another problem, common to authors of scales, is to

overlook the important theoretical and methodological distinction between values as "what is preferred" Vs "what is preferable". In other words, what is desired as opposed to what ought to be deserved.

Investigations in the area of values by psychologists received impetus only after Thurstone's (1927) demonstration of the utility of psycho-physics in the area of social values. Since then,a number of tools have been developed and in use for collecting data on this aspect. (Allport and Vernon, 1931; Jacobs, 1939; Wickert, 1940; Cohen, 1941; Thurstone, 1952; Shorr, 1953; Morris, 1956; Retting and Pasamanick, 1959; Scolt, 1965; Rockeach, 1968; Bales and Couch, 1969). Of all the scales employed, for studying values, the Allport-Vernon 'Study of Values'(1931) with its revised versions became the most popular and widely used tool. The study of values is a well standardised test, and good reliability and validity coefficients have been reported for it. Irrespective of the criticisms (that mostly centered around (i) ipsative scoring and associated difficulties of interpreting correlations of sub-scales across persons, (ii) restricted range of usage-originally designed for use with persons having 'some college' education, (iii) and the poorly defined nature of values) "the study of values" is a surprisingly viable test (Hogan 1972). Evans (1965) commended

on the test that,

> "Not all tests have as long a life as this, and the fact that the study of values has survived for thirty years, during which time a major world-war with the consequent disruption of society has occured, suggests that it is not dealing merely with superficial levels of personality organization".

According to Newcomb, Turner and Converse (1965) this test clearly deals with "inclusive values" or with "basic value postures" whose generality is strikingly broad. Inspite of its many weaknesses, this tool is "the best and certainly the most ubiquitous scales of values". (Levitin, 1973). The continuing usefulness of this tool as a research device, is well illustrated by the steadily mounting bibliography of its application in research. (Buros, 1949, 1953, 1959, 1965 and 1972). As the only value instrument that has had the benefit of revision over a period of thirty years, its merits and limitations are more clearly evident than is true of newer scales.

For the present study, Allport, Vernon-Lindzey "Study of Values" is found most suitable. Hence it is adapted for the purpose. As the interpretation has to be done in the light of socio-cultural background, a brief discussion regarding the variables of the instrument seems important. Ultimately these are the variables to be put under socio-cultural spectrum in this study.

3.1.1.2 Study of Values

A. Its Origin and Revisions

Spranger (1928) attempted to classify people according to their evaluative attitudes or values. His classification in a w ay, can be considered very much similar to that of Webarian concept of ideal types. Philosophical consideration provided the basis for classification. Though his classification was not based on any empirical data, his reasoning appeared to be a type which could be tested empirically. Based on Spranger's typology, Allport and Vernon (1931) made an attempt to study values empirically, using a questionnaire titled "Study of Values". Thus for the first time the test "Study of Values" appeared in 1931. Revisions of this test had been published later in 1951, 1960 and 1965 by Allport, Vernon and Lindzey.

B. Theoretical Basis of the Scale

Spranger (1928) postulated that people showed more or less consistent and permanent attitudes or sets, and that six 'ideal types' of individuality could be discriminated. They are theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious. According to him, in real life, any particular individual might not belong exclusively to any one type, but might show characteristics of more than one. He symbolises

the inter relation to a gambler's dice by pointing out that,

> ".....in every instance one side with its figures must be upper most. The others are not, however, absent but are instead in a definite relation to the figures on top. The isolating and idealising method is thus reinforced by totalising (totalisierende) method".

A discussion on each of the aspects will bring to surface the inter relations of the six value areas included in the test.

1. Theoretical Type

The dominent interest of the theoretical man or the "intellectualist" is the discovery of truth. "He has a feeling for the purity of cognitive process, a feeling which cares ~~fre~~ for nothing but truth (Spranger, 1928). The state of mind of the theoretical type is characterised by the absence of affectivity. We can find these types among scholars who follow chosen academic careers. A theoretical type is rational, objective and impractical because theoretical interest repudiates utilitarian interests which makes a man practical. Both the economic and the theoretic attitudes cannot have an equal dominance in one's value structure. The economic value, nevertheless, enters the cognitive behaviour but only as a subordinate factor. The aesthetic value is also found devalued by the theoretic type. Aesthetic imagination is subjective, while cognition is more objective. Similarly a pure intellectual type cannot have a social nature because his objective mental attitude is

antithetical to sympathetic or empathic relations with others, having broad or narrow, but always strongly subjective mental nature. In the same way, political sphere also cannot be of great interest to a theoretical type. He also cannot appreciate the dogmatic mind of a religious type. The positivistic theoretic type rejects religion because it seems to him as an antiquated form of cognition. Some of the theoretic types may accept the fundamental basis of religion as an effort to find truth and also its attitude towards totality. The chief aim in the life of a theoretic type is to order and systematize his knowledge. He values the discovery of truth. He is empirical, critical, and rational in his methods.

2. Economic Type

The economic type seds cognition from his purposive point of view. He is interested in what is useful. He prefers utility to all other values. He sees everything as a means for self preservation, as an aid in the struggle for existence and as a possibility to render life pleasant. The value quality of this type is represented in experience not only as the feelings of 'pleasant' and 'unpleasant' but also as more specific evaluations in terms of the 'useful-harmful' continuum. The one with economic value is a 'practical type' with interests in economic activities such as agriculture, trade, consumption and accumulation of wealth etc.

Economic motives can be distinguished from theoretic motives since 'their deciding values are not the logical ones of ordination but those of utility'. The economic type regards unapplied knowledge as waste. This value of utility conflicts with aesthetic value, except when art serves commercial ends. He may confuse luxury with beauty. Social relations may be more of an economic type. In his relations with other people, he is more interested in surpassing them in wealth than in dominating them (power). He believes in economic success, and considers economic prosperity as a gift from God. Analysis of this relationship between economics and religion resembles the historical analysis, given by Weber (1930) in another context.

To summarize, the economic man values that which is useful. He is interested in practical affairs, and evaluates the situations or objects interms of their tangible utility.

3. Aesthetic Type

The aesthetic man values beauty, harmony and proportion most. He tries to strike a balance between objective experience and its subjective penetration. He is the one whose inward life is aesthetically organized. "He regards life as a procession of events, each single impression is enjoyed for its own sake. "He need not be a creative artist, nor need he be effete; he is aesthetic if he but finds his chief interests in the artistic episodes of life" (Allport, Vernon and Lindzey, 1960).

According to him, theoretical knowledge destroys the 'perceptual', and classifies everything according to concepts of general validity. The aesthetic man's perception of nature is different from that of a theoretic man. To him "Nature is neither kernel nor shell but everything at the same time". (Spranger, 1928). To him, emphatic 'intuition' is the method. The 'economic' and the 'aesthetic' values are in no way bear similarity. The practical approach in viewing things, destroys its aesthetic value. His interest in other person (social) is a matter of aestheticism only. He is not at all interested in the welfare of persons. He believes in his inner power and "tends towards individualism and self sufficiency". (Allport et al, 1960). He is incapable to cope with suppression, subordination or any form of outward power trying to operate in his fields of interest. Otherwise, he likes the "beautiful insignia of pomp and power". For him, God is "the highest ordering and form-giving power; a soul breathing in the world itself" and religion to him is harmony (Spranger, 1928). He may confuse beauty with pure religious experience.

In short, the aesthetic man values beauty and harmoney most. He is concerned with grace and symmetry, finding fulfillment in artistic experiences.

4. Social Type

The social type has an altruistic tendency, to dedicate the self for another. In him, this appeares as a dominant drive. This quality can be attributed to love. In him, the limits of self hood disappear. "The ego feeling and the alter feeling, self hood and self sacrifice, liberty and reunion coincide". Lower level social types direct their love only to one or a few.

The objectivity of science is contrary to the spirit of love. It is like objective understanding of man versus sympathetic understanding of man. A similar variation lies between economic and social values. Being 'practical' is different from being 'social'. In the same way power (political) and love (social) are not positively associated. The social type believes in the power of love. Power exercised in an impersonal manner is not the same as the principle of love. In its purest form social type is unselfish. Hence this type "tends to approach very closely to the religious attitudes" (Allport et al, 1960).

In nutshell, the social man values altruistic and philanthropic love most. He is kind, sympathetic and unselfish. He considers other men as ends in themselves.

5. Political Type

The political type has a dominant interest in power. Pure political type strives to attain power. Power need not be limited to the narrow field of politics. In any field of activity such individuals display their power value. Leaders of groups generally have high power value. The power motive is common among leaders but in this type the power motive is so dominant that he strives to attain it by any means available. To him, other types of values appear as means to achieve power or as symbols of power.

The political man values power and influence most. He seeks leadership and finds pleasure in competition and struggle.

6. Religious Type

Religious type experiences a subjective product of the soul. Spranger (1928) defined him as the one "whose mental structure is permanently directed to the creation of the highest and absolutely satisfying value experience". He is the one "who tries to understand the cosmos and finds divinity in every aspect of life", (Allport et al, 1960). A variation from this type finds the highest value in utter negation of the world. This type is calle "transcendental mystic". "He is ascetic and like the holy men of India finds the experience of unity through self-denial and meditation"

(Allport et al, 1960). The "immanent mystics" on the other hand, find religious experience in the affirmation of life and active participation in it. 'Affirmation' or 'negation' of life provides this type the greatest satisfaction. Love is the most closely related aspect to this value.

Spranger's (1928) depictions of these values are in terms of 'ideal types'. He does not mean that any given individual belongs exclusively to one or another of these types of values.

A limitation of this theory is that in this classification, sensuous values are neglected. According to Allport, Vernon and Lindzey (1960), Spranger's attempt to include hedonistic choices partly to economic and partly to aesthetic values seems unconvincing. Another limitation is that this theoretical approach does not consider the influence of environmental factors on value strength. This approach presupposes the organismic source of values by ignoring equally decisive environmental forces. For example, if religion is used as a supporter of the means of exploitation of individuals and if the individuals are conscious of the fact, it may be possible for the whole group of individuals of that society to view religion as means of exploitation and react to it with repulsion. Value test when applied to these individuals may indicate that they possess low religious value, since anything related with religion (terms such as God, Church, Temple, etc.) could only create antagonistic feelings in him. Still another

criticism levelled against spranger's classification is the absence of an exclusive nature for values. Duffy's (1940) report indicated a possible reduction of Spranger's category. Lurie's (1937) and Brogden's (1952) factor analytical studies also supported Duffy's views.

C. Description of the Test

The test is composed of 45 items, 30 of which are forced choice (Part-I) and fifteen of which require rank ordering of 4 alternatives (Part-II). In part I, each value is paired twice (but with different statements) with every other value, and in Part II, each value is compared (again with different statements) with all combinations of three other values. Altogether each value is represented twenty times in the hundred and twenty possible answers. Scores are obtained by summing them item scores and adding or substracting correction figures specified in the manuel.

Other than the limitations mentioned as theoretical, some well known methodological limitations are also noted. This scale measures only the relative strength of each value; thus a high score on one scale necessitates a corresponding reduction on one or more of the other scales. This fact should be remembered while analysing and interpreting the data. Another limitation is that the test is standardized on college students

who are primarily in liberal arts. Still another limitation reported in the related literature is about the level of vocabulary. However, the original test of 1931 was simplified and up dated in the 1951 revised edition of the test. The 1960 revision provided new norms also.

3.1.1.3 Procedures Used for the Adaptation of the Value Scale

A. Discussions with Educators and Administrators

The test in its original form (Allport, Vernon, Lindzey Study of Values, 1960) were distributed to twenty six teachers and administrators. This group consisted of seven Indian teachers and seven Ethiopian teachers, of senior secondary schools and twelve educational officers of provincial educational office of Tigre educational province. They were asked to read each item carefully and based on the level of phraseology and comprehension classify the items into three groups as 'clear', 'vague' and 'not clear'. An analysis of their answers revealed the following facts:-

(1) Not a single item was described as 'not clear at all'.

(2) A few items were found included under 'vague' category (Items 7, 9, 13,22,23 and 29 from Part I; 6, 8, 9 and 13 from Part (II).

(3) Majority of the items were classified as clear.

In the light of this analysis, discussions were made with all the respondents one by one to understand their difficulty in comprehending the items included under vague category. Then it was found that certain words and phrases used in these items were not properly understood by them. On the basis of this, necessary minute alternations were made in the phraseology of items described as vague so as to obtain clarity. Items 9, 22 and 29 from Part I and item 13 from Part II were substituted using items from an Indian adaptation of the 'Study of Values' (Thankam, 1968) without disrupting the underlying concept of each item. There was no problem of translation since the test was conducted in the English language which is the language of instruction in the secondary schools of Ethiopia.

B. Try out

This instrument (along with other instruments selected for the study) was distributed to one hundred and sixty seven teachers, teaching in the senior secondary schools of Tigre, and Eritrea educational provinces. Due to practical difficulties, this tryout sample was limited to teachers from these two northern educational provinces. This sample consisted of thirty seven Indians, one hundred and twenty seven Ethiopians and thirty other nationals. These subjects were personally approached for this purpose.

Out of one hundred and sixty seven subjects to whom the questionnaire was distributed, only hundred and twenty returned the questionnaire duly filled. (Thirty seven Indian teachers, sixty five Ethiopian teachers and eighteen other nationals).

C. Item Analysis and Reliabilities

After excluding eighteen returns from other nationals and two returns from Ethiopians, the remaining hundred returns were used to find out the discriminating power of the test items. The scores of twenty five teachers who have obtained the highest and lowest total scores in each value where analysed for this purpose, using critical ratio formula.

$$C.R. = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{N_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{N_2}}}$$

(Where M_1 = Arithmetic mean of the scores of twentyfive teachers of high score group).

M_2 = Arithmetic mean of the scores assigned by twenty five teachers of the low score group.

σ_1 = Standard deviation of M_1 group

σ_2 = S.D. of M_2 group

N_1 = Number of cases of high score group.

N_2 = Number of the cases of low score group.

The discriminating power of each item was calculated. Significance of difference (at 5% level) between scores of these groups on each item was observed. Items with critical ratio above 1.96 were considered as possessing sufficient discriminating power. All the items were found to have discriminating power. The critical ratios obtained are given in Appendix-II. Following the procedure given in the manual split half realiability of each value was calculated from the test scores on items pertaining to each value. For this analysis, test scores of all the hundred teachers were used. When the correlation coefficients were converted using the Spearman-Brown formula (Tuckman, 1972), the realiability coefficients obtained for all the six values were found to be reasonably high to suggest sound reliability for the test.

$$r_2 = \frac{nr}{1+(n-1)r_1}$$

Where r_1 = correlation co-efficient (uncorrected)

r_2 = corrected reliability coefficient

n = Number of parts (e.g. for halves; n=2)

Table 3.1: Reliability Coefficients for Six Values of 'Study of Values' Using Spearman-Brown Formula

N = 100

Value Domains	Correlation Coefficient (r_1)	Reliability Coefficient (r_2)
Theoretical	0.740	0.850
Religious	0.856	0.922
Economic	0.817	0.899
Aesthetic	0.753	0.859
Political	0.652	0.789
Social	0.749	0.856

Thus the 'study of values' was adapted for this investigation. The final form consists of thirty, two alternative questions and fifteen, four alternative questions as in the original test. In this test also, there are altogether hundred and twenty items, where each value being measured by twenty items. Content of the final test is given in part-I of Appendix-I. List of items measuring each of the six values for Part-I and Part-II of the test is given in Appendix-I-A.

3.1.2 Teacher Attitude Inventory : Its Selection and Adaptation

One of the objectives of this study was to make cross cultural comparisons of 'teacher attitudes' towards children and teaching of Ehtiopian and Indian teachers in the context of their

socio-cultural background. For collecting teacher attitude data a number of tools were available (Shaw and Wright, 1967). Of many scales available, "the most popular instrument for measurement of teacher attitudes is the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI)" (Getzels and Jackson, 1963). This instrument was developed at the Minnesota University by Cook, Leeds and Callis (1951). According to the authors, this tool is designed to measure those attitudes of teacher which predict how well he will get along with pupils in interpersonal relationships and indirectly how well satisfied he will be with 'teaching' as a 'vocation' (1951, p.1). Further, the attitude measured by this tool indicates teacher's faith in democratic versus authoritarian classroom control. This aspect of the measure seemed to be very relevant in making comparison of two national groups, Since the authoritarian democratic patterns could be located in the structure of societies also. These considerations indicated the suitability of this tool for this investigation. Hence Minnesotta Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI) was selected to collect teacher attitude data for the present study.

MINNESOTA TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY

A. Rationale of the Tool

Since the test is mainly aimed at predicting teacher-pupil relationship, it must include statements that reveal some of the

teacher characteristics that affect the inter-personal relationships in the classroom. As in other attitude scales, MTAI also has two extremes of the scale. High end of the scale denotes desirable teac her attitudes and the low end of the scale indicates undesirable teacher attitudes. This necessitates definition of desirable and undesirable attitudes and also desirable and undesirable classroom climate that may result from interaction of teachers who possess desirable and undesirable attitude. Cook, Leeds and Callis (1951), the authors of the test in this regard made the following observations.

> "It is assumed that a teacher ranking at the high end of the scale should be able to maintain a state of harmonious relations with his pupils characterised by mutual affection and sympathetic understanding. The pupils should like the teacher and enjoy the school work. The teacher should like the children and enjoy teaching. Situations, requiring disciplinary action should rarely occur. The teacher and pupils should work together in a social atmosphere of co-operative endeavour, of intense interest in the work of the day and with a feeling of security growing from a permissive atmosphere of freedom to think, act and speak one's mind with mutual respect for feelings, rights and abilities of others. Inadequacies and short comings in both teacher and pupils should be admitted frankly as something to be overcome not to be rediculed. A sense of proportion involving humour, justice and honesty is essential. Group solidarity resulting from common efforts, difficulties and common achievements should characterise the calss".

The other extreme of the scale characterise the teacher who attempts to dominate the classroom.

> "He may be unsuccessful and become nervous, fearful, and distraught in a classroom characterised by frustration, restlessness, inattention, lack of respect and numerous disciplinary problems. In either case, both teacher and pupils dislike school work; there is a feeling of mutual distrust and hostility. Both attempt to hide their inadequacies from each other. Redicule, sarcasm and sharp tempered remarks are common".

This test therefore seeks to pinpoint teacher's attitudes on a liberal-conservative continuum. The desirable-undesirable teacher attitudes as measured by this scale is a relative one. What is desirable according to one social environment need not be desirable in another social environment. This desirability-undesirability in this scale is decided from a mental health point of view and in accordance with the principles of educational training programme. These training programmes are developed in both the countries (India and Ethiopia) based on the concepts borrowed from western psychology and not in accordance with their respective socio-cultural environment. Emphasis given to these psychological concepts in teacher training programmes gives the trainees 'ideas' of what is desirable and what is undesirable. Thus, those who are trained without any real attitudinal shift towards the desirable, may fake the test based on the ideas he formed at the time of the training. This chance of fakability must be considered as a limitation of the rationale on which the tool

is based. Even some of the items used in MTAI, have direct bearing on topics which are frequently studied in teacher training courses. However, according to Arvidson (1950), MTAI is a reliable and valid tool to measure the attitudes of teachers inspite of these limitations. According to Arnold (1953),

> "The MTAI presents a new and promising approach to the difficult but important problem of measurement of teacher attitudes".

B. Description of the Inventory

The MTAI consists of hundred and fifty statements of opinion about children and their behaviour to each of which a response is required on a five-point scale: Strongly Agree, Agree, undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree

C. Scoring

For convenience, responses are designated as 'right' and 'wrong' though it is recognized that these terms are incorrect and there are infact no 'right' or no 'wrong' answers. Only a relative agreement or disagreement is expressed with each attitudinal item. The scoring procedure used for this study is hand scoring. The test is scored using stencils giving the number of 'rights' and 'wrongs'. The final score is total 'rights' minus 'wrongs'. A positive score is taken as indicating

the desirable teacher attitude on the part of the teacher. A negative score suggests a repressive dominating attitude.

The Procedures Used for the Adaptation of the Inventory

The MTAI, prior to its use in the final study, was tested for its workability and utility.

1. Discussion with Educational Experts

MTAI testlets were distributed to twenty six educators and administrators to whom the 'study of value' scales were distributed. This tool was given for their comments on its level of comprehension and phraseology and for their classification of items into three categories as clear, vague and not clear at all. Returns were analysed and the results were discussed with the respondents to make necessary alterations. Based on this, a few minor alterations of words were made. Considerable care was given in simplifying and changing a few words in the items in order to ensure similar meanings to teachers of both the cultures, keeping in mind the basic objective of each item.

2. Try out

In order to find out whether the inventory will work as planned, a tryout was conducted. The sample used is the same that was used for value scale tryout. Inventories were scored and

analysed. The observations noted based on the analysis were,

1. All test items were attempted as instructed.
2. All response options were used.
3. Analysis showed significant difference in attitude with respect to qualification, as expected.

From these, the tool was found applicable as such for the present study. The inventory used in this study is presented in Appendix-I.

3.1.3 THE SOCIO-CULTURAL QUESTIONNAIRE : ITS DEVELOPMENT

A study of social relationship that existed between expatriate Indians and native Ethiopian teachers seemed to be important since a good number of Indian teachers were found serving in Ethiopia. Instead of studying this relationship directly, their mutual understanding was taken as an indicator of social relationship, on the assumption that effective relationships could be possible only through the development of understanding between the native teachers and the expatriate teachers. (This theoretical stand is neither new nor unacceptable, Berin and David, 1971). This could be studied using various methods. Observation was one among them. But practical difficulties of its application in all cases, have lead researchers to use interview and questionnaire techniques

also to obtain data on inter-cultural understanding, relationship, adjustment etc. (Selltiz et al, 1963; Thompson and English, 1964; Eshetu, 1969; and Husain, 1970). However, usefulness of questionnaire as a research tool in social psychology is widely accepted. For the present study, questionnaire technique was found most suitable. Development of a suitable questionnaire to study inter-cultural views, opinions and perceptions of teachers w ith regard to certain selected social, cultural and educational aspects was found necessary.

Steps Taken for the Development of the Questionnaire

1. Selection of Units

In order to develop a questionnaire for the present study, works related to this field were consulted first. (Taft, 1953; Byrnes, 1961 ; Sellitz et al, 1963; Kunz, 1968; Delusch, 1969; Eshetu, 1969; and Husain, 1970). Based on the readings with reference to the purpose of the study, certain important aspects were selected as units of the questionnaire. In other words, these units provided the frame work for the questionnaire. These units would help collect data specified by the objectives of the study. These units were,

1. Inter-cultural relationship and adjustment.
   (a) mutual contacts
   (b) acceptance of and appreciation in material and non material aspects of others culture.
   (c) participation in social activities.

2. Cultural difference
   (a) social values
   (b) commitment to own culture

3. Professional confidence and satisfaction
   (a) economic
   (b) role
   (c) student's attitude as perceived by teacher

4. Concepts about others
   (a) students
   (b) teachers

2. Framing of Questions

Based on these units, questions were framed. While framing the questions care was taken (1) to avoid colloquial expressions and slangs; (2) to include words that should be easy enough to read and comprehend and (3) to include a number of items to cover each aspect. Nature of each question to be included was studied carefully so that the question should be acceptable to the respondent. Thus, in the construction of this tool, the procedures advised by Rash (1966) Wright (1969) and Anastasi

(1970) were adopted to the maximum extent possible. The initial form of the tool consisted of open ended questions, forced choice questions and also questions asking for rank ordering the stimuli presented. Total fifty six questions were framed. These questions were worded in such a way so that they were applicable only for the expatriate teacher sample. So another set of (forty seven only) counter questions were framed for Ethiopian teacher sample based on the questions framed for Indians.

3. Discussions with Administrators and Educators

The questionnaire thus developed was distributed among administrators and educators with whom the attitude and value scale were discussed. As a result of the discussion some items were modified.

4. Try-out

This questionnaire was administered to Ethiopian and Indian teachers of the tryout sample. Hundred returns were selected and analysed to find out weaknesses of the tool. The following observations were made on the basis of the analysis,

1. Some questions were left unattempted by the majority of Indian and Ethiopian teachers.

2. Both Ethiopian and Indian teachers have shown a tendency to use 'opinion' option for questions provided with 'no opinion' alternatives.

3. Open ended questions were mostly left blank.

In the light of these observations, the questionnaire was discussed with Ethiopian and Indian teachers. From this, it was found that both the groups were reluctant to answer questions on their contacts with the other. Some Indian teachers have even doubted the intention of the investigator. In the case of Ethiopian teachers, some of them frankly admitted that the investigator being an Indian they felt delicate to express freely.

5. Steps Taken to Reduce Limitations

A number of steps were planned to deal with the limitations observed. In the hope of reducing the possible reluctance to answer freely and honestly, it was planned,

(a) to serve the questionnaire in person to each subject with personal request to cooperate earnestly and honestly;

(b) to assure each respondent that the study has nothing to do with the evaluation or with the Ministry of Education, Ethiopia;

(c) to promise that no respondent would be identified in any way in the report of the study and to assure that their responses to the questions would be kept secret and would be used only for the study;

(d) to secure the assistance of an Ethiopian teacher so as to influence and win the confidence of the Ethiopian teachers. (Ato Girmay Aberra mentioned in the acknowledgment helped the investigator in this regard by allowing his name to be placed in the request part of the questionnaire and also by accompanying the investigator to the various schools for administering the questionnaire);

(e) to use forced choice technique and remove 'no opinion' categories so as to avoid being 'neutral' in answering;

(f) to check the returns for questions left unanswered before taking back the answered questionnaires and if necessary to make further appeal to the respondent for answering all questions;

(g) to minimise open ended questions;

(h) to exclude the questions that were left unattempted by the majority of teachers.

The final form of the questionnaire consisted of only 47 questions applicable to Indian teachers and thirty eight

questions applicable to Ethiopian teachers. The final forms of these are given in Part III of Appendix-I.

As limitations, it should be mentioned that this tool was inadequate for indepth studies of Sojourn's relationship and adjustment with the host culture, as this was not intended to cover all aspects related to these. Some questions on this tool might not provide frank answers from the respondents. However, this questionnaire was considered adequate to serve the specific purposes of this enquiry.

3.1.4 The Schedule

Final form of 'study of values', 'MTAI' and the 'Socio-Cultural Questionnaire' were arranged as Part I, Part II and Part III of the Schedule-I. The introductory part was also added. In total the schedule consisted of two hundred and forty two questions applicable to Indian teachers and 233 questions applicable to Ethiopian teachers.

Other than the specific limitations of each of the tools some other limitations that could be considered general were also observed. Much recent research on personality measurements indicated that the test making behaviour was highly influenced by group norms of social desirability (Evans 1958; Taylor, 1961; Mark, 1963). A number of studies have reported

that more socially desirable a statement was more apt it was to be endorsed. Hence there was a chance to endorse socially desirable values, to fake MTAI towards the desirable, and to hide the unfavourable attitudes towards the other national group (socio-cultural questionnaire). To minimise the disadvantages, the importance of frankness was stressed when the subjects were contacted in person. It was expected to reduce the limitation to a great extent, in the light of Evan's (1965) observation,

> "Such factors as the use to which people think their answers may be put and the relationship between them and the investigator may have a marked effect on the answers in some circumstances. (People) will nearly always co-operate in a piece of research, as long as they know that there will be no repercussions for them personally".

As far as the teachers were concerned the burden of filling up the schedule might be too much a strain, to be serious about their answers to the questions. This was another reason for taking the decision that the investigator should contact teachers to distribute the schedule instead of mailing them. This personal approach by the investigator was expected to give him the opportunity to make the respondents interested in the schedule so that the subjects would do much better in responding.

3.2.1 Definition of the Population

This investigation was carried out with the purpose to gain information about and to draw comparison between the Ethiopian (native) and Indian (expatriate) teachers working in Ethiopian schools with regard to their values, attitudes and social interaction perceptions. Hence they formed the target groups for this study. Two factors necessitated the exclusion of elementary school teachers and private school teachers from these groups. A vast majority of the Indian teachers working in Ethiopia were located in the government secondary schools of Ethiopia. One aspect of this study (perceptions of one group about the other group) necessitated the selection of schools where both these groups of teachers work together. Again, this was found only in secondary schools. Hence the population in this study included all the native Ethiopian (Population I) and the expatriate Indian teachers (Population II) working in the secondary schools of Ethiopia.

3.2.2 Selection and Description of Sample

This investigation was based on two kinds of population- the Ethiopian teacher population and the expatriate Indian teacher population. From these, two independent samples were drawn. Steps followed in the selection of these samples are

given below. Using random sampling method seven educational provinces were selected from the total fifteen educational provinces of the country. From each of these provinces two to four schools were selected at random depending on the total number of secondary schools available in each province. Thus altogether twenty one secondary schools were selected. All the Ethiopian teachers teaching in grades IX to XII in these schools were drawn to constitute the Ethiopian sample. All the Indian teachers teaching in grades IX to XII in the same schools formed the Indian sample. The Ethiopian sample thus selected, consisted of two hundred and eighteen Ethiopian (native) secondary school teachers and the Indian sample, consisted of two hundred and thirty seven Indian (expatriate) secondary school teachers. But data from only 183 Ethiopian and 215 Indian teachers w ere available for analysis. Province-wise - school-wise selection of Ethiopian and Indian sample is given in Table 3.2. Map of Ethiopia is given in Appendix III. It shows the provinces from which samples were drawn.

Table 3.2: Province-wise, School-wise Composition of Ethiopian and Indian Teacher Samples

Province	Name of the School	Ethiopian Sample	Indian Sample
Addis Ababa	1.Asfaw Wossen Comprehensive Secondary School	11 (6)	17 (15)
	2.Empress Menen Secondary School	7 (4)	21 (20)
	3.Menelik II Secondary School	5 (2)	15 (14)
	4.Tafari Makkonnen Secondary School	6 (2)	28 (23)

Continued...

Province	Name of the School	Ethiopian Sample	Indian Sample
Harrav	5.Harrav Secondary School	10 (4)	7 (6)
	6.Jijiga Secondary School	9 (9)	5 (5)
	7.Medhane Alem Comprehensive Secondary School	6 (4)	17 (15)
	8.Prince Mackonnen High School	8 (5)	16 (12)
Showa	9.Atse Gelawodious Secondary School	13 (13)	14 (12)
	10.H.S.I.S. Secondary School	8 (7)	11 (11)
	11.Maargie Hiwot H.S.I. Secondary School	12 (12)	9 (9)
	12.Prince Tenagane Work Secondary School	12 (12)	10 (10)
Sidamo	13.Yirgalam Comprehensive Secondary School	16 (15)	10 (8)
	14.Soddo Comprehensive Secondary School	12 (10)	4 (4)
Tigre	15.Agazy Comprehensive Secondary School	11 (10)	4 (3)
	16.Atse Yohannis Comprehensive Secondary School	11 (11)	12 (12)
Wellaga	17.Atse Zera Yacob Secondary School	9 (9)	4 (4)
	18.Ghimbi Comprehensive Secondary School	8 (8)	5 (5)
	19.H.S.I. Comprehensive Secondary School	14 (14)	11 (11)
Wollo	20.Sheen Comprehensive Secondary School	17 (16)	13 (12)
	21.Woldia Comprehensive Secondary School	13 (10)	4 (4)
		218(183)	237(215)

(Numbers given in bracket indicate the number of schedules available from each school for analysis).

3.2.3 Sample Composition with Respect to Selected Demographic and Professional Variables

Age, sex, marital status, religion and location of the schools were the demographic variables selected, so as to study their influence on attitudes and values of teachers. Based on these variables sub-groups were formed within each sample.

Population characteristics with respect to these variables were found reflected in the sample composition also. As these characteristics may have chance to affect the results and thereby its interpretation and discussion, brief presentation of them here seems justifiable. Sample composition by variables is presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Composition of Ethiopian and Indian Sample with Respect to Selected Demographic and Professional Variables

Variable	Group Specification with Respect to Variable	ETHIOPIAN		INDIAN	
		No.of Cases	%	No.of Cases	%
Age	Lowerage (upto thirty years of age)	136	71.32	35	16.28
	Upper age (above thirty years of age)	47	25.68	180	83.72
Sex	Male	174	95.08	168	78.14
	Female	9	4.92	47	21.86
Marital Status	Unmarried	96	52.46	14	6.51
	Married	87	47.54	201	93.49
Religion	Hindu	-	-	65	30.23
	Christian	168	91.81	146	67.91
	Muslim	15	8.19	4	1.86
Location of Schools	Rural (teaching in rural schools)	156	85.25	110	51.16
	Urban (teaching in Urban Schools)	27	14.75	105	48.84
Subjects Teaching	Arts (Humanities & Social Sciences)	99	54.1	104	48.84
	Science (Mathematics, Physical and Natural Sciences)	78	42.62	107	49.77
	Others (Accountancy, Typewriting, Shorthand etc.)	6	3.28	4	1.86

Continued.....

Variable	Group Specification with Respect to Variable	ETHIOPIAN No.of Cases	ETHIOPIAN %	INDIAN No.of Cases	INDIAN %
Teaching Experience	Low experienced (one to five years of experience)	99	54.1	62	28.84
	Middle experienced (six to ten years of experience)	51	27.87	116	53.95
	High experienced (above ten years of experience)	33	18.03	37	17.21
Academic Qualifications (for Ethiopian Teachers)	Teacher Training Certificate Holders	18	9.84	-	-
	E.S.L.C. Holders	12	6.55	-	-
	ESLC + (Attending extension course during vacation)	105	57.38	-	-
	Graduates in Education	45	24.59	-	-
	Post-graduates	3	1.64	-	-
Academic Qualifications (For Indian Teachers)	Under-graduates	-	-	5	2.33
	Graduates	-	-	57	26.51
	Trained Graduates (B.Ed.)	-	-	88	40.93
	Post-graduates (M.A./M.Sc.)	-	-	28	13.02
	Trained Post-graduates (M.A./M.Sc. + B.Ed.)	-	-	27	12.56
	Postgraduates in Education (B.Ed. +M.Ed./M.A.(Education))	-	-	8	3.72
	Double Postgraduation (one in Education and the other in any Subject (M.A./M.Sc.+M.Ed./ M.A.(Education))	-	-	2	0.93

With regard to age, the Ethiopian group was found to be younger than the Indian group. The mean age for the Ethiopian group was 28.91 whereas the mean age for the Indians was 37.12. The age range also was found to be less for the Ethiopian teachers than the Indian teachers. For the Ethiopians,

the age range was 20 to 43 years and for Indians it was 22 to 57 years. When thirty years of age was set arbitrarily as the upper limit for the lower age group, 71.32% of Ethiopian sample was found to be in the lower age group, whereas, in the case of Indian teachers only 16.25% of the sample fall under this age group. 83.7% of the Indian teacher sample belonged to upper age group. This characteristic of the sample as the reflection of the population characteristics, might be attributed to the relatively recent inception of teacher training programme in Ethiopia and the meticulous care given in the selection of experienced teachers from India.

Sample composition with respect to sex variable indicated low percentage of representation for females in both the samples. 95% of the Ethiopian teacher sample was accounted for by male teachers. Percentage figure for Indian male was 78.14. Female representation in the Ethiopian sample was only 5%. School Census Report for the academic year 1973-74 (Ministry of Education, 1974) indicated that the female teachers constituted only 7% of the total secondary school teacher force. The comparatively recent emergence of teacher training programmes in Ethiopia, the cultural barriers in women education and the exclusion of elementary teachers from the population, added together, might have caused the meagre female representation in the secondary school system of Ethiopia. The absence of any

direct recruitment of female teachers from India, the appointment of only fully qualified wives of Indian teachers put together, might have contributed to the low percentage of Indian female teachers in Ethiopian educational system.

When sub-groups were formed with respect to marital status of teachers, unmarried Indian teacher group was represented by only 14 cases (6.51%). The policy of the Education Ministry to select only experienced Indian teachers, and the migratory trend among the unmarried Indian teachers group might have reduced unmarried Indian teachers' representation in the Ethiopian educational system.

Absence of Hindu representation in Ethiopian sample and meagre Muslim representation in Indian sample were the two major characteristics evidenced in the sample composition by religion. This curtailed the possibilities of direct cross-cultural comparisons and limited them to Christian groups of the two nationalities.

Composition of samples with respect to the location of the schools (where the teacher was working) indicated that majority of the Indian teachers (51.16%) were placed in urban schools whereas, a great majority of Ethiopian teachers (85.25%) were placed in rural schools.

Years of teaching experience, nature of the subject teaching and the level of academic qualifications achieved were the professional variables based on which sub-groups were formed within each sample.

With respect to teaching experience, teachers with one to five years of teaching experience were grouped into one category designated as lower experienced group. Similarly, middle experienced group (6 to 10 years' teaching experience) and high experienced (above ten years) groups were also formed within each national samples. The relatively new development of teacher training programme in Ethiopia was illustrated by the Ethiopian sample composition. Majority of the Ethiopian teachers (54%) were found to fall under the low experienced category whereas, the majority of Indians (54%) came under middle experienced group indicating the preference for experienced Indian teachers.

When academic qualification of the teacher was taken as one of the professional variables, subsequent groups formed within each sample provided no scope for direct cross-cultural comparison of these groups. Majority of Ethiopian teachers (57.38%) were located at the various stages of completion of the extension courses that lead to a degree in education. A good majority of these groups had passed successfully "12+2"

stage of the course. The representation of postgraduates in the educational system was too small (1.64%) to treat them as a separate sub-group for comparison purposes. Hence only the first four groups were considered while making cross-cultural comparison of values and attitudes of teachers with respect to their qualifications. In the case of Indian teachers, data from under graduate group (2.33%), group with postgraduate in education (B.A./B.Sc. + B.Ed. + M.Ed.) (3.72%) and group with double postgraduation, one in Education and another in any other subjects were excluded from the analysis of data with respect to qualifications on the ground that they constituted only too small groups to arrive at any valid generalisation with regard to their characteristics under study. Trained graduates were found to be the biggest group in the Indian sample composition with respect to qualifications.

These samples selected for the study were found to be fairly representative, since they reflected population characteristics, almost in very similar proportions.

3.3 Data Collection

In this study, the type of data intended to be collected was the paper-pencil schedule responses from Ethiopian and Indian secondary school teachers. The purpose of this section is to

present a brief description of the procedure adopted in collecting the data from teachers.

After obtaining the necessary permission from the authorities in the Ministry of Education, to carry out this inquiry in Ethiopia, the investigator mailed reply paid letters to the directors of selected secondary schools in Ethiopia, seeking their permission and cooperation in obtaining the data from their teaching staff. This was done in the month of November 1974. Eventhough it was decided to limit the sample to 21 schools, the letters were sent to 28 Directors, selecting one more school additionally from each of the seven provinces selected, as a precautionary measure. To obtain full cooperation and immediate replies, a personal letter from Ato Edris Abrar, Director of the school where the investigator had been working, was also sent along with the previous one. In his letter, he expressed his interest and the importance of the study. The letter went on to say that by the Fall of 1974, the investigator would approach them with questionnaires that were to be filled by the Indian and Ethiopian teachers in their school and to be returned to the investigator within a day or so. Twenty four of the Directors, to whom the letters were sent, replied within two weeks in affirmative. Some of the Directors had even suggested the dates of appointment convenient to them. Based on this a detailed plan was prepared by the investigator

and Ato. Germai Abbera (the only Ethiopian postgraduate teacher in the Atse Yohannis school, who agreed to accompany the investigator in helping to procure responses from Ethiopian teachers), for visiting the schools in the month of December 1974. Letters were sent to the Directors of 21 Schools informing them the date of arrival. After this, five hundred copies of the schedules were prepared (duplicated) and other arrangements for travel by road and air were made. In the first week of December 1974, data collection started from the schools in the northern province, Tigre.

When the teachers were contacted, the investigator and his partner had very carefully explained the purpose and importance of the study. It was also specifically mentioned that the investigator was not interested in knowing the identity of the individual. It should be mentioned here that the Director or the Assistant Director of these schools had made the introductions end with a plea for cooperation from the staff. One day time was given to teachers to fill up and return the schedules. While taking back the filled forms, each schedule was checked for any omissions of questions by the respondent. In such cases, personal request was made to the respondent to attempt all the questions in the schedule. In most of the cases, the respondents returned the questionnaire the following day itself. In each of these schools one Indian teacher was entrusted with the work of collecting the remaining

schedules from the respondents and sending them back to the investigator by post. Schedules by post were obtained from all the twenty one schools (with the help of concerned Indian teacher in those schools). By the end of January 1975, data collection was almost over.

Two hundred and thirty seven schedules were distributed among Indian teachers and two hundred and eighteen schedules were distributed among Ethiopian teachers. Of these, two hundred and fifteen completed schedules were obtained from Indian teachers and one hundred and eighty three completed schedules were obtained from Ethiopian teachers. These figures exclude a total of twelve schedules that were found unusable for analysis. Of these, five (three Indians and two Ethiopians) schedules were received very late in the month of August, could not be used as the analysis of data was over by that time. The remaining seven were excluded since they were found incomplete and some of them were without biographical data asked for. For the value and attitude study, data from all the 183 Ethiopian teachers and 215 Indian teachers were found usable. Whereas for studying perceptions of Ethiopians and Indians with respect to their social interactions, cultural aspects etc., data from only 177 Ethiopians and 200 Indians were found usable. Data from 15 Indians and 6 Ethiopians on socio-cultural questionnaire were found to be incomplete to be included in the respective analysis.

3.4 System of Analysis

This is a study of values, attitudes and perceptions of teachers. Its major purpose is that of making comparison between Ethiopian teachers and expatriate Indian teachers working in Ethiopian schools with regard to the above mentioned aspects. Hence this is a cross-cultural comparative study. This nature of the study provided guidelines for the system of analysis to be adapted. This section deals with this aspect.

Value Data

The value comparison was found possible only by taking into consideration of mean value scores of groups. Means, as the quantified data of a group with respect to the variable concerned, allowed application of mathematical concepts in making comparisons. Thus the value pattern of a group could be inferred from the rank order of six values (based on mean value scores). This could be compared with another pattern obtained from another group. Here it should be noted that the ipsative nature of value scores, and the theoretical constructs implied therein, prevented any further application of statistical methods - such as rank order comparison for difference - that allow one to make sure whether the difference in the pattern between groups were significant or not. Hence the rank order positions of values based on value mean scores were used just to point out the differences in value

strengths for each group.

Comparison of value mean scores of the groups with that of the norm group was another method used in the analysis of data. Deciding a mean value score as high or low based on the range for average scores given in the manuel provided another basis for comparison. Yet a third type of comparison was found possible based on the significance of difference between means for values of two groups. The formula used (McCall, 1970) for computing 't' value was :

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\left[\frac{(N_1-1)S_1^2 + (N_2-1)S_2^2}{N_1+N_2-2}\right]\left[\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}\right]}}$$

Where,

$\bar{X}_1$ = Mean score for sample 1.

$\bar{X}_2$ = Mean score for sample 2.

S_1 = Standard deviation for sample 1.

S_2 = Standard deviation for sample 2.

N_1 = Number of cases in sample 1.

N_2 = Number of cases in sample 2.

Other than these, the intercorrelations computed among six values and age for each group provided scope for further cross-cultural comparison.

Attitude Data

Mean attitude scores were mainly used for comparisons. Test of significance between means was used here also.

Relationship of attitude scores with value scores and age of one group was compared with that of the other group. Relationships were established using product-moment correlation technique.

Data from Socio-Cultural Questionnaire

Frequency count, percentage, and chi-square were some of the statistical methods, adopted in comparing the groups with respect to their perceptions on inter-group relations, interactions , adjustment etc.