CHAPTER – 1
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.0 INTRODUCTION

All educational thinkers, policymakers, administrators and all educational committees and commissions Indian as well as foreign hold that the effectiveness of instruction depends vitally upon the quality of the teacher, who is the pivot of an educational system. Teaching is a profession that brings many benefits to everyone. It is rightly said that the quality of nation depends on the quality of its citizens and quality of citizens depends upon the quality of its teachers. So teachers are accepted undoubtedly, the key feature in the system of education, as they mould and influence the young minds turning into the human resources of the nation in the multiple ways. Education commission (1964-66) appealed for giving to the teachers a respectable place in the society, as their professional qualifications educational qualifications and professional competence determine the success of all educational endeavours. Therefore, it recommended that the system should gear itself to secure an adequate supply of higher quality recruits in the teaching profession, provide them the best possible training and ensure satisfactory working conditions to enable them to functions effectively.

The National Policy on Education (1986) reiterated this position strongly by saying, “The status of the teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of a society it is said that no people can rise above the level of its teachers. The government and community should endeavors to create conditions, which will help, motivate and inspire teachers on constructive and creative lines. Teachers should have the freedom to innovate, to devise appropriate methods of communication activities relevant of the needs and capabilities of and the concerns of the community”. The Programme of Action (1992) highlight, “Teachers performance is the most crucial input in the field of education. Whatever policies may be laid down, in the ultimate analysis, these have to be interpreted and implemented by teachers, as much through their personal example as through teaching -learning process”.
The SAARC workshop of Teacher Training, held at Dhaka (1993) envisages, The quality of any educational system is determined by the quality of its teaching force. The best curriculum, syllabus and text materials become useless if the teachers do not know how to handle them. So a self organized system of in-service and pre-service teacher can equip themselves with new knowledge, technology and methodology.

Recently the concepts of self-efficacy, self-esteem, styles of thinking and decision making have received considerable attention of the educationists of the Western World in connection with intellectual and academic performances of the students. However the area of pre-service secondary teacher education has remained unexplored. This situation warrants that the association between academic achievement and self-efficacy, self-esteem and styles of thinking and decision making may be explored systematically.

1.1 SELF-EFFICACY

Derived from social cognitive theory, the construct of self-efficacy has been introduced by Bandura (1977). Self-efficacy perceptions are nothing but judgments regarding one’s capability to successfully perform specific tasks and behaviours or an estimate of one’s capacity to deal with any particular task. Bandura (1986) defined it as “People judgments of their capabilities to organize and executive course of action required to attain designated types of performances.” It is concerned not with the skills one has but with judgments of what one can do with whatever skills one can do with whatever skills one possesses. Thus perceived self-efficacy is a significant determinant of performance that operates partially independently of underlying skills. It involves a generative capability in which one must organize cognitive in which one must organize cognitive, social and behavior skills into integrated courses of action. Kanfer (1990) referred to it as complex cognitive judgments about one’s future capabilities to organize and execute activities requisite for goal attainment. Earlier Meyer and Gellatly (1988) summarized it as a generalized belief concerning one’s task relevant capabilities.
When learning theorists first proposed views of social learning that rejected behaviorist notions of associationism in favour of drive reduction principles, they did not take into account the creation of novel responses or the processes of delayed and non reinforced imitations. Bandura (1977) argued that individuals create and develop self-perceptions of capability that become instrumental to the goals they pursue and to the control they exercise over their environments. With the publication of Social Foundations of Thought and Action, Bandura (1986) proposed a view of human functioning that emphasized the role of self-referent beliefs. In this socio-cognitive perspective, individuals are viewed as proactive and self-regulating rather than as reactive and controlled by biological or environmental forces. Also in this view, individuals are understood to possess self-beliefs that enable them to exercise a measure of control over their thoughts, feelings, and actions. In all, Bandura painted a portrait of human behavior and motivation in which the beliefs that people have about their capabilities are critical elements. In fact, according to Bandura, how people behave can often be better predicted by the beliefs they hold about their capabilities, which he called self-efficacy beliefs, than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing, for these self-perceptions help determine what individuals do with the knowledge and skills they have.

According to Bandura's social cognitive theory, self-efficacy beliefs influence the choices people make and the courses of action they pursue. Individuals tend to engage in tasks about which they feel competent and confident and avoid those in which they do not. Efficacy beliefs also help determine how much effort people will spend on an activity, how long they will persevere when confronting obstacles, and how resilient they will be in the face of adverse situations (Schunk, 1981; Schunk and Hanson, 1985; Schunk, Hanson, and Cox, 1987). The higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence, and resilience. Efficacy beliefs also influence the amount of stress and anxiety individuals experience as they engage in an activity (Pajares and Miller, 1994). As a consequence, self-efficacy beliefs exercise a powerful influence on the level of accomplishment that individuals ultimately realize.

Beliefs of personal competence also help determine the outcomes one expects. Individuals who are confident anticipate successful outcomes. Students
confident in their writing capabilities anticipate high marks on writing assignments and expect the quality of their work to reap academic benefits. Conversely, students who doubt their writing ability envision low marks before they even begin to write. The expected results of these imagined performances will be differently envisioned: academic success and greater options for the former, academic failure and curtailed possibilities for the latter.

A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and well-being in countless ways. Confident individuals approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. They have greater interest and deep engrossment in activities, set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them, and heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. They more quickly recover their confidence after failures or setbacks, and attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable. High self-efficacy helps create feelings of serenity in approaching difficult tasks and activities. Conversely, people who doubt their capabilities may believe that things are tougher than they really are, a belief that fosters stress, depression, and a narrow vision of how best to solve a problem. Not surprisingly, confidence in one's academic capability is a critical component of school success.

When individuals are familiar with the demands of a task or activity, they are likely to call on the self-efficacy beliefs that have been developed as a result of previous experience with similar tasks. In these cases, confidence judgments are called self-efficacy for performance because the efficacy beliefs correspond directly with the performance toward which they are aimed. When people are unfamiliar with the task that confronts them, however, they are not clear on precisely which skills will be required, and so their confidence cannot be based on past experiences with similar tasks. Self-beliefs must be inferred from past attainments in situations perceived as similar to the new one. These confidence judgments are called self-efficacy for learning because they are, in essence, inferences made about one's capability to learn what is required to successfully accomplish the task (Schunk, 1996; Zimmerman, Bandura, and Martinez-Pons, 1992).
In psychological terms it is defined as a task-specific judgment of one’s ability to execute a successful course of action i.e. it reflects an individual difference variable in functional terms Bandura (1986) suggested that efficacy expectations may predict whether or not one’s actions will be initiated, the amount of effort expended in pursuit of that activity, and the level of persistence in the face of obstacles. People who think they can fall. Differences in self-efficacy are associated with bonafide differences in skills level; however, efficacy perceptions also may be influenced by differences in personality, motivation and the task itself.

Self-efficacious individual consider themselves capable of performing any particular activity. It, therefore, partly determines people’s actions their decisions to engage in a task, to put forth effort and to preserve under failure. Moreover it affects thoughts pattern and how much stress people experience in the environment (Bandura, 1989).

The three significant aspects of self-efficacy which have been aptly put forth by Gist and Mitchell (1992) are firstly, it involves a comprehensive summary or judgment of one’s perceived capability for performing a specific task and the information that is used in the formation of this judgments comes from the individual himself. That task, as well as others in the organization secondary one must be motivate enough to form this judgment, thus self-efficacy also involves a motivational component. Finally, self-efficacy is dynamic in nature and is changing all the time especially because one is undergoing new experiences as well as acquired information and the dynamism of this construct becomes more profound with training.

Self-efficacy is sometimes confused or used synonymously with self-esteem. Although both are components of self-referent thought yet are very different constructs. Self-esteem typically taps an individual’s self-evaluation (and not merely one’s confidence judgments) across a wide variety of situations. Thus it refers to a sense of personal worth, it is an internal feeling of personal well-being. It is effective evaluation of the total self, a feeling of self-linking.
By contrast self-efficacy is a judgment about task capability that is not inherently evaluative. It pertains to the belief, judgement or determination to perform certain situations for example a college student may have very low self-efficacy pertaining to dancing. Yet may decide on reflection that it does diminish his or her overall evaluation and feeling about the self. Bandura (1986) defines two related but distinct components of self-efficacy: efficacy expectations and outcome expectations. Efficacy expectations are belief about one’s capabilities to accomplish specific tasks. Outcomes expectations refer to belief about the likelihood that certain behaviours will result in desired outcomes. Bandura argues that if adequate leaves of ability and motivation exist, self-efficacy will affect a person’s task initiation and persistence. Weak efficacy beliefs can contribute behaviour avoidance, whereas strong efficacy belief can performance behaviours initiation and persistence.

Self-efficacy thus is nothing but a “can do”, cognition which mirrors a sense of control on one’s environment. It reflects the belief of being able to control challenging environment demands by taking adaptive action.

1.1.1 Difference Between Self-efficacy and Self-concept

There is much confusion centering on self-efficacy and self-concept beliefs. As is the case with self-efficacy and other expectancy constructs, the conceptual difference between self—efficacy and self-concept is not always clear to researchers or in investigations. Some researchers use the terms synonymously, others describe self-concepts. But the difference between self-efficacy’s a judgment of the confidence that one has in one’s own perceived self accompanied by an evaluative judgment of self-worth. Self-concept is particularly dependent on how a culture or social structure values the attribute on which the individual bases those feelings of self-worth. Self-efficacy beliefs are not as tightly bounded by cultural considerations. Two constructs represents entirely differently self beliefs that refer to quite different things. It may be observed from the following discussion.

Self-efficacy is concerned with beliefs of personal capability, they are judgments of one’s capabilities to perform given actions. Whereas self-concept
is measured at a more general level of specificity and includes the evaluation of such competence and the feeling of self-worth associated with the behaviours in questions. Compared to self-efficacy judgments, self-concept judgements are more general and less sensitive to context—they can be domain specific but not task-specific. A typical self-concept judgment is more general and less sensitive to context—they can be domain-specific but not task-specific. A typical self-concept item, “Mathematics makes me feel inadequate,” differs markedly from a self-efficacy question that may begin with “How confident are you that you can successfully”. Marsh, Walker, and Debus (1991) saw the distinction between the two constructs as a difference in the source of an individual’s judgment. Self-concept judgments, they argued, are based on social and self-comparisons, which they described as “frame of reference effects.” Individuals use external and internal comparisons to determine their self-worth. By comparing one’s own performance in related areas (“I am better at Math than at English”) an individual develops a judgement of self-worth and self-concept. On the other hand, focus on the specific effects to the accomplish the criteria task frame of reference effects do not play a prominent role.

It has also been asserted by social cognitive theorists that self-concept and self-efficacy act as common mechanisms of personal agency in the sense that both types of self-beliefs help mediate the influence of other determinants on subsequent behavior and that both contribute in their own way of the quality of human life.

1.1.2 Functions of Self-efficacy

Bandura (1986) argues that self-efficacy operates in several different ways as a mediator between individual knowledge, skills and beliefs and individual thoughts and actions. First it influences individual’s decision regarding choices of activities, tasks and social situations. Individuals with a weak sense of self-efficacy are more likely than individuals with a strong sense of efficacy to avoid activities, tasks, or social situations, they believe exceed their capabilities. This relationship has important implications for personal learning and development. Strong self-efficacy is associated with active engagement in activities that challenge
individual knowledge and skills and skills and that contribute to the growth of individual competencies. In contrast, weak self-efficacy is associated with avoidance of challenging but enriching environments, associations and activities. Such avoidance may constrain development of individual potentials and buffer negative self-precepts from challenge and change.

Second, self-efficacy is related to how much effort individual will extend and how long they will extend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles or aversive experiences. People with stronger self-efficacy are more likely to extend more efforts and persist longer in that effort than people with weaker self-efficacy. Indeed people with a weak sense of self-efficacy more likely to extend greater effort and persist longer in that effort when faced with difficulty or initial failure.

Third, self-efficacy influences how individual think about and react emotionally at other and to their environments. Persons with lower senses of efficacy are more likely than persons with higher senses of efficacy to dwell upon their personal deficiencies and view potential difficulties and problems are more formidable than they actually are. These perspectives may generate stress and may compromise the effective use of personal capabilities. They may focus an individual’s thoughts and reactions more on avoiding failure and mishaps the likelihood of achieving more productive social relationship and interactions with the environment.

These functions of self-efficacy are likely to be influenced by several different factors. These factors include the nature of the goals to be achieved or the tasks to be accomplished; the incentives and disincentives associated with attempting, succeeding or failing to achieve the goals or accomplish the contexts in which goals are disincentives associated with attempting succeeding of failing to achieve the goals or accomplish the task and a strong sense skills constituent to the nature of a specific task and a strong sense of self-efficacy but may not choose to perform that task because there are no valued incentives for that individual to do so. Likewise the relationship between self-efficacy and action may be influenced by the availability of external physical resources necessary
to complete a task or by structural or social constraints on task accomplishment. When disincentives in inadequate resources, or external constraints implode performance, self-efficacy may not be a good predictor of actual performance.

1.1.3 Sources of Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Exploring the four sources from which these beliefs are developed can make the case for the contextual and meditational role of self-experience, social persuasions, and physiological states and indices.

1. Mastery Experience

The interpreted result of purposive performance, is the most influential source of self-efficacy belief. Simply put individuals gauge the effects of their actions, and their interpretations of these effects help create their efficacy beliefs. Success raises self-efficacy, failure lowers it. Students who perform well on the math tests and earn high grades in math classes are likely to develop a strong sense of efficacy, ensuring that such students will enroll in subsequent math-related classes, approach math tasks with serenity, and increase their efforts when a difficulty arises. On the other hand, low test results and poor grades generally weaken student’s confidence in their capabilities. As a result, students with low mathematics self-efficacy will more likely avoid future mathematics classes and tasks, and they may approach the area of mathematics with apprehension. Bandura’s (1986) emphasis that one’s mastery experiences are the most influential source of self-efficacy information has importations for the self-enhancement model of academic achievement, which contends that, to increased students achievement in school, educational efforts should focus in raising students feelings of self-worth or of competence. Traditional efforts to accomplish this have included programs that emphasize building self-beliefs through verbal persuasion methods. Social cognitive theorists shift that emphasis towards effort to raise competence and confidence primarily through genuine success experience with the performance at hand, through authentic mastery experiences.
2. Vicarious Experience

The second source of efficacy information is the vicarious experience of the effects produced by the action of others. This source of information is weaker than the interpreted results of mastery experiences, but when people are uncertain about their own abilities or have limited prior experience, they become more sensitive to it. As Schunk (1996), a prominent self-efficacy theorist and reached, has demonstrated effects of model are particularly relevant in this context. A significant model in one’s life can help life will take. Students are likely to develop the belief that “I can do that” when a highly regarded teacher models excellence in an academic endeavor or activity. Part of one’s vicarious experience also involves the social comparisons made with others. Social comparisons and peer modeling are powerful influences on developing self-perceptions of competence.

Interaction effects can complicate evaluation of the relative power of different modes of influence. A model’s failure has a more negative effect on the self-efficacy of observers when observers judge themselves as having comparable ability to the model. If, on the other hand, observers judge their capability as superior to the model capability failure of the model does not have a negative effect.

3. Social Persuasions

Individual also create and develop self-efficacy beliefs is a result of the social messages they receive from others. These persuasions can involve exposure to the verbal judgments of others and is a weaker source of efficacy information than mastery or vicarious experience, but persuaders can play an important part in the development of an individual’s self-beliefs. Most adult can recall something that was said to them (or done to/for them) during their childhood that had a profound effect on their confidence throughout the rest of their life. Bandura (1986) cautioned that effective persuasions should not be confused with knee-jerk praise or empty inspirational homilies. Successful persuaders cultivate people’s beliefs in their capability while at the same time
ensuring that the envisioned success is attainable just as positive persuasions may work to encourage and empower negative persuasions may work to defect and weaken self-belief. Being counseled at an early age that one is not ‘college material’ can have destructive effects if the child is not endowed with a resilience to stand and counteract such judgment; it is usually easier to weaken self-efficacy beliefs though negative appraisals than to strengthen such beliefs through positive encouragement.

4. Physiological States

Such as anxiety, stress arousal, fatigue, and mood states also provide information about efficacy beliefs. Because individuals have the capability to alter their own thinking self-efficacy beliefs, in turn, also powerfully influence the physiological themselves. Bandura (1986) has observed that people live with psychic environments that are primarily of their own making. It is often said that people can “read” of themselves and so this reading comes to be a realization of the thoughts and emotional states that individual have themselves created, often, they can gauge their confidence by the emotional state they experience as they contemplate an action. In part, negative physiological states provide cues that something is amiss, even when one is unaware that such is the case. Students who approach public speaking skills, moreover, when people experience aversive reactions can themselves trigger the stress and agitation that help ensure the inadequate performance they fear. This is not to say that the typical anxiety experienced before an important endeavor is a guide to low self-efficacy. The butterflies in the stomach phenomenon is generally a quite normal apprehension most people experience before important events, especially if they are public events and will require performing before other. Strong emotional reactions to a task however provide clues about the anticipated success or failure of the outcome.

Overly strong arousal can weaken performance. Also, one should not confuse the state anxiety that may accompany specific performances and activities with the trait, or chronic, anxiety that may have its roots in broader and more complex causes.
1.1.4. Effect of Self-efficacy Beliefs

Bandura (1986) considered self-reflection the most uniquely human capability, for through this form of self-referent thought, people evaluate and alter their own thinking and behavior. These self-evaluations include perceptions of self-efficacy beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations.

1. They influence the choices individuals make and the courses of action they pursue. People engage in tasks in which they feel competent and confident and avoid those in which they do not. If experience is essentially what individuals choose to attended to, then self belief that influence those choices are instrumental in defining one’s control their lives.

2. Efficacy beliefs also help to determine how much effort people will spend on an activity, how long they will preserve when confronting obstacles, and how resilient they will be in the face of confronting situations. The higher the sense of efficacy the greater the effort, persistence and resilience.

3. Efficacy beliefs also influence the amount of stress and anxiety individuals experience as they engage in a task, and ultimately, the level of accomplishment they realize.

4. A strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well being in countless ways. People with a strong sense of personal competence approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. They have greater intrinsic interest and deep engrossments in activities, set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them, and heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. Moreover, they more quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures, or setbacks and skills that are acquirable. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy may believe that things are tougher than they really are, a belief that fosters stress depression and a narrow vision of how best to solve a problem. High self-efficacy on the other hand, helps to create feelings of serenity in approaching difficult tasks and activities.
As a result of these influence, self-efficacy beliefs are strong determinants and predictors of the level of accomplishment that individuals finally attain. For these reasons, Bandura (1986) has argue, “beliefs of efficacy constitute the key factor of human agency”.

1.1.5 Importance of Self-efficacy

At the individual classroom level, teachers might find the scale useful for action research purposes. Suppose, for instance, that a teacher is attempting to understand more about how to motivate underachieving students. Student efficacy data might provide valuable clues about how individual students perceive their talents and/or the outcome expectancies associated with effort. This insight could serve to inform the teacher’s instruction. A teacher might respond very differently with a child whose beliefs in his talent is low as opposed to the child whose talent beliefs are high but is underachieving for some other reasons, boredom, perhaps.

Self-efficacy data might also influence a teacher’s assessment philosophy and practice. Students who suffer from low self-efficacy are unlikely to be motivated by traditional assessment practices that focus on pointing out inadequacies. What is probably necessary for low self-efficacy students are assessment approaches provide concrete evidence of small incremental gains in achievement that are obviously and tied to the student’s effort.

As Bandura (1986) observed, self-belief “contribute in their own way to the quality of human life.” Because the causal relation between the self-efficacy and achievement is reciprocal, students’ academic behaviours are a function of the beliefs they hold about themselves and about their academic potentialities. Many students have difficulty in school not because they are incapable of performing successfully- they have learned to themselves as incapable of handing academic work. It poses the challenges to the teachers to create academically conducive environment in their classes that can improve the level of low efficacious students.

Young children are not proficient at making accurate self-appraisals, they on the judgments of others to create their own judgments of confidence of self-
worth. It is during early childhood that the metaphor of the “looking-glass self” is at its most powerful. Parents and teachers who provide children with challenging tasks and meaningful activities that can be mastered and ensured the development of a robust sense of self-efficacy and of self-confidence. Early mastery experiences are predictive of children’s cognitive development. Counseling programmes need to be designed and implemented in order to make the parents and teachers aware about this fact.

School is the primary setting in which cognitive capabilities are cultivated and evaluated (Bandura, 1997). It is also the primary setting in which academic self-regulatory practices are developed and maintained. The critical challenge that educators face is making their student’s self-regulatory practices automatic and habitual as early as possible. So such environment should be provided to student at home and school where higher powers of mind can be freed to engage academic tasks.

The efficacy beliefs of teachers are themselves related to their instructional practices and to their student’s achievement and psychological well being. Efficacious teachers create classroom climates in which academic rigor and intellectual challenge are accompanied by the emotional support and encouragement necessary to meet that challenge and achieve academic excellence. So, all teachers should seriously share their responsibility in nurturing the self-beliefs of their students.

In school, children attempt to maximize their sense of self-worth by maintaining positive perceptions of their own competence. They also interpret self-related information in a positive light so as to maximize their self-worth. They are positive in that they are affirmative, constructive, optimize, and hopeful. So, maintenance and enhancement of the perceived self should be the prime focus of the curriculum designers.

It seems clear that many of the difficulties that people experience throughout their lives are closely connected with the beliefs they hold about themselves and about their place in the world in which they live. So, such co-
curricular activities should be included at all levels of education that will root low self-efficacy and will cultivate skills that bring satisfaction to all students.

The influence of people's self-efficacy on their achievement does not end with their schooling. As Bandura (1986) has argued “educational practices should be gauged not only by the skills and knowledge they impart for present use but also by what they do to students' beliefs about their capabilities, which affects how they approach the future. Students who develop a strong sense of self-efficacy are well equipped to educate themselves when they have to rely on their own initiative.”

So teachers can aid their students by helping them to develop the habit of excellence in scholarship while at the same time nurturing the self-efficacy necessary to maintain that excellence throughout their adult lives.

1.1.6 Factors Affecting Teacher's Self-Efficacy

Factors affecting teacher's sense of efficacy have been categorized as follows

A. Teacher training
B. Teaching experiences
C. System variables
D. Education

(A) Teacher Training

There are several ways in which teacher training may affect teacher's sense of efficacy. One way which training may influence the feelings of person about himself is through the mechanism of the “Shared Ordeal” (Lortie, 1968), which seems to contribute to collegial feelings and solidarity in other professions. Lortie has agreed that professional courses in education are not “tough” enough to foster collegiality. Training also may impact a sense of efficacy by convincing trainees that they possess special knowledge. Another mechanism by which training may increase sense of efficacy is by an increase in actual effectiveness.
Teachers repeatedly have indicated that their teacher training did not prepare them to be effective teachers (Hermanowicz, 1966; Ladd, 1966). Many have made suggestions for improving teachers education.

Further, it should be noted that suggestions for improving in-service training (as opposed to pre-service training) are discussed in a special issue of the Teachers Colleges Record on Staff development (Lieberman, 1978). Consistent with these conceptualizations, Weiner (1976) cited studies, which demonstrate that attribution training programs designed to change the perceived causes of success and failure do alter achievement, related behavior. This outcome suggests that teachers might benefit from sense of efficacy training.

(B) Teacher Experience

There are few studies, which have focused on the effects of a teacher’s experiences of success and failure. There are studies, however, which imply that successful teaching experiences increase a teacher’s sense of efficacy. Bush (1970) has declared, “we must provide conditions in school where teachers may exercise their expertise.” Lorite (1975) has noted that a striking feature of the teaching profession is the abruptness with which a teacher takes on responsibility. It is not surprising therefore the Jersild (1966) observed widespread anxiety among beginning teachers.

(C) System Variables

In addition to experience within the classroom, a teacher receives messages from the educational system, which may be hypothesized to affect sense of efficacy. The effects of system variables are considered under the following categories.

1. The career ladder
2. Participation in decision making
3. Challenge
4. Support from administration
1. The career Ladder

Lorite (1975) explained how the career ladder might affect teachers sense of efficacy. He pointed out that the career line of teaching gives the occupation equality unusual in the profession. There are no real distinctions made among tenured teachers.

2. Participation in decision making

Lieberman (1956) asserted “there is an increase in employee efficiency and responsibility where employees have a corporate responsibility in the determination of their working conditions”. Mc Laughlin and Marsh (1978) agreed that teacher participation in decision about projects make an important affective contribution to the development of a teacher’s sense of ownership” of a project. Likewise, Stimbert (1970) asserted that collaborative decision making gives people a sense of dignity and worth.

3. Challenge

Mc Laughlin and Marsh (1978) noted that the more effort required of teachers the greater the change in teaching styles and the higher the proportion of committed teachers. These researchers views such a findings as evidence that ambitious projects appeal to a teacher’s sense of professionalism and contrasted the effectiveness of this intrinsic motivation to the ineffectiveness of extrinsic motivation.

4. Support from Administration

Mc Laughlin and Marsh (1978) reported that teachers having a high sense of efficacy tendered to be part of projects that involved teachers in project decision making, providing ongoing assistance in the classroom and held frequent staff meetings.

Support by the administration on matters of students discipline often is mentioned as a factor contributing to teacher morale. The lack of support in cases of student violence against a teacher appears to have important psychological effects sense of efficacy, evaluated that the school principal is a key factor in determining the excellence of a school Perhaps the principal is a key factor in teacher sense of efficacy as well.
(D) Personal Variables

In studying the contribution of personal variables such as self-concept and educational attitude, Node (1979) found that self-concept accounted for 26% of the variance of the performance of students teachers. Noad stated that it would be more economical and effective to select candidate on relevant personality criteria rather than to develop personal characteristics. Some of the personal characteristics which may influence sense of efficacy, may do so by influencing a person’s causal ascriptions for example, persons high in achievement needs tend to attribution failure to lack of ability. Bar-Tal (1978) reported that self-esteem may be an important variable influencing casual attribution.

Sex may be another variable affecting attributions. For example, success or failure to luck (Feather, 1969) a study of Iranian culture, cited by Weiner (1976) suggested that ethnic background might influence one’s casual attribution.

(E) Education

Teachers with a graduate degree are more likely to have higher efficacy than those who do not. Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) argued that extended training contributes to the acquisition of new teaching skills and the appreciation of the potency of new techniques.

1.2 SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem in a very general term means that the value ascribed by the individual to himself, the quality of the way he views himself. Like other aspects of the self, it is learnt and builds by infracting with significant factors. Self-esteem is relatively permanent, positive or negative feeling about the self that become more positive or negative as a person encounters success or failure in daily life. Self-esteem research examines how individuals come to feel as they do about themselves. Psychologists seek to understand how self-esteem develops and what can be done to change negative views of the self once they have been established. Self-esteem is a structural entity of personality, which organizes behaviour and
integrates experiences and perception on the basis of belief regarding one’s own self.

The term Self-esteem refers to the evaluation a person makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself. ‘Self-esteem’ expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which a person believes himself capable, significant, successful, and worthy. In short, a person’s self-esteem is a judgement of worthiness that is expressed by the attitudes he or she holds towards the self. It is a subjective experience conveyed to others by verbal reports and other expressive behavior (Coopersmith, 1987).

Without an understanding of the forces that combine to create a person’s sense of self-esteem, an understanding of childhood development and adolescent would be impossible. Adolescence has often been described as a time of “storm and stress” because the teenager is trying to negotiate an identity (create a sense of self and self-esteem that he or she would like to have). Teenager’s own wishes and desires, however, are not the only things they must consider. They are receiving pressure from parents, peers, and society as a whole to be a certain kind of person and do certain kinds of things. Only when self-esteem development is fully understood, it will be known how to alleviate some of the trials and tribulations of adolescence and ensure that teenagers develop a healthy and productive view of the worth.

Self-esteem development must be kept in mind in helping young people to create for themselves a realistic set of expectations for why their successes and failures occur. Traditional works in self-esteem area have been considered with the following model:

Antecedents of Self-esteem → Self-Conception → Behavioural Conceptions
For example, one might guess that rejection by parents leads to poor self-esteem, which in turn leads to poor academic performance, but the reverse could also be true.

The following scheme by Bandura (1978) is compatible with his view of the place of self-referent constructs in social learning theory:

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Internal personal factors
(e.g. Conceptions, beliefs, self-perceptions)

Environment                           Behaviour
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According to this diagram, environment can affect behavior, but behavior can also affect environment. Of even greater relevance here is the idea that environment and internal personal factors reciprocally can influence each other as the case with behavior and internal personal factors as well. Thus far, virtually no research has attempted to take into account such plausible complexities.

Stanley Coopersmith (1967) found that high self-esteem results from parental acceptance, the setting of limits and freedom for individual action within realistic. Coopersmith, in his work, ‘The antecedents of self-esteem’ discussed love and acceptance as broader patterns of positive family interrelationships.

Some researchers have defined self-esteem almost exclusively in terms of the difference between what you would and who you feel you really are.
esteem includes the feelings and thoughts we have, our competencies and work, our abilities to make a positive difference, our level of optimize, our willingness to confront rather than run from realistic challenges, our capacity to learn from both our success and failures, and our ability to treat ourselves as well as others with respect. Viewed in this light, self-esteem, greatly influences our experiences or success, guides and motivates what we do, and in turn the outcomes of what we do further affects our self-esteem. Bridle (1985) “Self-esteem is the product of the evaluation process that involved judgments about the self.” Contemporary research has uncovered so many different mechanisms that appear to affect self-esteem that they have been collectively referred to as self-zeal.

1.2.1. Theories of Self-Esteem

1. Multi-dimensional and Psychological Concept

Self-esteem is a multidimensional concept, as it exists in degrees. Thus an individual might have self-esteem in interpersonal relationship, yet can lack esteem with regard to mastery of academics. Esteem is also related to one’s personality identity as William Glasser (1965) has noted in Reality Therapy. According to Glasser people have a need to develop a “Success identity versus a failure identity”.

2. Humanistic Phenomenological Concept

To understand behavior regarding the concept of dignity, worth and respect as essential core in human beings. Raymond (1969) believed that feelings of worth, adequacy and social approval are very closely related to psychological needs. Thus, we learn and apply society’s values and standards in evaluating our selves through “reflected appraisal”. Hence, we try to measure up, so that we can approve, respect and have faith in ourselves and feel worthy. If we see ourselves as falling short in these self appraisal, we tend to feel worthless, guilty, anxious and insecure behavior conditions tend to be self-destructive rather than self-maintaining.
Self-esteem has its early grounding in the mastery of successive development tasks, in successful problem solving and coping behavior, receives continual psychological nourishment from a feeling of competency in areas that gain us social approval. Lacking a sense of personal worth, we tend to become negative in our general approach to living, to criticize and belittle ourselves to be discouraged and apathetic and to find little meaning or challenge in life.

3. Self-Evolution Maintenance Model Concept

Esteem is often affected by how well or poorly a person perform particularly in comparison to others. According to the self-evolution maintenance model (e.g. Tesser, 1988) the impact of relative performance on self-evolution is determined by the psychological closeness of self and other and the relevance of the performance dimensions to one’s self-definition.

4. Cognitive Dissonance Concept

According to the cognitive dissonance (Aronson, 1980), doing something that is inconsistent with an importance or value may be threatening to the self and motivates the individual to restore consistency.

Researching (Steele, 1988) suggests that self-esteem is, indeed, a unitary process and not a collection of independent processes. If we think of each of these mechanisms as a stream, self-esteem is the confluence where they come together to influence one another. More work is needed to help us understand the precise process(es) by which influence comes about.

5. Modern View

Harten (1982) opined that modern theorists believe that children can differentiate between different aspects of themselves (cognitive, social, physical) and self-esteem in making self-evaluation.

Stratton and Hayes (1996) described self-esteem as the personal evaluation which an individual makes of herself or himself; the sense of their own worth, or capabilities.
According to Magill (1996), self-esteem is a relatively permanent positive or negative feeling about self that may become more positive or negative as person encounters success or failure in daily life. Sense of personal worth varies from time to time, depending on all kinds of influences. It is related to so many aspects of life that it is difficult to make generalization about cause and effect.

To summarize, self-esteem can be viewed as the personal judgment made by an individual and maintained by him.

Definitions of self-esteem vary in their breadth and sophistication. But all agree that high self-esteem means that we appreciate ourselves and our worth. It means:

- We have a positive attitude
- We value ourselves highly
- We are convinced of our own abilities
- We see ourselves as competent, in control of our own lives and able to do what we want.

Positive self-esteem is important because when people experience it they feel good and look good, they are effective and productive, and they respond to other people and themselves in healthy positive, growing ways. People who have positive self-esteem know that they are loveable and capable, and they care about themselves and other people down or by patronizing less competent people. We build our own brands of self-esteem from four ingredients: fate, the positive thing life offers, the negative things life offers and our own decisions about how to respond to fate, the positive and the negative.

According to Branden (2005), there are six pillars of self-esteem: living consciously, self-acceptance, self-responsibility, self-assertiveness, living purposefully, personal integrity. The signs of high self-esteem are pleasant ones. Positive statements, compliments, looking people in the eye, rarely becoming angry, willing to risk new experiments, enjoying the successes of others.
1.2.2. Major Factors of Self – Esteem

Four major factors that contribute to the development of self-esteem are:

- Significance: The way they feel they are loved and approved people important to them;
- Competence: Performing tasks they consider important;
- Virtue: Attainment of moral or ethical standard; and
- Power: The extent to which they influence their own and other’s lives. People may draw favourable picture of themselves if they rate high on those measures and low on others.

Some of other factors of self-esteem are given below:

1. Aggression and Self-esteem:

Through actually no need is thwarted, but one is humiliated unnecessarily and a need to restore one’s adequacy through aggression is created. Now it is one’s problem as to how one will regain self-esteem and vent one’s hostility without landing oneself in jail. Most surviving organisms have attained their survival only through the aid of a vigilant ego, an ego that is excessively suspicious and touchy. Baumeister, Smart, and Boden (1996) found no evidence for the view that low self-esteem causes aggression and proposed, instead, that aggression stems mainly from threatened egotism, which is to say the sense that one’s favorable views of self have been impugned by others.

2. Affection, Self-esteem and independence

Teachers have many opportunities for wholesome affectionate relationship with their pupils. But this does not mean that the selection of a “teacher’s pet” or the lavishing of affection on children; but rather the warm sympathetic mutual regard which is a positive mental health influence on both teacher and pupils.
Self-esteem is favourably affected by the respect and admiration of pupils and parents, perhaps reaching a high point when former students return for a visit. The knowledge of doing a good job is, in itself, a favourable factor in the maintenance of a self-esteem, the independence in choice of methods for the presentation of material, and the knowledge that one is not mere cog in a machine, are also source of great satisfaction.

3. Cultural Factors

Culture appears to play a large role in determining how one constructs the self. According to Markus and Kitayama (1991), Western Cultures (e.g., Japan) differ markedly in self construal. The former is associated with an independent view of self, the latter with an interdependent view of self.

4. Self-esteem, grades and relationships

Peer-reviewed research undertaken since then has not validated previous assumption. Recent research indicates that inflating student’s self-esteem in and of itself has no positive effect on grades. High self-esteem correlates highly with self-reported happiness. However, it is not clear which, of either, necessarily leads to the other. Additionally, self-esteem has been found to be related to forgiveness in close relationships, in that people with high self-esteem will be more forgiving than people with low self-esteem.

The relationship involving self-esteem and academic results does not signify that high self-esteem contributes to high academic results. It simply means that high self-esteem may be accomplished due to high academic performance.

1.2.3 Characteristics of Self-Esteem

A. Characteristics of High Self-Esteem

Alexander (2001); Brown, Andrews, Harris, Adler and Bridge (1986) considered the following high self-esteem characteristics among adolescents.
1. Believe in themselves

People who have high self-esteem have confidence in their own abilities. They recognize what they're good at, are confident that they are able to improve where necessary and unlike people with low self-esteem, believe that they deserve to do better. The effect of this is that they are often ambitious in their chosen field and do well in their careers as they consistently strive for improvement and personal success. They don’t waste time indulging in negative self-talk. They take responsibility for their own actions and they don’t look to others to make decisions for them. They do not need the approval of others to feel good about who they are.

2. Know what they want or need

People with high self-esteem generally have clear ideas about what they want or need and are able to communicate these needs and wants to others. Feel worthy of love and approval. They approve of themselves and are not desperate for other people’s approval. They truly are capable of loving others unconditionally. They don’t have an inner need to change anyone else. They accept responsibility for their lives and the decisions they make. They know their values and roles and what’s really important to them.

3. Effective communication skills

It’s common for people with high self-esteem to be good communicators. This includes having good listening skills which leave them open to taking advice, being open to change and new ideas.

4. Drive to succeed

Not surprisingly people with high self-esteem have the drive to succeed. They are generally more flexible and find it easier to overcome challenges and disappointments along the way. They don’t worry about mistakes and even when they do make mistakes, they have the inner resources to learn from mistakes and then move on.

5. Comfortable with change

Because people with high self-esteem are comfortable with change, they enthusiastically seek out new opportunities and are open to embracing new ideas.
Getting out of their comfort zones is not uncomfortable for them. They are also happy to learn new skills to support them with any new challenges.

6. Enjoy healthy relationships

With their good communication skills and their enthusiasm to succeed, people with high self-esteem generally enjoy good healthy relationships and are able to accept constructive criticism, without letting it dent their confidence. Because of their confidence they are rarely competitive with others because they are comfortable with their own abilities and accept others where they are at. They don’t put others down to build themselves up and they tend to be forgiving towards others.

7. Goal-oriented

They are very focused on self-improvement and success and are often good at planning and setting goals as well as achieving them. They have a sense of purpose and direction and confidently go for it.

8. Able to laugh at their self

We all do silly things and life happens. They don’t fret and worry about it—they just laugh it off. They understand that laughter is the best medicine. They love life and tend to be optimistic and positive about the direction of their life.

9. Taking care of themselves physically, emotionally, mentally and spiritually

They take care of themselves physically by exercising and eating well. Emotionally by clearing negative emotions. Mentally by reading, learning new things. Spiritually by meditating on the Bible, being in silence, or praying.

B. Characteristics of Low Self-Esteem

Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry and Harlow (1993); Brown, Bifulco, Veiel and Andrews (1990); Andrews and Brown (1995) considered the following low self-esteem characteristics among adolescents.
1. Negative feelings

The constant self-criticism can lead to persistent feelings of sadness, depression, anxiety, anger, shame or guilt.

2. Relationship problems

For example they may tolerate all sorts of unreasonable behaviour from partners because they believe they must earn love and friendship, cannot be loved or are not loveable. Alternatively, a person with low self-esteem may feel angry and bully other people.

3. Fear of trying

The person may doubt their abilities or worth and avoid challenges.

4. Perfectionism

A person may push themselves and become an over-achiever to ‘atone’ for what they see as their inferiority.

5. Fear of judgement

They may avoid activities that involve other people, like sports or social events, because they are afraid they will be negatively judged. The person feels self-conscious and stressed around others and constantly looks for ‘signs’ that people don’t like them.

6. Low resilience

A person with low self-esteem finds it hard to cope with a challenging life event because they already believe themselves to be ‘hopeless’.

7. Lack of self-care

The person may care so little that they neglect or abuse themselves, for example, drinks too much alcohol.

8. Self-harming behaviours

Low self-esteem puts the person at increased risk of self-harm, for example, eating disorder, drug abuse or suicide.

1.2.4 Suggestions for Building Self-Esteem

Mruk (1999; 2006) in studying the dynamic structure of self-esteem has also devised and tested the effectiveness of self-esteem enhancement techniques. He
suggests eight techniques. These are listed below with suggestions as to how they might relate to participation in learning.

1. The importance of being accepting and caring

   How we are treated by others can affect the development of self-esteem. Mruk (1999; 2006) asserts that practitioners tend to understand that acceptance, care and trust builds rapport and that fundamental attitudes of nurturance that accompany acceptance and caring foster the kind of environment and interaction that are conducive to human growth and development. Being accepting and caring and treating a person with respect and compassion can be enormously therapeutic. However, acceptance means approving of the individual but not all of his or her behaviours and not taking responsibility for how he or she conducts life. In relation to participation in learning how learners are welcomed into the learning environment and how they are treated in the learning situation is crucial. One can see why potential learners experiencing low self-esteem may be deterred right at the start by an off-hand receptionist, insensitively handled enrolment procedures or distant and aloof tutors. Yet many learning providers get it right to the obvious pleasure and relief of learners (James 2002), as these testify. “They are great, so approachable, nothing is too much trouble.” “They talk to you like you are an equal.”

2. Providing consistent, positive feedback

   Mruk (1999; 2006) states that the development of the self depends on the feedback from others and although this is more influential in earlier life, it continues in adulthood through family, friends, employers and so on. Feedback is how self-esteem develops in the first place but also drives the self-fulfilling prophecy that maintains self-esteem over time. Giving feedback is an essential part of the learning process and an accepted role for tutors. The way this is provided varies from ticks and comments in the margins of written work to positive verbal feedback when a learner demonstrates achievement or positive behaviour or attitude.

3. Generating positive self-feedback

   In addition to others providing us with feedback that affects our identity and esteem, we need to provide it to ourselves. Mruk (1999; 2006) maintains that part of being human involves being aware of the lived status of our worthiness and
competence, both in a given situation and in general. How we ‘self-talk’ about that lived status of worthiness and competence will create a feedback loop. In short, the information from ourselves is internalised and affects our perceptions, behaviour and experience and in turn affects the information we feedback to ourselves. This is perhaps a more developed and skilled role for the tutors which can be facilitated through encouraging learners to self-assess their work and achievements. Tutors need to be skilled enough to be vigilant against negative self-talk that can jeopardise achievement and success in learning.

4. Using natural self-esteem moments

Self-esteem levels change spontaneously, particularly in periods of transition. Mruk (1999; 2006) attempts to identify these situations as they are occurring or about to occur in order to intervene therapeutically and turn them into positive self-esteem moments. Mruk (1999; 2006) maintains that if individuals can become aware of their self-esteem status, they are more likely to see it as a valuable resource which they wish to manage effectively. Positive self-esteem increases an individual’s feelings of being able and competent and therefore the likelihood of acting upon that feeling with increased likelihood of success. If we see returning to learning as a period of transition, then acknowledging the role of self-esteem levels in that transition is crucial. An equivalent in the world of adult learning to this self-enhancement technique might be the courses such as “Build on your Skills” that specifically support individuals to be aware of and manage their self-esteem status while they are participating in a learning environment. A key question would be how this could be managed while learners are taking part in general learning opportunities. The role of guidance, mentoring and ‘hand-holding’ may be the answer.

5. Enhancing self-esteem by assertiveness training

Mruk (1999; 2006) knowing that one has certain rights as a human being and knowing how to exercise them can be used to enhance self-esteem. People who have assertiveness skills have more chance of getting their needs met. Standing up for yourself can lessen the impact of factors that damage self-esteem. Courses in assertiveness are provided by some adult learning providers and sometimes they are targeted at people with low self-esteem. However, it would seem that participation in general learning opportunities can also sometimes enable an individual to be more
assertive. As learners (James 2001 and 2002) have said: “There’s a lot of aggravation at work and instead of rising to the bait I stick up for myself more.” “I speak to more people and ask more questions.” Perhaps that indicates that raising one element of self-esteem has a beneficial effect on other elements of self-esteem.

6. Increasing self-esteem through modeling

Mruk (1999; 2006) quotes earlier self-esteem writers such as James (1890) and Bandura (1977) who recognised that self-esteem is linked to successes and failures, and that individuals develop a sense of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is an individual’s sense of how he-or she is likely to do in a given situation based on variables such as past performance. Modeling is based on the idea that people can increase their sense of self-efficacy by learning to be more successful which, in turn, increases self-esteem. In adult learning does modeling happen when new learners are encouraged to do tasters or bite-sized chunks of learning that ensure early success? Do study skills and learning how to learn also increase self-efficacy?

7. Increasing problem-solving skills

Mruk (1999; 2006) states that teaching people to solve problems in their life effectively can help people to cope more with the challenges of life and live more competently. This is important because knowing how to solve problems increase the chances of being successful in general and frequent successes are an indication of being more competent which raises self-esteem. Opportunities to take responsibility for their own learning and the challenges of understanding the subject can help to develop problem-solving skills in learners, and is a particularly successful adult learning approach.

8. Using individual and group formats

Mruk (1999; 2006) discusses whether people benefit more from working in group situations to enhance self-esteem or more from individual one-to-one work. One-to-one work is more intensive and thought to be beneficial to people with deeply embedded self-esteem problems but it requires more resources in terms of practitioner expertise, time and money. Group learning is more cost-effective and learners can support each other. It is less intensive and therefore less intimidating for some people but individual needs can sometimes go unmet making it less effective for them. Both these last points
are very relevant to self-esteem and participation in learning. Learning providers have tended to respond by providing group learning situations either through courses specifically set up to raise self-esteem or through adult and community provision. One-to-one work does take place through guidance workers, mentors, community outreach workers, and although these people do not have a clinical therapeutic relationship with learners, nevertheless the work they do does seem to raise the self-esteem of learners.

1.2.5 Importance of Self-Esteem

According to Matt Ferkany (2008) the potential contribute of self-esteem to education may be described under following main points.

1. Supports the updating

A good self-esteem facilitates the actualization of our potential as human beings. Who feels a tendency to put forward their aspirations and develop. On the contrary, the person whose esteem is low can easily give up pushing its limits. Often he does not trust to be able, but other times he fails to think big for his life because he feels do not deserve it. It is then in a vicious circle from which it still does not discover the outcome.

2. Attraction of similar

We intuitively seek the company of people whose self-esteem is comparable to ours. If it is high, the relationship becomes a source of stimulation to "go further". In the opposite case, we can mutually we "pull down". For example, low self-esteem predisposes us to tolerate being treated with little respect and such treatment inevitably leads to a drop in self-esteem. On the contrary, a strong self-esteem rather goes along with respect for oneself and in this case, we do not disrespect any form whatsoever. And we seek the company of people for whom we have the account and are able to recognize our value.

3. A basis for a fulfilling relationship

Self-esteem also affects the relationship. It's hard to believe in the love of each other when our opinion of us is negative. We may then challenge the manifestations of love and even despise the lover expresses that we love or desire.
To us, indeed, there is only to be of little value that can attach to someone as insignificant as us. Because of this, we often choose people whose love is difficult (if not impossible) to win, knowing that our success is proof of our worth. But these attempts fail most of the time.

4. Guarantee of success

Off the beaten track moreover, high self-esteem leads to success. It helps to take risks, to seek innovative solutions, to demonstrate tenacity and perseverance. These attitudes often lead to victory, which in turn feeds both the confidence and esteem. On the other hand, increased success can withstand failures that would be devastating to a person considers fragile.

Research has documented the important role high self-esteem plays in academic achievement, social and personal responsibility (Redenbach, 1991). For people of all ages, the development of full human potential is enhanced through high self-esteem. High self-esteem can begin to develop when the acceptance of all individuals and their personal and group contributions are recognized and applauded, especially in a multi-culturally diverse world (Redenbach, 1991). Self-esteem is the one key ingredient that affects the level of proficiency in all fields of endeavor. Self-esteem has been correlated to: job success, school achievement, interpersonal compatibility, and general happiness (Redenbach, 1991).

Malbi and Reasoner (2000) cited self-esteem can be broadly defined as the overall evaluation of oneself in either a positive or negative way. It indicates the extent to which an individual believes himself or herself to be competent and worthy of living. Simply put, self-esteem is essentially one’s felling of self-competence and self-worth.

Self-esteem construct is recognized today to be a major factor in learning outcomes (Lawrence, 2000). Research has consistently shown a positive correlation between how people value themselves and the level of their academic attainments. Those who feel confident, generally achieve more, while those who lack confidence in themselves achieve less. Students usually have no problem in talking to the tutor about their literacy difficulties. Once they have learned to trust their tutor, they will
often bring up other problems of a more personal nature. This is not to suggest that tutors become counselors, but they prepare to listen to students who may wish to confide in them. Whilst the majority of students are likely to have low self-esteem as a result of feeling inadequate over not being able to read, write or spell like most others, they may in addition have low self-esteem as a result of others experiences, probably beginning in childhood (Lawrence, 2000).

There will be countless opportunities for the tutor to begin the process of enhancing self-esteem once they know the origins of these. For instance, knowing that a student has had strong feelings of inadequacy since childhood over his/her physical appearance would allow the tutor to focus positively on valuing the student in this direction as well as in relation to progress in literacy (Lawrence, 2000).

Good academic grades enhance one’s sense of worthiness and competence. Self-esteem and academic achievement seem to be most highly related between the years of about seven to fifteen (Malbi and Reasoner, 2000). Some researchers have suggested that educational success becomes less central to self-esteem during late high school years and the years that follow (Malbi and Reasoner, 2000).

The concept self-esteem has become one of the most commonly and widely used psychological terms of the present. Considering how important a variable of self-esteem is, it has been included in the present study.

1.3 THINKING STYLE

Interest in the notion of style developed in part as a response of the recognition that conventional ability tests provide only part of the answer to why people differ in their performance one possibility of course would be personality. But personality has not seemed to be entire answer either many theorists have tried to find its answer at the interface between ability on one hand and personality on other. They believe that style matter in the performance. In psychology the idea of style is formally introduced by Allport (1937) when he referred to style as a mean of indentifying distinctive personality type or type behavior. Allport’s understanding of style is rooted in Jungs (1923) theory of psychological types. Since Allport's time the team has been modified and imbued with different meaning but the core
definition of style that is its reference to habitual patterns or preferred ways of
doing something (e.g. thinking, learning, teaching) that are consistence over long
period of time and across many areas of activity remains virtually the same. A first
movement came into prominence in the 1950s with the idea that style could
provide a bridge between the study of cognition (how we perceive, how we learn)
and the study of personality. A group of experimental psychologists set out to
explore and describe individual differences in cognition function. This led to school
of thought, which developed several stylistic constructs closer to cognition than
personality. The specific terms, a cognitive style is used. This referred to an
individual’s way of processing information. This provided first evidence for the
existence of distinctive styles.

A second movement also has attempted to understand ‘styles’ but in a way
that resemble the conceptualization and measurement of personality more than of
cognition. The first theory derives from the work of Carl Jung as interpreted by
Myers and Myers (1980). In this theory four basic distinctions are made
Extraversion-introversion; intuition-sensing, thinking-feeling and perceptive
judging. Another example of this category is Gregore (1982) theory of style based
on the notion that people differ in the ways they organized space and time. These
personality styles are more close to personality traits.

In the 1970s, there concepts of styles is further developed as it gained
popularity among educators. As a result the notion of styles developed in to
direction though research in educational and vocational psychology. The first
direction is primarily one of application. Investigators attempted to apply traditional
cognitive styles to school setting, seeking explanation for students, individual
difference in achievement and performances via styles.

The second direction is on the efforts to create new frame work for studying
learning and teaching styles based on empirical observations rather than theoretical
background. These researchers developed domains specific theories of styles
including the theories of learning style. Dunn and Dunn’s model, Renzulli and
Smith’s model, Kolb’s model, Schmeck’s model, Grasha Riechman’s model of
learning styles are the examples. Similarly Fisher and Fisher’s model and Grasha’s
model of teaching styles fall in this category. It is known as third moment is style’s history learning and teaching styles are activity centred styles. They are more concerned with schooling and work.

Thinking style is a meta-cognitive instrument meta cognitive awareness is firstly, the self knowledge we experience when we reach an understanding of the ways in which we ourselves process information and secondly, the understanding that other people may think similarly or differently to ourselves. Harris, Johnson, Hutton, Andrews, and Cooke’s Theory of mind (1989), how children come to understand what other think and feel is consistent with this concepts. It suggests an awareness which is not fundamental egocentric as such is not in consist with some of the concepts of emotion intelligence ; self awareness for examples of courses meta cognitive awareness in itself does not suggest emotional intelligence not that any increased understanding will be used for the welfare of other. The concepts for thinking styles originated from Neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) with the purpose measuring individual preference for the sensory representation systems utilizing rigorous, psychometric methodologies. NLP theory suggests that the dimensions measured by thinking style are cognitive filters with each dimension having specific linguistic i.e. associated language patterns.

Thinking styles are the individual preferred ways of using abilities. These are in fact related to cognition which includes perceiving sensing problem solving thinking and remembering however, thinking styles are different from cognitive styles in the sense that these are more have many dimensions. For instance field dependence / independence impulsivity/reflectively etc. Cognitive styles have based on multi dimension such as functions, forms, levels, scope and learning. These thinking styles are not the abilities rather they are different ways of exploring abilities for thinking intellectually or creatively.

Sternberg’s (1988; 1997) theory of mental self government addresses people thinking styles which may be used in many setting including university, home and community. At the heart of this theory is the notion that people need somehow to govern or manage their everyday activities. These are many ways of doing so; whenever possible people choose styles of managing themselves with which they
are comfortable. Still, people are at least somewhat flexible in their use of styles and try with varying degree of success to adapt themselves to the stylistic demands of a given situation. Thus an individual with one preference in one situation may have a different preference with one situation may have a different preference in another situation. As applied to individuals, the theory of mental self government posits 13 thinking styles that fall along five dimensions of mental self-government.

According to Webster’s Dictionary (1967) a style is a distinctive or characteristic manner or method of acting or performing. In psychology it refer to habitual patterns of preferred ways of doing something (e.g. thinking, learning , teaching ) that are consistent over long period of time and across many area of activity remain virtually the same . It also refers to an individual way of processing information.

1.3.1 General Characteristic of styles

According to Sternberg (1997) there are 15 general points we need to understand about styles. These are given below :

1. Styles are preferences in the use of abilities, not abilities themselves.
2. A match between styles and abilities creates a synergy that is more than the sum of its parts.
3. Life choices need to fit styles as well as abilities.
4. People have profiles or patterns of styles, not just a single style.
5. Styles are variable across tasks and situations.
6. People differ in the strength of their preferences.
7. People differ in their stylistic flexibility
8. Styles are socialized.
9. Styles can vary across the life span.
10. Styles are measurable.
11. Styles are teachable.
12. Styles valued at one time and may not be valued at another.
13. Styles valued at one place and may not be valued in another.
14. Styles are not an average, good or bad – it’s a question of fit.
15. We confuse stylistic fit with levels of abilities.
1.3.2 Difference between styles and strategies

‘Strategies’ usually imply operation followed to minimized error during the decision making process. At a basic level, styles and strategies can be distinguished by the degree of consciousness involved. Styles operate without individual awareness whereas strategies involve a conscious choice of alternatives. Some authors use the two terms interchangeably (Cronbach and Snow, 1977) but in general strategy is used for task or context dependent situation whereas style implies a higher degree of stability falling midway between ability and strategy.

1.3.3 Thinking Styles

Thinking style is a meta-cognitive instrument; meta-cognitive awareness is firstly, the self knowledge we experience when we reach an understanding of the ways in which we ourselves process information and secondly, the understanding that other people may think similarly or differently to ourselves. Harris et al.’s Theory of mind (1989): how children come to understand what other think and feel is consistent with this concept. It suggests an awareness which is not fundamental egocentric as such is not in consist with some of the concepts of emotion intelligence; self awareness for examples of courses meta-cognitive awareness in itself does not suggest emotional intelligence not that any increased understanding will be used for the welfare of other. The concepts for thinking styles originated from Neuro-linguistic programming (NLP) with the purpose measuring individual preference for the sensory representation systems utilizing rigorous, psychometric methodologies. NLP theory suggests that the dimensions measured by thinking style are cognitive filters with each dimension having specific linguistic i.e. associated language patterns.

Thinking styles are the individual preferred ways of using abilities. These are in fact related to cognition which includes perceiving sensing problem solving thinking and remembering however, thinking styles are different from cognitive styles in the sense that these are more have many dimensions. for instance field dependence / independence impulsivity / reflectively are. Cognitive styles have based on multi dimension such as functions, forms, levels, scope and learning.
These thinking styles are not the abilities rather they are different ways of exploring abilities for thinking intellectually or creatively.

1.3.4 Sternberg’s Theory of Mental Self-Government

Sternberg’s (1988; 1997) theory of mental self-government addresses people thinking styles which may be used in many settings including university, home and community. At the heart of this theory is the notion that people need somehow to govern or manage their everyday activities. These are many ways of doing so; whenever possible people choose styles of managing themselves with which they are comfortable. Still, people are at least somewhat flexible in their use of styles and try with varying degree of success to adapt themselves to the stylistic demands of a given situation. Thus an individual with one preference in one situation may have a different preference with one situation may have a different preference in another situation. As applied to individuals, the theory of mental self-government posits 13 thinking styles that fall along five dimensions of mental self-government:

(a) Functions (b) Forms (c) Levels (d) Scope, and (e) Leaning

(A) Functions Based styles

There are three functions of government: executive, legislative, and judicial. Corresponding to these, there are three styles of thinking.

1. Legislative Style

People with this style of thinking like to come up with their own ways of doing things and prefer to decide for themselves what they will do and how they will do it. People with this style like to create their own rules and prefer problems that are not pre-structured or prefabricated.

2. Executive Style

People with executive style like to follow rules and prefer problems that are pre-structured or prefabricated. They like to fill in the gaps within existing structures rather than to create the structures themselves.
3. Judicial Style

People with this style like to evaluate rules and procedures and prefer problems in which analyze and evaluate existing things and ideas. The judicial stylist likes activities such as writing critiques, giving opinion, judging people and their work and evaluating programs.

(B) Forms Based Style

There are four forms of mental self-government monarchic, hierarchic, oligarchic and anarchic. Each form results in a different way of approaching the world and its problems. Depending on forms there are four thinking styles. These are described as follows

1. Monarchic style

Persons with monarchic style is someone who is single-minded and driven. The individual tends not to let anything in the way of his or her in solving a problem. Monarchic people can be counted on to get a thing done, given that they have set their mind to it.

2. Hierarchic style

The persons with hierarchical style has a hierarchy of goals and recognizes the needs to set priorities as well goals cannot always be fulfilled or at least fulfilled equally well. This person tends to be more accepting of complexity than the monarchic person and recognize the need to view problems from a number of angles so as to get priorities correctly.

3. Oligarchic Style

The persons with Oligarchic style is like the hierarchic persons in having a desire to do more than one thing within the same time frame unlike, hierarchic people, oligarchic people tend to be motivated by several often-completing goals of equal perceived importance, often these individuals feel pressured in the face of competing demands on their time and other resources. They are not always sure what to do first, or how much time to allot to each of the tasks they need to complete. However giving even minimal guidance as to the priorities of the organization in which they are involved,
they can become as effective or even more effective than people with other
styles.

4. Anarchic Style

The anarchic style person seems to be motivated by a potpourri
needs and goals that can be difficult for him her as well as for others to
sort out. Persons with anarchic style take what seems like a random
approach to problems; they tend to reject systems, and especially rigid one
and to fight back at whatever system they see as confining them.

(C) Styles based on the Level

1. Global Style

Individual with global style prefer to deal with relatively large and
abstract issues. They ignore or don’t like details and prefer to see the forest
rather than trees. Often, they lose sight of the trees that the constitute the forest.

2. Local Style

Individuals with local style like concrete problems requiring working
with details. They tend to be oriented toward the pragmatics of a situation and are
down to earth. The danger is that they may lose the forest of the trees.

(D) Styles based on scope

1. Internal Style

Individuals with internal style are concerned with internal affairs that is to
say, these individuals turn inward. They tend to be introverted, task -oriented,
aloof and sometimes, socially less aware. They like to work alone. Essentially,
their preference is to apply their intelligence to things or ideas in isolation from
other people.

2. External Style

Individuals with external style tends to be extroverted, outgoing and
people oriented. Often, they are socially sensitive and aware of what is going in
with others. They like working with other people whenever possible.
(E) **Styles based on Leaning**

Based on leaning of mental self-government two styles of thinking have been identified – liberal and conservative.

1. **Liberal Style**

   The individual with liberal style likes to go beyond existing rules and procedures to maximize change and to seek situations that are somewhat ambiguous. The individual is not necessarily ‘politically’ liberal.

2. **Conservative Style**

   The individuals with conservative style likes to adhere to existing rules and procedures, minimize change. Avoid ambiguous situations where possible and stick with familiar situations to work and professional life. The individual will be happiest in a structured and relatively predictable environment. When such structure does not exist, the individual may seek to create it.

1.3.5 **Factors Affecting Thinking Styles**

According to Sternberg (1997) there are following variables which are likely to affect development of thinking styles.

1. **Culture**

   First variable is the culture, which is likely to affect development of thinking styles. Some cultures are likely to be more rewarding of certain styles than others. For example, the North American emphasis on innovation and making the “better mousetrap” may lead to relatively greater rewards for the legislative and liberal styles, at least among adults. National Heroes of one kind or another in the United States, such as Edison as inventor, Einstein as scientist, Jefferson as political theorist, Steven Jobs as entrepreneur and Ernest Hemingway as author, tend often to be heroes by virtues of their legislative contribution. Others societies, such as Japan, that traditionally more highly emphasize conformity and the following of tradition may be more likely to execute and conservative styles. Similarly, in some cultures children are taught from an early age not to question certain religious tenants or not to question the government. Such culture reward a conservative style and to punish a liberal one. Some
religious and ethnic groups encourage a legislative and liberal thinking style that is likely to produce creative work and to eventuate in prizes for creative achievement. Other groups discourage such thinking styles. Although internal and external styles may be found in both kinds of cultures, the respective resources of the cultures suggest that internalism will be more highly valued by the individual culture and externalism by the collective culture.

2. Gender

A second variable that is potentially relevant to the development of styles is gender. In particular, males are more likely to be rewarded for a legislative, internal and liberal styles, females for an executive or judicial external and conservative styles. The reason for this may be—males and females will be socialized in different ways, from the time they are born, Sternberg (1997) holds that traditionally, a legislative, liberal pattern of styles has been more acceptable in males than in females. Men were supported to set rules and women to follow them. But this tradition is already changing in many cultures.

5. Age

The third variable is age, which affects the development of thinking styles. Legislativeness is generally encouraged in the preschool young, who are encouraged to develop their creative power in the relatively unstructured and open environment of the preschool and some homes. Once the children start going to school, the period of legislative encouragement rapidly draws to close. Children are now expected to be socialized into largely conforming values of the school. The teacher now decides what the students should do and students do it, for the most part.

6. Parenting style

A fourth variable is parenting styles which play crucial role in the development of thinking styles of children. For example, monarchic parent is likely to reward a child who shows the likely adhere a child beginning to show a monarchic style and to try to suppress it as unacceptable. Parents who mediate the child in the ways that point to a larger than smaller issues are more likely to
encourage a global style. Whereas who do not themselves generalize are more likely to encourage a more influence the styles of thinking that their children develop. For instance, children are more likely to develop legislative styles if their parents encourage the children to ask questions and where possible, to seek answers for themselves; children are more likely to develop judicial style if their parents encourage children to be evaluative to compare and contrast to analyze to judge things both with respect to the question the children ask and with respect to the answers that are given.

7. Schooling

One variable affecting the development of thinking style is kind of schooling. Different schools reward different styles of thinking. On the average, schools in most parts of the world are probably most rewarding of the executive, local and conservative styles of thinking. Schools see themselves as socializing agent. Intellectual independence is encouraged when the students reaches advanced graduate level. Even there, legislatively thinking is often not encouraged.

8. Occupations

Occupation also reward different thinking styles of children. An entrepreneur is likely to be rewarded for different styles than is an assembly line worker. As individuals respond to the reward system of their chosen pursuit, various aspects of style are more likely to be either encouraged or suppressed.

9. Socio-economic Status

Socio-economic status is likely to affect the development of thinking styles opposed that socio economic status is negatively related to the judicial, local, conservative and oligarchic styles of children. Greater authoritarianism in the styles is seen in children of low socio economic status.

1.3.6 Importance of Thinking Styles

According to Sternberg (1997) the potential contribute of thinking styles to education may be described under following main rubrics.
1. Improving Instructional Methods

Thinking styles might provide a basis for tailoring the mode of presentation as well as the nature and degree of substantive structure to functional characteristics of learners, so as to develop, compensate for or capitalize upon student characteristics for the optimization of subject matter learning. Contrariwise, depending on the educational goals, students might be deliberately confronted with instructional demands that are congenial to their thinking styles so as to stimulate growth and flexibility. There is thus a containing but potentially fruitful tension over the relative value of matching educational treatments to learner characteristics as opposed to mismatching them. Although matching may be facilitative when the aim is to enhance immediate subject-matter achievement, mismatching may be needed when the aim is to promote flexible and creative thinking—obstacles, opposition, conflict and challenge may be necessary to stimulate individual development and creativity. Depending upon the instructional aims, curriculum materials and procedure might be devised in stylistic terms by varying the degree of independent study versus group instruction, cognitive controls and stylistic abilities might thus serve to increase the functional options for individualization of instruction.

2. Enriching Teacher Behaviour and Conceptions

Teacher performance might be improved through heightened awareness of thinking styles, which could lead to increased flexibility in the teacher’s own stylistic preference for particular evaluation and teaching methods. Increased teacher's awareness of styptic differences might also improve teacher-student communication by increasing sensitivity to verbal and non-verbal stylistic cues and to communicative difficulties attendant upon stylistic mismatch. Teacher and students who are similar in thinking styles tend to view each other with greater mutual esteem than to those who are dissimilar; they also tend to communicate more effectively, as if they were on the same wavelength. If teachers and students were more aware of stylistic differences, these mismatch effects are considerably attenuated through resulting improved communication.
3. Enhancing Student Learning and Thinking Strategies

By increasing student awareness of thinking styles and their implications for learning, communication and social functioning, the teacher might expand student purview about the range of alternative thinking strategies that are congenial to their styles but those that are uncongenial as well. Since strategies may be more easily learned than styles and more amenable to alteration, teacher might thereby increase the students strategic repertoire and the likelihood that strategies, even stylistically uncongenial ones, will be selectively and appropriately applied as a function of varied task requirement.

4. Expanding Guidance and Vocational Decision-Making

Since thinking styles are related to vocational preferences and to choice of major field as well as to choice of specialization and to relative performance within field, knowledge of students thinking styles should contribute to improved educational decision making. Moreover, since thinking styles have signifies for the ways in which information is selected, processed and used, styles should be taken into account in optimizing student’s involvement in the guidance process.

5. Boarding Educational Goals and Outcomes

The pervasiveness of thinking styles suggests that capitalizing upon styles and coping with their restrictiveness might become explicit goals of education that school and college should be concern not just with knowledge acquisition but also with the student’s manner of thinking. The concern invokes a number of process goals and associated process outcomes to be evaluated such as the development of strategic thinking, the enrichment of the student’s repertoire of procedural alternatives and the development flexibility in the utilization of multiple thinking modes.

6. Turning the Stylistic Demands of Learning Environment

Educational environments make stylistic demands as well as intellective demands, but the stylistic demands of most current programmes and settings are
usually so intermixed that they neither uniformly match nor uniformly mismatch learning styles. Rather, they are generally misaligned with stylistic characteristics of learners with some environmental and program features facilitating and others debilitating performance. This often puts students in double bind. From the thinking style perspective, we are in a position to explore the stylistic requirements of different learning environments with a view towards developing style consistent models of instructional methods. Such modules might include suitable teaching methods. Such explorations may help us to better understand and appreciate the subtle stylistic demand of the conditions of learning.

7. Render Help in Adopting Suitable Assessment Methods

It is assumed that different methods of assessment tend to benefit different styles. For instance, multiple-choice testing is very much oriented toward executive and local thinkers. Similarly, short-answer type test are most compatible to executive, local, hierarchical and internal thinking. Essay tests do not benefit particular styles, rather, whom they benefit depends on how the essays are evaluated. Projects and portfolios tend to reward styles that are quite different from those typically rewarded by short-answer and multiple-choice tests. Even interviews tend to reward some styles over others. Therefore, there is a need to correspondence between thinking styles and different formats of tests. Having complete knowledge of testing and thinking styles, the teacher is in best position to adopt suitable methods of assessment in the classroom.

Thus, it may be noted that instructor can facilitate learner’s use of thinking styles information for helping them to understand as thinkers, for encouraging them to expand their thinking styles, for using a variety of learning approaches and for creating an environment in which diversity can thrive.

1.4 DECISION-MAKING

Decision is a consequences of deciding which is a deliberate process of human brain application the verb ‘decide’ is derived from the Latin prefix ‘de’ and the verb ‘Caedo’ De + Caedo : meaning -- off + to cut. So deciding is some cognitive process to cut off as preferred. It is selection by rejection. Decision
making is an act of choice by which an individual an organization selects to the best one out of the available alternatives. Where in, it is to be defined as the one, which ensure maximum possible profit to an organization to be more specific decision is to choose the best available alternative. With the sizing trends of information or feedback in decision making process is generally limited and imperfect and the decision is thus, bounded with rationality. So, in the present day context decision making is selecting the best available and most feasible rational alternative.

Decision making considered as an integral part of our daily life for teachers decision making is one of the most crucial functions to be carried out by them. This is so simply because they are always in search of appropriate solution to various problem which they come across during the process from the beginning to the end beside playing an important role in all types of management function decision making constitutes the very base of planning because during the process of planning major decision are made and organizational tone is set. The right to make decision is an integral part of authority rights upon which the entire concepts of management tests. Thus decision making supersedes all other managerial activities and is contained in the process of management to such an extent that management to such an extent that management can be regarded as almost equivalent to decisionmaking.

A large part of the literature on decision making deals with the process of decision making. What has been described with varying emphasis? Sometimes decision making is considered to be ‘choosing’ sometimes ‘searching’ and sometimes both. Some theorist goes a little further to include the implementation of decision also. Generally, however, implementation is supposed to be crucial but separate process though not independent of decision making. Similarly a distinction is made between ‘decision making’ and ‘problem solving’. It is held that decision making and making deals with simple situation having correct solution, while problem solving deals with boarder, and more complicated situations involving uncertainty and risk. Mostly, however the two terms tend to be used as synonymous.
1.4.1 Characteristics of Decision-Making

According to Russell Haines, Lori and Leonard (2007) the following are some of the characteristics of decision making:

1. Decision making is the central locus of management. Any activity in business management would require efficient decision making skill.
2. Decisions are made under conditions of certainty, risk (insurable) and uncertainty (non-insurable risk).
3. Decision making is a conscious human process involving both individual and social phenomenon.
4. It is adaptation of systematic, thorough going and logical reasoning.
5. It has objectivity, adherence to verifiable concepts and orderly precise process.
6. It is a comparative analysis.
7. Decision making is a continuous and universal process.
8. Decision can be taken by an individual, group, organization or society.
9. It is a human behavior reflecting choice making, which need not necessarily be put into action.

1.4.2 Nature of Decision Making

According to Robert Christensen (1968), Decision making aims at selecting the best available rational course of action out of the various alternative under conditions of limited resources with the size in the complexities and intricacies of education process, decision making is now associating itself with more and more of mathematical model. This makes decision making scientific. It is concerned with the cause and effect of each course of action and effect of each course of action and watching the effects at every stage of attain the optimal position. But this success can not be achieved unless rational thinking and creativity along with a perfect vision on the part of the decision maker back it. All the aspects have to be forecast and quantified in absolute terms before reaching a conclusion which requires a perfect ability on the poet of the manager. The outcomes of the decision can be positive or negative but the search of the most suitable alternative cannot be ruled out at any stage. This makes it an art. Thus, decision making demonstration both art
and science in decision making skills. By virtue of its qualification the decision making is specialized human behavior. It is neither inborn nor inherited. It is a man made creation though skill formation i.e. learning and training in the field of management. Drucker (1954) says that the decision that really matter are strategic and that whatever their magnitude, complexity, or importance, they should never be taken through problem solving.

1.4.3 Decision Making Styles

Decision making skill is defined as capability of the decision maker to search out for the best possible solution to a problem with in the given situation or circumstances. Skills are developed to get the right decision in complex situation. By and large, there is a direct relationship between the level of skill and the level of accuracy in decision making. The higher the level of the former the higher would be the level of the later. A highly skilled manager will ensure better accuracy in decision making and vice versa.

Various authors have defined this term differently for instance Doktor and Hamilton (1973) viewed decision making styles as a cognitive style. They said “It is a part of the person’s cognitive style, which is the characteristic self consistent way of functioning that an individual exhibitions across perceptual and intellectual activities.”

Driver (1979) has defined it is as habitual pattern individual use in decision making.

Harren (1979) hold that individual characteristic mode of perceiving and responding to a decision making task is decision making style.

Henderson and Nutt (1980) said that it is an individual cognitive “makeup” that we call decision style, and it is thought to influence the selection among alternative courses of action (Mason and Mitroff, 1973).

Coscarelli, Burk and Cotter (1995) proposed a definition that looks at the construct of cognitive style as more limited. They proposed that “Decision making
is a characteristic self consistent way of functioning that an individual exhibits across perceptual and intellectual activities when making a choice.”

According to Scott and Bruce (1995) decision making styles are leaned habitual responses pattern exhibited by an individual when confronted with a decision making style. They consider these habit based propensities to react in a certain way in a specific decision context and not the personality trait because personality trait have long been embroiled in the cross rotational consistency.

1.4.4 Types of Decision-Making Style

Decision-making styles have been studied from three broad perspectives-the guidance counseling perspective, the social perspective and Jungian-based theories.

1. The Guidance Counseling Perspective

Arroba (1977) and Harren (1979) classified decision-making styles into planning intuitive, and dependent, based on the degree to which an individual takes personal responsibility for decision-making and uses rational versus emotional strategies. Johnson (1978) developed a model that describes two basic processes for gathering information (spontaneous and systematic) and two from analyzing information (internal and external).

2. The Social Perspective

Mckenney and Keen (1974) and Driver, Brousseau, and Hunsaker (1990) conceptualized cognitive style along two dimensions- information gathering and information processing and evaluation. Information gathering consists of receptive and perceptive behaviours. Driver, Brousseau and Hunsaker (1990) developed the decision style model that combines dimension of information processing to arrive at five basic styles decisive hierarchic, flexible, integrative, an systemic. Scott and Bruce (1995) developed a typology that provides a comprehensive set of decision-making styles.

3. Jungian-Based Theories

Jung’s theory suggests that individual prefer to perceive patterned non-random ways. Perception includes the ways individual become familiar with.
Judgment means arriving at conclusions about the perceptions. Jung identified four preferences for perceiving and judging the world, each representing a dichotomy. Individuals would have preferences for one part of each dichotomy and each preference combines to identify a cumulative personality type. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers and McCaulley, 1985) is based on Jung’s psychological types (extraversion, sensing, thinking, and judgement). Sixteen personality types are possible. The judgment and perception dimension determine an individual’s decisions making behavior in an organization.

The decision – making style typology developed by Scott and Bruce (1995), identifying five styles-rational, intuitive, spontaneous, dependent and avoidant—appeared to be the most comprehensive for this study. The rational style is deliberate, analytical, and logical assessing the long-term effects of decisions and having a strong fact-based orientation. The intuitive style is feeling-oriented and based on internal ordering of information. Such decisions are made quickly. The dependent style is characterized by use of support from others while delay and denial characterize the avoidant style. The spontaneous style displays a strong sense of immediacy an interest in getting through the decision-making process as quickly as possible.

1.4.5 Determinants of Decision Making Style

Mc Gergor (1967) identified some variables, which interact with each other in shaping the styles of manager they are:

1. Attitude, knowledge, skills and capabilities of organization members
2. Nature or task and technology
3. Organizational structure
4. Skills, capabilities and attributes of the leader and
5. Environmental variables in the larger organization system and society

Tennenbaum and Smith (1958) showed that style of a leader would be influenced by forces in the manager in the subordinate and in the situation age values.
personality need of the individual as well as the size culture resources purposes and activities of the organization, influence the styles.

Heller (1971) found some structural and situational variables influencing the styles. Hierarchy also plays the part in shaping the decisional styles.

Thus both background related and psychological variables of the decision have important place in shaping of decision making styles.

1.4.6 Importance of Decision-Making Styles

In the present day scenario, management is operating in a complex and fast changing environment. In today’s business the cost of making errors is graver than the cost of making a systemic and scientific decision. Rule of thumb, using common sense and snap judgment are foregone techniques, which are generally misleading having harmful implication. A single wrong decision in an organization may not only be ruinous to the management but may cause havoc in the national, even international economics. Its importance is quite distinct at every functional level of management.

1. Planning

To plan is to decide and to anticipate the future. Planners examine the alternative courses of action thorough decision-making and select the best one for achieving the set objectives. According to Harren (1979) Decision-making is the beginning point of the planning process and sets its purposes, objectives and directions. It is the organizational goals where the final plans are directed and these goals are formalized decision-making become the parallel flow for the achievements towards these objectives. In fact decision making provides the primary inputs of strategic decisions, tactical decisions, character and non-chartered decisions with other forms of decisions which would then serve as a platform for operational decisions and for shape the operational plans.

2. Organizing

Mason and Mitroff (1973) reproted the decision-making specifies the organizational structure bringing mutual coordination by establishing relationships and delegates authority either by centralizing or decentralizing, whatever is
convenient and suitable for organization. It has become a general practice decentralizing securing accruing whatever is convenient and suitable for organizational. It has become a general practice to employ more and more people in an organization as numerous services are required to sustain the life of an organization. Naturally, as we have greater dependence on organization, the responsibility of the decision makers making skill would lead to a combined efforts resulting in a synergy which is greater than the sum of the individual efforts. For effective corporate governance, decisions at the organizational level would require assignment of duties, departmentalization allocation and delegation of authority, establishing rational flow of work, choosing the appropriate authority while fixing up the accountability, planning for the channels of communication process coordinating, so as to avoid misutilization of organizational resources biases, conflicts and wastage of manpower and so on. Organizational decision making works as an effective tool for implementing organizational strategies and achieving organizational goal.

3. Staffing

Tennenbaum and Smith (1958) showed that decision making styles are relating to placement, recruitment, induction and training of personnel require a proper decision making policy for strengthening the human resource or the human capability of the organization. The corporate managers must possess highly specialized skills for decision making to ensure that the right person is placed at the right place to work in the organization on one hand and on the other hand be able to forecast human needs, their availability and to see that their demand is matched by the supply. Major decisions involved in this sphere are recruitment and selection, selection techniques and methods, induction, training and development, replacement, job requirement and work appraisal, promotions and packages etc.

4. Directing

Doktor and Hamilton (1973) viewed minimizing the deviation from the standards through proper guidance of actual performance can be brought by active decision-making and proper direction. Leadership decisions,
communication decisions and motivation decisions are taken for effective
directions.

5. Controlling

According to Russell Haines, Lori and Leonard (2007) the decision at the
controlling level measures the performance of the organization. Objectives and the
plans devised to attain them. Decisions in controlling will have to production,
budget, office at every level- product-quality, size of production, budget, office
procedures, moral of the workers etc. Decision- making at the controlling end
would assure that the right work is done in the right manner in the right time.
Effective decision –making thus helps not only the organizational needs of
educational institutional institutions but to a classroom teacher also. Teacher as
an effective decision –maker can do his job with more facility if he adheres to
his preferred styles of decision-making. The teacher has to take number of
decisions at planning, executing, organizing, evaluating and controlling levels in
teaching learning process. Since prospective teachers are required to learn
various teaching and decision-making skills which set the stages for effective
teaching, learning of decision-making styles can play a significant role in teacher
education too.

1.5 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Academic achievement is a of the wider term educational growth. It is unique,
prime and perennial responsibility of an educational institution established by the
society to promote a whole some academic growth and development of the child.
Academic achievement is a multi- dimensional activity and not a one-dimensional
one. It generally refers to level of success or that of proficiency in a academic work.
It indicates that what child has leant or acquired in a particulars subject. Academic
achievement means that attained level at which the student are functioning in a
school tasks such mathematics, science etc. measured by school marks.
Achievement means the extent to which learner is profiting from instructions in a
given area of learning. It is the outcomes of general and specific learning
experiences. In other words, achievements may be defined as which is the
competence they actually show in school students in which they have received instructions.

Good (1973) states that academic achievements effects to the knowledge attained or skill developed in the school subjects usually designed by test scores or marks assigned by the teachers.

According to Tany and Thomas (1977) achievements mean performance in school or college in a standardized series of educational tests. The term is used more generally to describe performances in the subjects of curriculum.

According to Hawes and Hawes (1982) achievement means successful accompanied or performance in particulars subjects, areas or courses usually by measured of skills handwork and interests typically summarized in various types of grades, marks scores or descriptive commentary. Thus academic achievement may be related to particulars subjects or all subjects given in the syllabus of a particulars class. It may be of formative as well as summative not use any may pertain to cognitive, effective and psychomotor domains.

1.5.1 Importance of Academic Achievement

In the present world everything is changing very fast. There is an explosion of knowledge in all walks of life. The growth of science and technology has brought changes in socioeconomic conditions of the society. Because of explosion of aspirations, every parent today sets high goals to educate his child. Thus academic achievement has become a case of educational growth. Good academic achievement helps to develop self-esteem, self-respect and self-confidence and helps the individual to create niche for himself in the competition ridden society.

Academic achievement has a great importance in personal life. Success in academic subjects act as an emotional tonic and any damage done to a child in the home or neighborhood may be partially repaired by success in school. It leads to a better adjustment and success in school or college. It motivates the students to set high goals for themselves. Importance of academic achievement
can also be judged when we realize fuller and happier life, which we wish for every student, would be impossible unless he has attained a high degree of proficiency in his subjects. Academic achievement to a great extent predicts the future of the students. At the time of admission, for entrance in job or for further studies, good academic achievement record is the only recommendation.

Therefore, academic achievement is the unique responsibility of all educational institutions established by the society to promote a whole-sum scholastic development of the student.

1.6 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The area of self-efficacy, self-esteem, thinking and decision-making styles is not a new one in educational research. In foreign countries, a number of researchers have tried to explore the relationship of self-efficacy, self-esteem, thinking and decision-making styles of school, college and university level students with their background and cognitive and non-cognitive characteristics separately. But combination of these constructs have not been sufficiently studied in the realm of both type of teacher education i.e. pre-service and in-service. Pre-service teacher education has a unique and significant place in teacher education. Like students of other classes, prospective teachers need to be taught based on their self-efficacy, self-esteem and preferred ways of thinking and decision-making in order to facilitate full actualization of their potentials. Related research has indicated that self-efficacy, self-esteem, decision-making and thinking styles of prospective teachers are related to background and cognitive and non-cognitive characteristics separately. But there is no study available which has thrown light on the combination of self-efficacy, self-esteem, decision-making and thinking styles of prospective teachers of secondary level in particular. Therefore, the present meaningful research questions:

1. Are self-efficacy, self-esteem, thinking and decision-making styles of prospective secondary teachers related to gender difference?
2. Are self-efficacy, self-esteem, thinking and decision-making styles of prospective secondary teachers related to their academic achievement?
3. Are there significant interactions between academic gender and achievement of prospective secondary teachers with regard to their self-efficacy, self-esteem, thinking and decision-making styles?

Putting these three broad research questions in unified form, the problem of the study was stated as under.

"A STUDY OF SELF-EFFICACY SELF-ESTEEM THINKING AND DECISION MAKING STYLES OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS IN RELATION TO THEIR GENDER AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT"

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In the last three decades there has been extensive research on various methods of college teaching but no style methods of teaching has been found consistently supervise for mythical average student. In view of this the research started exploring the issue: which students learn best under what condition. As a result of this endeavour they found the answer in the area of thinking and decision making styles. In their opinion all types of learners can be reached well though people diagnosis and perception of their decision making and thinking styles. The knowledge of how students think and decide to essential for tailoring the instruction of the learning needs of the student so as to produce best learning.

In foreign countries considerable efforts has been made to study separately the self-efficacy, self-esteem decision making and thinking styles of college students in context to culture, socio-economic background, age, grade, personal and psychological characteristic of the learners. However no systematic study has been undertaken by any Indian researcher on the effect of gender and academic achievement on self-efficacy, thinking achievement on self-efficacy, thinking and decision making styles of prospective secondary teachers as a whole. Therefore the present study will be a humble attempt in fulfilling the gap in existing researcher on self-efficacy, self-esteem, thinking and decision making styles.

Further, the result of this study may be helpful in providing the empirical base for organizing classroom teaching in most effective and satisfactory manner in college of teacher education for enhancing the level of academic performance of
prospective teachers moreover through knowledge of self-efficacy, self-esteem, styles of thinking and decision making of teacher educators perhaps will prepare themselves to become diagnostician prescribers educational designers and to adjust teaching methods to different ways in which Prospective teachers prefer to learn.

Beside the fact that the result of this study would be great help to educators, Principals of colleges of education, educational planners, guidance workers and curriculum designers would also be benefited.

1.8 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives were framed for the present study.

1. To study the self-efficacy among prospective teachers in relation to their gender.
2. To study self-efficacy among prospective teachers in relation to their academic achievement.
3. To study self-efficacy among prospective teachers in relation to their gender and academic achievement.
4. To study the self-esteem among prospective teachers in relation to their gender.
5. To study self-esteem among prospective teachers in relation to their academic achievement.
6. To study self-esteem among prospective teachers in relation to their gender and academic achievement.
7. To study thinking styles among prospective teachers in relation to their gender.
8. To study thinking styles among prospective teachers in relation to their academic achievement.
9. To study thinking styles among prospective teachers in relation to their gender and academic achievement.
10. To study decision making styles among prospective teachers in relation to their gender.
11. To study decision making styles among prospective teachers relation to their academic achievement.
To study decision making styles among Prospective Teachers in relation to their gender and academic achievement.

1.9 HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were tested in the present study.

1. There will be no significant difference in self-efficacy of male and female prospective teachers.
2. There will be no significant differences in self-efficacy of prospective teachers with high, average and low academic achievement.
3. There will be no significant interaction between gender and academic achievement with regard to self-efficacy of Prospective Teachers.
4. There will be no significant difference in self-esteem of male and female prospective teachers.
5. There will be no significant difference in self-esteem of prospective teachers with high, average and low academic achievement.
6. There will be no significant interaction between gender and academic achievement with regard to self-esteem of Prospective Teachers.
7. There will be no significant difference in thinking styles of male and female prospective teachers.
8. There will be no significant difference in thinking styles of prospective teachers with high, average and low academic achievement.
9. There will be no significant interaction between gender and academic achievement with regard to thinking styles of Prospective Teachers.
10. There will be no significant difference in decision making styles of male and female prospective teachers.
11. There will be no significant difference in decision making styles of prospective teacher with high average and low academic achievement.
12. There will be no significant interaction between gender and academic achievement with regard to decision making styles of Prospective Teachers.
1.10 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study was delimited in terms of the following
1. The investigation was carried out on a sample of 480 male and female prospective teachers.
2. The subjects/ students were drawn from science, arts and commerce streams.
3. The study was confined to colleges of education falling in the jurisdiction of H.P. University, Shimla.

1.11 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

The term used in the present study are defined as under:

1. Self-efficacy: Refers to the concepts as measured by general self-efficacy scale developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem.
2. Self-esteem: Refers to the concepts as measured by self-esteem is developed by Morris Rosenberg.
3. Thinking styles: Refers to 13 thinking styles as measured by thinking style inventory as developed by Sternberg and Wagner.
4. Decision making styles: Refers to 5 decision making styles as measured by General decision making scale developed by Scott and Bruce.
5. Academic achievement: Achievement test was prepared by the investigator.