CHAPTER 2
THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

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2.1 INTRODUCTION

Before starting an investigation the researcher should be thoroughly known about the phenomenon of the study. Theoretical overview tries to give the theoretical framework about different phenomenon under the study. They also clarify and provide meaning to this summarized knowledge comprising of isolated scientific explanation for observed events and relationships for specific phenomena with maximum objectivity. In this way theories help in the development of new knowledge. This chapter deals with the theoretical framework on personal happiness, personal resilience, time management social competence, institutional climate, academic motivation and academic achievement.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON HAPPINESS

The word 'happiness' is used in various ways. In the widest sense it is an umbrella term for all that is good. In this meaning it is often used interchangeably with terms like ‘wellbeing’ or ‘quality of life’. Happiness is an indicator of the satisfaction level of an individual. A happy person effectively and carefully deals with emotions. Philosophers considered happiness to be the highest good and ultimate motivation for human action (Diener, 1984). Everyone needs to be happy, but many are dissatisfied with their life. Most people are even confused about what can make them happy. People want to understand ways to be happy and peaceful regardless of their external circumstances (Cloninger, 2004). Most people prefer happiness rather than extrinsic achievements such as fame, wealth, or social status (Diener & Lucas, 2002). Happy people are less self-focused, less hostile, and less vulnerable to disease. They are more loving, forgiving, trusting, energetic, decisive, creative, helpful, and sociable than unhappy people (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon & Schkade, 2005).
Happiness is a highly valued in present day society. Not only do people aim at happiness in their own life but there is also growing support for the idea that we care for the happiness of other people and that governments should aim at creating greater happiness for a greater number of citizens (Bentham 1789). This classic philosophy is not only more accepted these days, but also more practicable, now that scientific research provides more view on the conditions for happiness (Veenhoven 2004).

Happiness in the psychological sense is a good which could be a component of well-being, but there also may be sound reasons why it might not be. Recent history is full of people who have eschewed happiness as a goal. In our usage, the pursuit of happiness is something that can be renounced without any hint of a corresponding renunciation of a pursuit of what is best for oneself.

2.2.1 Authorities in happiness

Ed Diener, a pioneer Positive Psychologist, "The Psychology of Happiness," and considered the "leading authority on happiness (?)", provided many scientific findings on well-being, its benefits and optimum levels as well as some causes for it like temperament, money attitudes, spirituality, good health and longevity.

Martin Seligman, introduced the term Positive Psychology to describe the scientific study of happiness. He describes happiness as being based on three lives - the pleasurable life, the engaged life and the meaningful life. The better each of these lives is lived, the happier the person will be.

Jonathan Freeman, explains "people generally agree about what they mean by happiness. It is a positive, enduring state that consists of positive felling including both peace of mind and active pleasures or joy."
Ruut Veenhoven, describes happiness as "the degree in which an individual judges the overall quality of his life-as-a-whole favorably."

### 2.2.2 Affective definitions of Happiness

Several definitions show happiness as an affective phenomenon. For instance Wessman & Ricks (1966) defined: “Happiness appears as an overall evaluation of the quality of the individual’s own experience in the conduct of his vital affairs. As such, happiness signifies a conception abstracted from the change of affective life, indicating a decided balance or positive affectivity over long periods of time”. In a similar vein Fordyce (1972) states “Happiness is a particular emotion. It is an overall evaluation made by the individual in accounting all his pleasant and unpleasant experiences in the recent past. These definitions are close to Jeremy Bentham’s (1789) famous definition of happiness as ‘the sum of pleasures and pains’, which also involves the notion of an ‘affect balance’. A contemporary variation on this theme is proposed by Daniel Kahneman’s (2000) in the notion of ‘objective happiness’, which is the ‘raw’ affective experience that underlies the overall evaluation of life.

### 2.2.3 Cognitive definitions of Happiness

Cognitive definitions of Happiness are also defined as a cognitive phenomenon, that is, as the result of a conscious evaluation process. In that vein McDowel & Newell (1987) describe life-satisfaction as a “Personal assessment of one’s condition compared to an external reference standard or to one’s aspirations”. Likewise, Shin & Johnson (1978: 478) defined life-satisfaction as a “global assessment of a person’s quality of life according to his chosen criteria”. Some of the definitions in this line stress the active achievement of life goals (e.g. Annas, 2004), while others rather stress the absence of unfulfilled aspirations, e.g. Schmitz (1930)
who depicted happiness as: “State of being without desires”. In all conceptualizations happiness is deemed to be higher, the smaller the distance between standard and reality.

2.2.4 Attitudinal definitions of Happiness

Happiness has also been depicted as a happy disposition and as a positive attitude towards life. In this line Lieberman (1970) wrote “At some point in life. Before even the age of 18, an individual becomes geared to a certain stable level of satisfaction, which – within a rather broad range of environmental circumstances – he maintains throughout life”. Some of these definitions of this kind stress the consistency in affective response, while others rather see it as a belief system.

2.2.5 Mixed definitions of Happiness

Several definitions combine one or more of the above elements. For instance Diener defines Subjective Well-Being (SWB) as being satisfied with life (attitude), while feeling good (affect), “Thus a person is said to have high SWB if she or he experiences life satisfaction and frequent joy, and only infrequently experiences unpleasant emotions such as sadness or anger. Contrariwise, a person is said to have low SWB if she or he is dissatisfied with life, experiences little joy and affection and frequently feels negative emotions such as anger or anxiety” (Diener et al 1997). All three elements are involved in Chekola’s (1974: 2002) definition of happiness as “realization of a life-plan and the absence of seriously felt dissatisfaction and an attitude of being displeased with or disliking one’s life’. Likewise Sumner’s (1997) describes ‘being happy’ as “having a certain kind of positive attitude toward your life, which in the fullest form has both a cognitive and an affective component. The cognitive aspect of happiness consists in a positive evaluation of your life, a judgment
that at least on balance; it measures up favorably against your standard or expectations. The affective side of happiness consists in what we commonly call a sense of well-being, finding your life enriching or rewarding or feeling satisfied or fulfilled by it.”

2.2.5 The Three Dimensions of Happiness

According to Seligman, (Seligman 2002) we can experience three kinds of happiness:

1) Pleasure and gratification,

2) Embodiment of strengths and virtues and

3) Meaning and purpose.

Each kind of happiness is linked to positive emotion.

The Pleasant Life: Past, Present & Future

Seligman provides a mental “toolkit” to achieve what he calls the pleasant life by enabling people to think constructively about the past, gain optimism and hope for the future and, as a result, gain greater happiness in the present.

Dealing with the Past

Among Seligman’s armory for combating unhappiness with the past is that which we commonly and curiously find among the wisdom of the ages: gratitude and forgiveness. Seligman refers to American society as a “ventilationist society” that “deems it honest, just and even healthy to express our anger.” He notes that this is often seen in the types of therapy used for issues, problems and challenges. In contrast, Seligman extols the East Asian tendency to quietly deal with difficult
situations. He cites studies that find that those who refrain from expressing negative emotions and in turn use different strategies to cope with the stresses of life also tend to be happier (Seligman 2002).

**Optimism about the Future**

When looking to the future, Seligman recommends an outlook of hope and optimism.

**Happiness in the Present**

After making headway with these strategies for dealing with negative emotions of the past and building hope and optimism for the future, Seligman recommends breaking habituation, savoring experiences and using mindfulness as ways to increase happiness in the present.

**The Role of Positive Emotion**

Positive emotions are frequently accompanied by fortunate circumstances (e.g., longer life, health, large social networks, etc). Positive emotions are frequently paired with happy circumstances. And while we might be tempted to assume that happiness causes positive emotions, Seligman (2004).

**2.2.6 Types of Happiness**

Researchers such as Steve Taylor explained happiness in several contexts: materialistic happiness, hedonistic happiness, ego-based happiness, future-based happiness, need-satisfaction happiness, event-based happiness, and circumstance-changing happiness.

- **Materialistic happiness** - is the type of happiness that you get from having things — material possessions like cars, boats, homes, clothes, fine jewelry,
silver, or things that bring your personal joy. This type of happiness is strong, but it does not last long. After we get used to having the “thing” that we wanted for so long, we're ready to move on to our next “materialistically happy” experience.

- **Hedonistic happiness**- is the happiness that comes from pleasure and pleasurable situations and stimuli. These pleasures can be food, sex, and alcohol, a comfortable home, dancing in a wild nightclub, sailing on a clear lake, driving through the mountains, or listening to incredible music. These pleasures are very subjective because while food and dancing in a nightclub may be the biggest pleasures in life for some, they can be low on the list of pleasures for others.

- **Ego-based happiness**- is the happiness we get from success, self-esteem, status, praise, power, and fame. Ego-based happiness can originate from a compliment from a coworker on the quality of performance. These things feed ego and bring joy.

- **Future-based happiness**- comes from knowing that have something to which can look forward, joy on the horizon. Future-based happiness is associated with optimism and hope. It has its ties in plans that you assume are going to bring you joy on some level. It can be as simple as dinner tonight or that Alaskan cruise you're planning for next summer. Future-based happiness is a stimulus that keeps you going.

- **Need-satisfaction happiness**- is the happiness that comes to when a need met. It can be as complex as the happiness, they feel once a major problem has been solved or a health issue has been resolved.
• **Event-based happiness** – is the happiness that comes to witnessed or participated in a pleasurable event such as a party, a marriage, obtaining employment, getting accepted into college, or watching the child hit her first home run.

• **Circumstance-changing happiness**- occurs when part of life changes and it causes displeasure. One has moved to a new home, lost weight, moved to another job from one that was not rewarding, or found a better way to do something that had been troublesome before.

### 2.2.7 Fundamentals for happiness

Fordyce, has identified 14 fundamentals for happiness in his work "*Psychology of Happiness,*" and they are as follows.

- Be more active and keep busy
- Spend more time socializing
- Be productive at meaningful work
- Get better organized and plan things out
- Stop worrying
- Lower your expectations and aspirations
- Develop positive, optimistic thinking
- Get present oriented
- Work on a healthy personality
- Develop an ongoing, social personality
• Be yourself
• Eliminate negative feelings and problems
• Close relationships
• Place happiness as first priority

2.2.8 Overall happiness

Overall happiness is defined as “the degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his life-as-a-whole favorably” (Veenhoven 1984). Thus defined happiness appears as an attitude towards one’s own life, that has some stability of its own and that involve related feelings and beliefs. These feelings and beliefs are seen as ‘components’ of happiness.

Components of happiness When evaluating their lives, people can use two more or less distinct sources of information: their affects and their thoughts. We can 'observe' that we feel fine most of the time, and we can also 'judge' that life seems to meet our (conscious) demands. These appraisals do not necessarily coincide. We may feel fine generally, but nevertheless be aware that we failed to realize our aspirations. Or we may have surpassed our aspirations, but nevertheless feel miserable. The relative weight in the overall evaluation is variable in principle; it is an empirical question to what extent one component dominates the other.

Hedonic level of affect

We experience different kinds of affects: feelings, emotions and moods and these experiences have different dimensions, such as active - inactive and pleasant - unpleasant. That latter dimension is called ‘hedonic tone’. When we assess how well we feel we typically estimate the pleasantness in feelings, in emotions, as well as in
moods. A person's average hedonic level of affect can be assessed over different periods of time: an hour, a week, a year as well as over a lifetime. The focus here is on 'current' hedonic level. This concept does not presume subjective awareness of that average level. One can feel good most of the time, without being fully aware of that. Therefore this concept can be applied to beings who cannot reflect on their own life, such as animals and little children.

Contentment

Unlike animals and little children most adults can also evaluate their life with the use of reason and compare life-as-it-is with notions of how one wants-life-to be. The degree to which an individual perceives his wants to be met is called 'contentment' and this concept equals the above mentioned 'cognitive' definitions of happiness. This concept presupposes that the individual has developed some conscious wants and has formed an idea about their realization. The factual correctness of this idea is not at stake.

2.2.9 Traditional theories of happiness

- Hedonism Theory

Hedonism theories, in all its alternatives, it holds that happiness is a matter of raw subjective feeling. A happy life maximizes feelings of pleasure and minimizes pain. A happy person smiles a lot, is ebullient, bright eyed and bushy tailed; her pleasures are intense and many, her pains are few and far between. This theory has its modern conceptual roots in Bentham's utilitarianism (Bentham, 1978), its contagion in Hollywood entertainment, its grossest manifestation in American consumerism, and one of its most sophisticated incarnations in the views of our fellow positive psychologist.
At the hands of an experimental psychologist, hedonism becomes a methodological commitment: your "objective happiness" for a given time period is computed by adding up your on-line hedonic assessments of all the individual moments that comprise that period. This computed aggregate of "experienced utility" becomes the criterion of truth about how genuinely happy your vacation (your childhood, your life) should be taken to be. On this view, the experiencer is always right. If the experience and the retrospective judge disagree, so much the worse for the judge.

One basic challenge facing a hedonist is that when we wish someone a happy life (or a happy childhood, or even a happy week), we are not merely wishing that they accumulate a tidy sum of pleasures, irrespective of how this sum is distributed across one's life-span or its meaning for the whole (Velleman, 1991). We can imagine two lives that contain the same exact amount of momentary pleasantness, but one life tells a story of gradual decline (ecstatic childhood, light-hearted youth, dysphonic adulthood, miserable old age) while another is a tale of gradual improvement (the above pattern in reverse). The difference between these lives is a matter of their global trajectories and these cannot be discerned from the standpoint of its individual moments. They can only be fathomed by a retrospective judge examining the life-pattern as a whole.

Hedonic level of affect experience different kinds of affects: feelings, emotions and moods and these experiences have different dimensions, such as active - inactive and pleasant - unpleasant. That latter dimension is called ‘hedonic tone’. When we assess how well we feel we typically estimate the pleasantness in feelings, in emotions, as well as in moods.
Desire Theory

Desire theory can do better than Hedonism. Desire theories hold that happiness is a matter of getting what you want (Griffin, 1986), with the content of the want left up to the person who does the wanting. Desire theory subsumes hedonism when what we want is lots of pleasure and little pain. Like hedonism, desire theory can explain why an ice-cream cone is preferable to a poke in the eye. However, hedonism and desire theory often part company. Hedonism holds that the preponderance of pleasure over pain is the recipe for happiness even if this is not what one desires most. Desire theory holds that that fulfillment of a desire contributes to one's happiness regardless of the amount of pleasure (or displeasure). One obvious advantage of Desire theory is that it can make sense of Wittgenstein. He wanted truth and illumination and struggle and purity, and he did not much desire pleasure. His life was "wonderful" according to Desire theory because he achieved more of truth and illumination than most mortals, even though as a "negative affective," he experienced less pleasure and more pain than most people.

Nozick's (1974) experience machine (your lifetime is in a tank with your brain wired up to yield any experiences you want) is turned down because we desire to earn their pleasures and achievements. We want them to come about as a result of right action and good character, not as an illusion of brain chemistry. So the Desire criterion for happiness moves from Hedonism's amount of pleasure felt to the somewhat less subjective state of how well one's desires are satisfied.

Principle objection to Desire theory is that one might desire only to collect china tea cups or orgasms or only to listen to Country and Western music or to count fallen leaves all day long. The world's largest collection of tea cups, no matter how
"satisfying," does not seem to add up to much of a happy life. One move to deflect this objection is to limit the scope of Desire theory to the fulfillment of only those desires that one would have if one aimed at an objective list of what is truly worthwhile in life.

- **Objective List Theory**

  Objective List theory (Nussbaum, 1992; Sen, 1985) lodges happiness outside of feeling and onto a list of "truly valuable" things in the real world. It holds that happiness consists of a human life that achieves certain things from a list of worthwhile pursuits: such a list might include career accomplishments, friendship, freedom from disease and pain, material comforts, civic spirit, beauty, education, love, knowledge, and good conscience. Although we find Objective List's shift to the objectively valuable a positive move, our principal objection to this theory is that some big part of how happy we judge a life to be must take feelings and desires (however shortsighted) into account.

**2.2.10 Other Important Theories of Happiness**

- **Authentic Happiness**

  Authentic Happiness (Seligman, 2003) theory stands with respect to these three theoretical traditions? Our theory holds that there are three distinct kinds of happiness: the Pleasant Life (pleasures), the Good Life (engagement), and the Meaning

  - **Pleasure**

    An individual leading a life of pleasure can be seen as maximizing positive emotions, and minimizing negative emotions.
- **Engagement**

  An individual leading a life of engagement constantly seeks out activities that allow her to be in flow. Seligman recommends that in order to achieve flow, you must identify your signature strengths, or strengths that are deeply characteristic of yourself, and learn how to practice them.

- **Meaning**

  An individual leading a life of meaning belongs to and serves something that is bigger than him. These larger entities could be family, religion, community, country, or even ideas.

  The first two are subjective, but the third is at least partly objective and lodges in belonging to and serving what is larger and more worthwhile than the just the self's pleasures and desires. In this way, Authentic Happiness synthesizes all three traditions: The Pleasant Life is about happiness in Hedonism's sense. The Good Life is about happiness in Desire's sense, and the Meaningful Life is about happiness in Objective List's sense. To top it off, Authentic Happiness further allows for the "Full Life," a life that satisfies all three criteria of happiness.

- **Set-Point Theories of Happiness**

  Set-point theories of happiness hold that we experience a certain degree of happiness, largely irrespective of how well we are doing. In this view happiness just happens to us. In set point theories different views are included. They are listed below.

  **Variants**

  A classic religious version of this theory is Divine predestination, God having decided that some people will be happy and others not, just as he foresees who
will enter Heaven and who will be damned to Hell. Secular variants assume that happiness is geared by mental inclinations that are also beyond a person’s control.

**Genetic disposition**

This variant holds that happiness is largely determined by an innate disposition to enjoy life or not. A spokesman of this view is Lykken (1999), who claims to have shown that 80% is heritable. There is uncertainty about the nature of this disposition, some see that in the reward system of the brain and link it to positive or negative ‘affectivity’ while others hold secondary effects responsible, such as inborn physical health. In the latter case, happiness is essentially a variable state, though it tends to remain at the same level because of constancy in its determinants.

**Personality trait**

Another current view is that happiness depends very much on personality traits, that is, predispositions to react in a certain way. One of these ways is liking things or not and Personality traits such as ‘extraversion’ and ‘neuroticism’ are seen to determine our affective reactions to and perceptions of things that happen to us. It is generally assumed that these traits have a genetic component. In this view personality molds the evaluation of life. Personality can also affect happiness through its impact on the course of life-events, and this is central in the dynamic-equilibrium theory of Heady & Wearing (1992).

**Cultural view**

A macro-level variant is this view is that the view on life is embodied in the national character. In this line Inglehart (1990) wrote that cross-national differences in
happiness “reflect cognitive cultural norms, rather than individual grief and joy”. (Veenhoven 1995).

**Homeostatic maintenance**

While the above set-point theories aim at explaining differences in happiness, there are also theories of this kind that focus at the general level of happiness. These are motivational theories that assume that we tend to maintain a comfortable level of happiness, even in adverse conditions. In that line Cummins (2002) holds that we unconsciously keep happiness between 7 and 8 on a 10-step scale, just as we maintain a 9 body temperature of 32 degrees Celsius.

> **Cognitive Theories Of Happiness**

Cognitive theories hold that happiness is a product of human thinking and reflects discrepancies between perceptions of life-as-it-is and notions of how-life-should-be. Notions of how life should be are assumed to root in collective beliefs and to vary across cultures. This view on happiness is dominant in philosophy and also pervades the thinking of many social scientists. Different views are included in cognitive theories, they are listed below:

**Tenets**

The basic assumption of this theory is that happiness is based on the comparison with standards, though there is difference on the nature of these standards and ways of comparison. Another basic assumption is that collective beliefs are involved.

**Comparison**

The theory assumes that we have ‘standards’ of a good life and that we constantly weigh the reality of our life against these standards. Standards are
presumed to be variable rather than fixed and to follow perceptions of possibilities. In other words: we would tend to judge life by what we think it can realistically be. Different theories stress different standards. In the variant of life-time comparison the focus is on whether we are doing better or worse than before. In that view a happy youth will not add to happiness in adulthood. The social comparison variant stresses how well we are doing relative to other people, and in particular people like us. In that view happiness is surpassing the Jones. Several of these theories are combined in Michalos’ (1985) ‘Multiple Discrepancies Theory’ of happiness, which assumes that we not only compare with what we want and with what others have, but also with what we need and with what we deem fair.

**Social construction**

The idea that we compare to standards begs the question of where these standards come from. This is typically seen as an outcome of socialization, involving the adoption of collective notions of the good life, sometimes with minor modifications. These collective notions of the good life are seen as ‘social constructions’ that draw heavily on the wider culture and shared history. In this line some sociologists argue that happiness as such is also a social construction. In that view, happiness is a culturally variable concept, comparable to the notion of ‘beauty’.

**Reflected appraisal**

A sociological variant holds that we not only compare life our self with our own standards, but that we also appraise our life through the eyes of others, in other words, that in assessing how happy we are we estimate how happy other people think we are. If so, this enhances the salience of shared standards of the good life.
Affective Theories Of Happiness

Affect theory hold that happiness is a reflection of how well we feel generally. In this view we do not ‘calculate’ happiness, but rather ‘infer’ it, the typical heuristic being “I feel good most of the time, hence I must be happy” (Schwartz & Strack 1991)

Tenets

In this line of thought, one question is how we take stock of our affective experience. Another question is what makes us feel good or bad and this links up to the wider question about the functions of affect.

Frequency of affect

It would seem that the overall evaluation of life is geared by the most salient affective experiences and that these are typically intense affects. This view is common in fiction and is more or less implied in life-reviews. Yet research using the Experience Sampling Method shows that it is rather the relative frequency of positive to negative affect that matters (Diener et. al 1991).

Mood as informant

A competing view is that this occurs automatically and that the balance reflects in mood. In this view mood is an affective meta-signal that, contrary to feelings and emotions, is not linked to specific objects. Emotions denote an affective reaction to something and prepare the organism to a response, while negative mood signals that there may be something wrong and urge to find out what that is.
**Gratification of needs**

Affects are an integral part of our adaptive repertoire and seem to be linked to the gratification of human needs. ‘Needs’ are vital requirements for survival, such as eating, bonding and exercise. Nature seems to have safeguarded the gratification of these needs with affective signals such as hunger, love and zest. In this view positive mood signals that all needs are sufficiently met at the moment. ‘Needs’ in this theory should not be equated with ‘wants’ in the above discussion of cognitive theories. Needs are inborn and universal while ‘wants’ are acquired and can de variable across cultures. Wants can concur more or less with needs.

**Motivation to act**

In this view negative and positive mood function as red and green lights on the human machine, indicating either that there is something wrong or that all systems are functioning properly. If so, this is likely to have behavioral consequences, negative mood urging to cautious and positive mood encouraging going on.

**2.3 THEORETICAL FRAME WORK ON PERSONAL RESILIENCE**

The term resilience stems from Latin word “resiliens” and was originally used to refer to the pliant or elastic quality of a substance (Joseph, 1994). Webster’s New Twentieth Century Dictionary of English Language (1958) defined resilience as “the ability to bounce or spring back after being stretched or constrained or recovering strength or spirit,” and the American Heritage dictionary defined resilience as “the ability to recover quickly from illness, change, or misfortune.” Although resilience remains a familiar word in everyday English language, the term resilience carries different meanings across different contexts.
Webster’s New Twentieth Century Dictionary of English Language (1958) defined resilience as “the ability to bounce or spring back after being stretched or constrained or recovering strength or spirit.” Werner and Smith (1992) explained how resilience has come to describe a person having a good track record of positive adaptation in the face of stress or disruptive change. Their longitudinal studies found that a high percentage of children from an “at risk” background needing intervention still became healthy, competent adults (Werner & Smith, 1992). Werner and Smith (1992) reported that a resilient child is one “who loves well, works well, plays well, and expects well”.

2.3.1 Factors in Resilience

A combination of factors contributes to resilience. Many studies show that the primary factor in resilience is having caring and supportive relationships within and outside the family. Relationships that create love and trust provide role models and offer encouragement and support help to boost a person's resilience.

Several additional factors are associated with resilience, including:

• The capacity to make realistic plans and take steps to carry them out.

• A positive view of yourself and confidence in your strengths and abilities.

• Skills in communication and problem solving.

• The capacity to manage strong feelings and impulses.

All of these are factors that people can develop in them.
2.3.2 Views on Resilience

Modern resilience studies originated among psychologists and psychiatrists. Researchers interested in psychological and social determinants of health picked up the concept and have gradually extended its use from the domain of mental health to health in general. Early work on resilience was concerned with the individual, but more recently researchers have become interested in resilience as a feature of whole communities. There is some variation in the use of the term resilience. Among psychologists, Werner (1995) referred to three general usages: good developmental outcomes despite high risk status; sustained competence under stress; and recovery from trauma. The most common definition of resilience in the past few years is: positive adaptation despite adversity (Luthar, 2006).
2.3.3 Two distinct dimensions of resilience

Luthar, (2006) has called resilience a construct with two distinct dimensions.

- Significant adversity
- Positive adaptation.

From this perspective, resilience is never directly measured but is indirectly inferred from evidence of these dimensions.

This idea of a two-part construct is accepted by other researchers (Masten, 2001; Yates et al., 2003; Sroufe et al., 2005). In this view, resilience requires the presence of clear substantial risk or adversity. It is that differentiates resilience from normal or normative development (Luthar and Chichetti, 2000; Rutter, 1999; 2000; 2005).

Rutter defined resilience as relative resistance to psychosocial risk experiences (Rutter, 1999; 2000). This approach focuses on a range of outcomes, not just positive ones; it does not necessary expect that protection lies in positive experience and does not assume that the answer lies in what the individual does about the negative experience at the time (how he or she copes with it). Luthar emphasizes that a child may demonstrate resilience in one domain, but suffer disorder in another domain. For example, she describes children who suffer significant adversity and yet demonstrate academic competence, as measured through a variety of means. Yet some of these children also suffer a variety of psychological and emotional disturbances ranging from anxiety to depression. Hence, resilience in one domain (educational) co-exists in the same child with psychological/emotional disorder (Luthar, 2006). Hunter (1999) conceptualizes resilience in a continuum with two poles: less optimum resilience and optimum resilience. Less optimum resilience includes “survival tactics of violence, high risk behaviors, and social and emotional
withdrawal” (Hunter, 1999). Hunter’s main point is that adolescents who display this kind of resilience often are maladapted as adults.

Norm Garmezy was one of the most important pioneers in the conceptualization and study of resilience from the early 1970s onward (Garmezy, 1974, 1985). Several features made his approach distinctive.

2.3.4 Types of resilience

McGonigal described four types of resilience

- Physical resilience- you are physically resilient if you don’t sit still longer than an hour at a time. You keep moving, especially when you don’t feel like it. I don’t know about you, but as I age, the temptation to sit on the couch or to nurse a pain by not moving is high. A physically resilient person works out the kinks and makes physical activity a priority.


- Emotional resilience-you are emotionally resilient if you engage in regular reflection on things beautiful, fanciful, visionary. Emotional resilience exercises our capability to imagine, dream, plan and create. It fortifies the soul. Emotional resilience allows us to find positive things even when circumstances stay grim.

- Social resilience. When you stay in touch with others socially, you are being socially resilient. Hugs and handshakes stimulate the brain. Having a friend
who you look forward to visiting with and taking the initiative to stay engaged is social resilience.

2.3.5 Psychological Resilience

Psychological resilience refers to an individual's capacity to withstand stressors and not manifest psychology dysfunction, such as mental illness or persistent negative mood. This is the mainstream psychological view of resilience, that is, resilience is defined in terms a person's capacity to avoid psychopathology despite difficult circumstances.

Closely Related Terms for Psychological Resilience

Relevant psychological literature on resilience hasn't always used the term 'resilience' or 'psychological resilience'. Consider searching for material using synonyms or closely related keywords, such as

- Adaptive Coping
- Adversity Quotient
- Emotional Intelligence (Daniel Goleman)
- Hardiness
- Learned Optimism (Martin Seligman)
- Learned Resourcefulness (Rosenbaum)
- Life Orientation
- Resourcefulness
- Self-esteem, Self-concept, Self-confidence, Self-efficacy
- Self-healing personality
2.3.6 Characteristics of Resilient People

- Ability to "bounce back" and "recover from almost anything"
- Have a "where there's a will, there's a way" attitude
- Tendency to see problems as opportunities
- Ability to "hang tough" which things are difficult
- Capacity for seeing small windows of opportunity and making the most of them
- Have deep-rooted faith in a system of meaning
- Have a healthy social support network
- Has the wherewithal to competently handle most different kinds of situations
- Has a wide comfort zone
- Able to recover from experiences in the panic zone or of a traumatic nature

2.3.7 Strategies for Building Resilience

Developing resilience is a personal voyage. People do not all react the same to traumatic and stressful life events. An approach to building resilience that works for one person might not work for another. People use varying strategies to build resilience.
Some variation may reflect cultural differences. A person's culture might have an impact on how he or she communicates feelings and deals with adversity — for example, whether and how a person connects with significant others, including extended family members and community resources. With growing cultural diversity, the public has greater access to a number of different approaches to building resilience. Some or many of the ways to build resilience. They are stated below:

- **Make connections**

  Good relationships with close family members, friends or others are important. Accepting help and support from those who care about you and will listen to you strengthens resilience. Some people find that being active in civic groups, faith-based organizations, or other local groups provides social support and can help with reclaiming hope. Assisting others in their time of need also can benefit the helper.

- **Avoid seeing crises as insurmountable problems**

  Cannot change the fact that highly stressful events happen, but you can change how you interpret and respond to these events. Try looking beyond the present to how future circumstances may be a little better. Note any subtle ways in which you might already feel somewhat better as you deal with difficult situations.

- **Accept that change is a part of living**

  Certain goals may no longer be attainable as a result of adverse situations. Accepting circumstances that cannot be changed can help you focus on circumstances that you can alter.
• **Move toward your goals**

  Develop some realistic goals. Do something regularly — even if it seems like a small accomplishment — that enables you to move toward your goals. Instead of focusing on tasks that seem unachievable, ask yourself, "What's one thing I know I can accomplish today that helps me move in the direction I want to go?"

• **Take decisive actions**

  Act on adverse situations as much as you can. Take decisive actions, rather than detaching completely from problems and stresses and wishing they would just go away.

• **Look for opportunities for self-discovery**

  People often learn something about themselves and may find that they have grown in some respect as a result of their struggle with loss. Many people who have experienced tragedies and hardship have reported better relationships, greater sense of strength even while feeling vulnerable, increased sense of self-worth, a more developed spirituality and heightened appreciation for life.

• **Nurture a positive view of yourself**

  Developing confidence in your ability to solve problems and trusting your instincts helps build resilience.

• **Keep things in perspective**

  Even when facing very painful events, try to consider the stressful situation in a broader context and keep a long-term perspective. Avoid blowing the event out of proportion.
• **Maintain a hopeful outlook**

An optimistic outlook enables you to expect that good things will happen in your life. Try visualizing what you want, rather than worrying about what you fear.

• **Take care of yourself**

Pay attention to your own needs and feelings. Engage in activities that you enjoy and find relaxing. Exercise regularly. Taking care of yourself helps to keep your mind and body primed to deal with situations that require resilience.

• **Additional ways of strengthening resilience may be helpful**

For example, some people write about their deepest thoughts and feelings related to trauma or other stressful events in their life. Meditation and spiritual practices help some people build connections and restore hope.

Being resilient does not mean that a person doesn't experience difficulty or distress. Emotional pain and sadness are common in people who have suffered major adversity or trauma in their lives. In fact, the road to resilience is likely to involve considerable emotional distress. Resilience is not a trait that people either have or do not have. It involves behaviors, thoughts and actions that can be learned and developed in anyone.

**2.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON TIME MANAGEMENT**

Time management, a major issue among university students, affects how they view and use the time available to them and how they adjust to their academic responsibilities (Bonhomme, 2007). Sansgiry et al. (2006) defined time management for students as “clusters of behavioral skills that are important in the organization of study and course load.” This is a process that is constantly changing and must be kept
under control by each individual (Hackworth, 2007). Time management is often defined as a product of organizing skills, however the same processes may not be applicable to everyone in the same way (Macan et al., 2010). Therefore, what works for one particular person might not work for another (Sarp et al., 2005). Culture and personality may also influence the temporal perception of each individual (Nonis et al., 2005). In addition, the time available to each individual for attending to a range of requirements varies according to the abilities and capability limitations of each person (Nandhakumar & Jones, 2001).

Time management is a process phenomenon and many different factors can have either facilitating or preventive effects on it.

2.4.1 Ways to Improve Time Management Skills

Charting the progress

Consider how time can be spent. Keep a log for a week and to find out how much time to spend working at school, at home, on travelling, sleeping, doing chores at home.

Work smarter, not harder

Don’t try to keep things in the head – there’s too much to handle. Use Post-it notes, diary or a school planner to make lists of what needs to be done. It’s too easy to be vague – what really need are specific tasks that one can tick off with a sense of achievement.

Draw on the wisdom of others

Write an action plan that includes all the ways that intend to save time on tasks and how can make use of induction time for best advantage. Take time to chat to
colleagues about these issues and find out how long they spend on their planning, marking and other aspects of their time management. Try to learn the secret of their success.

**Look after number one**

The first priority must be health and well-being. All function better with good nutrition and rest and yet these are the first things which are neglected under pressure.

Don’t over-commit or offer to do extra work to gain favour. If work without decent breaks, the effectiveness will be diminished. Keep an eye on typical signs of stress – problems with sleep, headaches or eczema for example – and never ignore these crucial signs from the body.

**Delegate Tasks:** It is common for all of us to take more tasks than our desired potential. This can often result in stress and burnout. Delegation is not running away from the responsibilities but is an important function of management. Learn the art of delegating work to the subordinates as per their skills and abilities.

**Prioritize Work:** Before the start of the day, make a list of tasks that need the immediate attention as unimportant tasks can consume much of the precious time. Some tasks need to be completed on that day only while other unimportant tasks could be carried forward to next day. In short, prioritize the tasks to focus on those that are more important.

**Avoid Procrastination:** Procrastination is one of the things that badly affect the productivity. It can result in wasting essential time and energy. It should be avoided at all costs.
Schedule Tasks: Carry a planner or notebook with and list all the tasks that come to the mind. Make a simple ‘To Do’ list before the start of the day, prioritize the tasks, and make sure that they are attainable and to improve the time management skills.

Avoid Stress: Stress often occurs when we accept more work than our ability. The result is that our body starts feeling tired which can affect our productivity. Instead, delegate tasks to juniors and make sure to leave some time for relaxation.

Set up Deadlines: When a task is at hand, set a realistic deadline and stick to it. Try to set a deadline few days before the task so that all those tasks that may get in the way can be completed. Challenge and meet the deadline and give reward for meeting a difficult challenge.

Avoid Multitasking: Most of us feel that multitasking is an efficient way of getting things done but the truth is that we do better when we focus and concentrate on one thing. Multitasking hampers productivity and should be avoided to improve time management skills.

Start Early: Most of the successful men and women have one thing in common. They start their day early as it gives them time to sit, think, and plan their day. As the day progresses, the energy levels starts going down which affects the productivity.

Take Some Breaks: Take a break for 10-15 minutes whenever possible. Too much stress can take toll on the body and affect the productivity. Take a walk, listen to some music or do some quick stretches. The best idea is to take off from work and spend time with friends and family.
Learn to say No: Politely refuse to accept additional tasks.

- **Keeping a to-do List**

**Advantages of using a to do list**

- Focuses the mind on important objectives
- Less likely to forget to do tasks
- Writing a list helps order the thoughts
- It helps show the bigger picture
- No need to hold everything in the head.
- It saves time
- It helps to decide on priorities: the most important and the most urgent
- Less likely to become sidetracked
- Get the reward of ticking off the achievements
- Feel more in control
- Have a record of the tasks completed.

Possible areas for cutting down teacher trainees workload include administration, lesson planning, marking, making resources and worksheets and classroom displays. But how, here are some tips:

- Get the priorities right
- Don’t be overly perfectionist – accept that some things are ‘good enough’
- Avoid stressful people and those who waste time
- Set realistic targets
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- Fit work around energy high and lows.
- Set boundaries to tasks – of quality, quantity and time
- Build in rewards

Stay on Track with the Goals

To create a number of time management goals is good, but it is also important to see that when you are faced with challenges. Start by specifying the goals that would like to accomplish and break them down into smaller tasks to make time management easier.

Get Enough Sleep: Although it is tempting to work long hours, in the end actually less efficient when tired.

Stay Healthy: The care and attention is an important investment of time. Scheduling time to relax, or do nothing, can help you rejuvenate both physically and mentally, enabling to accomplish tasks more quickly and easily. Learn to manage time according to biological clock by scheduling priority tasks during the peak time of day, the time the energy level and concentration are at their best. Poor time management can result in fatigue, moodiness, and more frequent illness.

2.4.2 Theory Related to Time Management

The pickle jar theory by Wright

The Jar Time management theories have come and gone, the theory that was recently taught in a Leadership course enduring is called the Pickle Jar Theory. The Theory Imagine if you will an, or for those crafty people among you just go get an, empty pickle jar – A big pickle jar. One that could fit at least three of the largest pickles you’ve ever imagined inside of it. For those who don’t like pickles now, put
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2.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON SOCIAL COMPETENCE

Young children face a vast and increasing array of challenges as they attempt to develop prosocial competencies and a conciliatory, nonviolent approach to life. Social competence refers to a child’s ability to get along with and relate to others. For young children, social skills include learning to be a friend, to negotiate personal needs and deal with difficulties, to be assertive without being aggressive and to relate effectively with adults and peers (Linke, 2011). Being socially competent involves many elements, including the ability to regulate emotions, developing knowledge and experience of social interactions and understanding social situations and customs (Katz & McClellan, 1997). Social Competence: The ability to make use of environmental and personal resources to achieve a desired social outcome (Hussong et al., 2005).

Protective factors for building social competence include having nurturing, supportive and secure relationships with adults and having the opportunity to develop...
effective personal skills, such as problem-solving, social skills and recognising and managing feelings effectively (Hunter Institute of Mental Health, 2014, p.17).

2.5.1 Strategies to support children’s social competence

- gradually reducing their level of support in tasks over time to help children to learn independently
- talking children through activities, using questions and praising their efforts to help children become engaged in their learning and routines
- encouraging children to enjoy learning
- asking groups of children to volunteer for a particular job
- having conversations with children about how to act at certain times, places and settings
- encouraging children to talk with others about what they are doing to promote their learning and development
- using nonverbal directions, eye contact and appropriate gestures as cues for a child that may need help to regulate their feelings and behavior
- modelling self-regulation behaviours for children
- providing repeated experiences so that children can see how their actions affect their world and the people in it, and see themselves as capable, competent and having control.

Dodge (1985) pointed out that there are nearly as many definitions of social competence as there are researchers in the field. Likewise, Ladd (2005) outlined the century-long academic history of research on social competence and also noted its
numerous conceptualizations. Social competence has been viewed as a multifaceted construct involving social assertion, frequency of interaction, positive self-concept, social cognitive skills, popularity with peers, and the list goes on and on (Dodge, 1985).

2.5.2 Theories of Social Competence

The Top-Down to the Bottom-Up:

By “top-down approaches to social competence,” it means specific practices in which researchers first identify behaviors and components of relationship functioning that they believe to be ‘‘socially competent’’ and then search for commonalities among their indices. Thus, from a top-down system, the nature of social competence itself refers to the similarities of the a priori defined indices. The practice of first defining outward manifestations of social competence before defining the actual construct creates difficulties in generating theories or root causes of social competence. Much of our academic energy has been devoted to exploring a top-down approach to social competence in which we analyze and delineate the different manifestations of social competence (e.g., by identifying behaviors that we believe to be socially competent or those that are socially appealing or virtuous) and then search for common underpinnings.

A top-down approach

Social competence would involve gazing at the leaves of the tree (i.e., the manifestations of social competence) and attempting to aggregate them all together to find the common branch. As we will soon illustrate, the practice of analyzing ‘‘leaves’’ soon becomes a value-laden process in which virtuous and morally infused behaviors are deemed socially competent. Conversely, a bottom-up approach is one in
which researchers focus on underlying roots of behaviors, thereby allowing multiple pathways to lead to competence (and not only those that involve behavioral profiles that conform to a top-down, value

**Bottom-up approaches to social competence**

First consider the nature of the organism interacting in its environment. In essence, social competence refers to the ability of an individual to thrive in his or her social environment. SDT and attachment theory can both be considered bottom-up approaches because they address foundational, innate human needs as the primary drive for competence and strategies for attaining these human needs (i.e., manifestations of competence) only secondarily. Bowlby first identified the functions of behaviors and then attended to the forms of those behaviors. For example, though gazing and tantrum throwing involve dissimilar actions and appearances (i.e., forms), they share the same function – both are means to gain attention from caretakers and thus to satisfy relatedness needs. A bottom-up approach might consider both crying and gazing as effective strategies for satisfying needs. From a top-down approach, however, non-evolutionary researchers may only consider gazing to be an appropriate means of need satisfaction because it is the most pleasing method.-laden approach).

**Effective Goal Attainment and Balancing the Self and Other**

Several developmental approaches to social competence recognize that children have differing goals, and meeting these goals in the social group gives rise to transactional challenges in the social group. Rose-Krasnor’s (1997) “Social Competence Prism” hierarchically organizes several facets of social competence (social skills, sociometric status, relationships, and functional outcomes) by broadly defining competence as “effectiveness in interaction” with explicit consideration of
children’s motivations and goals in the social arena. Goal-oriented approaches suggest that one is effective to the degree that one successfully balances the goals of self and other (Bost, Vaughn, Washington, Cielinski, & Bradbard, 1998; Rubin & Rose-Krasnor, 1992; Weinstein, 1969). These models consider the importance of the self in that they incorporate aspects of social functioning (such as perspective taking and conflict negotiation) in judging effectiveness in interaction. In effect, according to these models, goals related to the self are important to the extent that individuals are not subordinate to the group.

**Resource Control Theory**

This theory focuses first on individual adaptation to local circumstances, and group response as a secondary outcome of that adaptation process. Resource control in general refers to the extent to which individuals successfully access social, informational, or material resources. This definition includes access to and attention from high status others (social), objects denoting status (material), and valuable information regarding work, school projects, or events (informational; Hawley, 1999; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003).

**Resource control strategies.**

According to resource control theory, there are two primary classes of strategy that can be employed to access resources.

- **Coercive strategies**

  Are those represented well in the primate literature and include behaviors that are viewed negatively by others such as threats, aggression, and manipulation.
(i.e., instrumental aggression). Setting the present theory apart from other theories of social dominance (Bernstein, 1981).

- **Prosocial strategies**

These are resource control, or behaviors that access resources via socially acceptable means such as cooperation or reciprocation. These strategies are those that are viewed positively by the group because they are consistent with accepted norms of behavior and tend to build interpersonal bonds. In contrast, coercive strategies tend to be viewed negatively by others because they generally operate outside of accepted norms and they are assumed to break bonds with others. As we will explore later, this latter assumption may be an oversimplification and the use of coercive strategies under some conditions may actually enhance one’s interpersonal reputation and interconnections within the social network.

Social competence itself, however, remains a nebulous concept in the developmental literature, particularly in the peer relations field. Whereas numerous studies outline the components, indices, and correlates of social competence, little headway has been made in generating a unified theory of social competence. Rather than emphasizing actual differences among group members in the extent to which they are well-liked by the peer group at large, social prominence reflects differences among individuals in the extent to which they have a reputation in the group for being a member of the popular elite, emulated, “‘cool,’” or socially central and powerful (Cillessen & Rose, 2005; Rodkin, Farmer, Pearl, & Van Acker, 2006). Because of the power and distinction associated with a high positioning in the peer group, most adolescents, in particular, desire membership in the subgroups with the highest power,
visibility, or influence in the larger peer group (Hawley, 1999; Parkhurst & Hopmeyer, 1998).

Dishion, Patterson, and Griesler (1994) refer to this process as ‘‘shopping’’ for status. The practice of seeking out high status peers begins long before adolescence, however. Even kindergarten age children are acutely cognizant of the existing pecking order in their social environments and report feeling more anxiety associated with status and peer relations than with school entry and academic performance (Ladd, 1990; see also Hawley & Little, 1999 for power manifestation in the preschool years). Though social prominence may be the most salient index of status for children and adolescents (Duncan, 2004), many peer relations researchers consider social preference and acceptance to be better indices of social competence because of the emphasis on affiliation over competition or deviance (Cairns & Cairns, 1994; Rose-Krasnor, 1997).

In the conceptualization of social competence, it is believed that the socially competent individual will have satisfied or met all three of these needs within the context of social interactions (see also Buhrmester, 1996). Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic Motivation According to SDT, individuals are differentially driven to achieve their needs or goals. To this end, goals are optimally pursued when driven by intrinsic motives (energized by personal interests and internalized values). External inducement or control can undermine pleasurable goal pursuit and concomitant positive outcomes (Frodi, Bridges, & Grolnick, 1985).

In essence, social competence refers to the ability of an individual to thrive in his or her social environment. With focus on such outward indices of ‘‘competence’’ such as friendship quality, popularity, social skills, and information processing,
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researchers risk becoming entangled in the proximate manifestations of social competence instead of exploring the foundations of competence. In contrast, a bottom-up approach strips social competence from a moral framework and instead explores competence as goal attainment, thereby considering multiple strategies as effective avenues to social competence.

2.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON INSTITUTIONAL CLIMATE

The climate is a relatively enduring quality of the institution which is experienced by its members; it has an effect on their behavior, and how the institution functions. Institutional Climate bears a significant relationship with student achievement, academic motivation, wellbeing and the ability for institutions to sustain reform.

2.6.1 Understanding Institutional Climate

Institutional climate is mainly concerned to the impressions, beliefs, and potential held by members of the institution about their institutions as a learning environment, their related behavior, and the symbols and institutions that represent the patterned expressions of the behavior. The positive Institutional climate requires the shared credit and dedication of the members of the Institution like the student learner, the school administration, and the need for a proficient and caring teachers who share common goals with students, parents, and the community.

A positive Institutional climate includes an identifiable, open and nurturing Institutional culture that attempts to encourage a sense of responsibility and efficacy among students and teachers and principal. There is joint interaction and collaboration among administrators, teachers, students, parents, and the community. Positive
institutional climate provides an atmosphere of conscious commitment to foster the well-being, academic achievement, resilient and civic development of the learners.

2.6.2 Factors affecting institutional climate

A variety of factors contribute to the establishment of an Institutional climate. They are,

- **External factors** - public policies (of state government, district, and possibly local government), and the history of the institution, its culture, administrative systems, characteristics of the teaching faculties, and the learners.

- **Characteristics of institution** – characteristics include the physical structure of a building and classroom of the institution, instructional materials and the interactions between students and teachers.

2.6.3 Definitions of Institutional Climate

Taguiri and Litwin (1968) suggested that Climate of an institution has been defined as the “relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an institution that a) is experienced by its members, b) influences their behavior, and c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attitudes) of the organization.”

Ekvall (1987) states that the organizational climate arises in the confrontation between individuals and the organizational situation. Jones (1974) say that the organizational climate can be viewed in two different ways: “a multiple-measurement-organizational attribute approach” or “a perceptual measurements-organizational attribute approach.” This is also the case in the treatment of organizational climate dimensions presented in Stringer (1968) where climate in an
institution is measured along the following dimensions: structure, responsibility, warmth, support, reward, conflict, standards, identity, and risk. Poole (1985) states that climate seems to be a feature of, rather than a substitute for culture. Jones (1974) summarizes the climate to be a set of summary or global perceptions held by individuals about their institutional environment. The institutional climate is a summary feeling about actual events based upon the interaction between actual events and the perception of those events. The climate has been measured using dimensions such as disengagement, hindrance, esprit, intimacy, aloofness, production emphasis, trust, and consideration.

Koys and DeCotiis (1991) define the institutional climate as “an experimental-based, multidimensional, and enduring perceptual phenomenon which is widely shared by the members of a given organizational unit.” They state that the climate is the description—and not the evaluation—of experience. As such, the institutional climate is different from evaluations, e.g. job satisfaction.”

Clearly, Institutional climate is multi-dimensional and influences many individuals, including students, parents, school personnel, and the community. Additionally, Institutional climate can significantly impact educational environments, as Freiberg (1998) notes, “Institutional climate can be a positive influence on the health of the learning environment or a significant barrier to learning”.

2.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON ACADEMIC MOTIVATION

Academic motivation is complex, calling for a multivariate approach to measurement based on multiple theories as well as reliance on several validation criteria. A conceptual framework is provided as background for translating motivational theories into measures. Drawing on interest theory, attribution theory,
and a version of expectancy-value theory, three new self-report instruments for assessing academic motivation are introduced.

Motivation refers to reasons that underlie behavior that is characterized by willingness and volition. Intrinsic motivation is animated by personal enjoyment, interest, or pleasure, whereas extrinsic motivation is governed by reinforcement contingencies. Motivation involves a constellation of closely related beliefs, perceptions, values, interests, and actions. Motivation within individuals tends to vary across subject areas, and this domain specificity increases with age. Motivation in children predicts motivation later in life, and the stability of this relationship strengthens with age. Traditionally, educators consider intrinsic motivation to be more desirable and to result in better learning outcomes than extrinsic motivation. In general, children appear to enter school with high levels of intrinsic motivation, although motivation tends to decline as children progress through school. Teachers should create a supportive classroom environment with respect to goal structures, attributions, and external evaluation. There are several challenges to assessing motivation, especially in children.

Motivation refers to “the reasons underlying behavior” (Guay et al., 2010). Paraphrasing Gredler, Broussard and Garrison (2004) broadly define motivation as “the attribute that moves us to do or not to do something”. Intrinsic motivation is motivation that is animated by personal enjoyment, interest, or pleasure. As Deci et al. (1999) observe, “Intrinsic motivation energizes and sustains activities through the spontaneous satisfactions inherent in effective volitional action. It is manifest in behaviors such as play, exploration, and challenge seeking that people often do for external rewards”. Researchers often contrast intrinsic motivation with extrinsic
motivation, which is motivation governed by reinforcement contingencies. Traditionally, educators consider intrinsic motivation to be more desirable and to result in better learning outcomes than extrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999). Motivation involves a constellation of beliefs, perceptions, values, interests, and actions that are all closely related. As a result, various approaches to motivation can focus on cognitive behaviors (such as monitoring and strategy use), non-cognitive aspects (such as perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes), or both. For example, Gottfried (1990) defines academic motivation as “enjoyment of school learning characterized by a mastery orientation; curiosity; persistence; task-endogeny; and the learning of challenging, difficult, and novel tasks”. On the other hand, Turner (1995) considers motivation to be synonymous with cognitive engagement, which he defines as “voluntary uses of high-level self-regulated learning strategies, such as paying attention, connection, planning, and monitoring”. Gottfried (1990) found that motivation in reading predicted later motivation in reading, science, and social studies.

Motivation is also related to achievement and IQ. Research demonstrates a relatively consistent relationship between motivation and achievement in reading and math (Broussard & Garrison, 2004; Gottfried, 1990; Lange & Adler, 1997). Intrinsically motivated first-grade students tend to have higher achievement in these subjects than extrinsically motivated students, and mastery (or intrinsic) motivation predicts reading and math achievement, whereas judgment (or extrinsic) motivation does not. In third grade, both types of motivation predict reading achievement, whereas intrinsic motivation alone predicts math achievement. Moreover, the relationship between motivation and achievement appears to strengthen with age. By age 9, students with high levels of motivation consistently exhibit higher achievement
and class grades than students with low motivation (Broussard & Garrison, 2004). Similarly, Lange and Adler (1997) report that intrinsically motivated students in third grade through fifth grade tend to have higher academic self-efficacy, exhibit higher levels of mastery behavior, and have higher reading and math achievement.

Motivation is related to a number of other academic factors, including several so-called 21st century skills identified as important in preparing students for college, the workforce, and lifelong learning. For example, motivation has been linked to critical thinking. Definitions of critical thinking vary widely, but common elements of most definitions include the following component skills: Researchers have made several recommendations for educators interested in supporting students’ motivation, including the limited use of rewards, using rewards to provide information about competence, increasing student autonomy and choice, using collaborative or cooperative learning methods, and creating a supportive classroom environment with respect to goal motivation structures, attributions, and external evaluation (Deci et al., 1999; Guthrie, 2000; Hidi and Harackiewicz, 2000; Pintrich, 2003; Stipek, 1996; Turner, 1995).

Motivation is probably the most important factor that educators can target in order to improve learning. Student motivation is an essential element that is necessary for quality education. The five key ingredients impacting student motivation are: student, teacher, content, method/process, and environment. Various individual and social factors: Overall academic motivation is affected by various individual and social factors. For example, intrinsic motivation is affected by the reason for preferring the school, the probability of finding a job after graduation, the order of preference, the future expectation, the distinctiveness of testing and measuring
activities at the school, and desire to complete a Masters’ degree. In the simplest terms, it is necessary to be motivated and to make an effort. Extrinsic motivation is significantly affected by the probability of finding a job, the attitude towards the teacher, the peer group, the level of income, the appropriateness of the classrooms, the adequacy of teaching materials, and the number of siblings. The most effective extrinsic motivation is the probability of finding a job. (Celikoz, 2010)

Students who are motivated externally are at a greater risk of performing lower academically than intrinsically motivated students. It is interesting to note that nontraditional students report higher levels of intrinsic motivation than traditional students. (Dean and Dagostino, 2007; Daniels, 2010; Bye, Pushkar, and Conway, 2007; Afzal, et al., 2010)

2.7.1 Types of motivation

• **Intrinsic Motivation**

Intrinsic motivation means that the individual's motivational stimuli are coming from within. The individual has the desire to perform a specific task, because its results are in accordance with his belief system or fulfills a desire and therefore importance is attached to it. Our deep-rooted desires have the highest motivational power. Below are some examples:

• **Acceptance**: We all need to feel that we, as well as our decisions, are accepted by our co-workers.

• **Curiosity**: We all have the desire to be in the know.

• **Honor**: We all need to respect the rules and to be ethical.

• **Independence**: We all need to feel we are unique.
• **Order:** We all need to be organized.

• **Power:** We all have the desire to be able to have influence.

• **Social contact:** We all need to have some social interactions.

• **Social Status:** We all have the desire to feel important.

• **Extrinsic Motivation**

Extrinsic motivation means that the individual's motivational stimuli are coming from outside. In other words, our desires to perform a task are controlled by an outside source. Note that even though the stimuli are coming from outside, the result of performing the task will still be rewarding for the individual performing the task.

Extrinsic motivation is external in nature. The most well-known and the most debated motivation is money. Below are some other examples:

• Employee of the month award

• Benefit package

• Bonuses

• Organized activities

2.7.2 Other types of motivations

• **Power Motivation**

It is the drive to influence people and change situations. Power motivated people wish to create an impact on their organization and are willing to take risks to do so.
- **Attitude Motivation**

  Attitude motivation is how people think and feel. It is their self confidence, their belief in themselves, their attitude to life. It is how they feel about the future and how they react to the past.

- **Incentive Motivation**

  It is where a person or a team reaps a reward from an activity. It is “You do this and you get that”, attitude. It is the types of awards and prizes that drive people to work a little harder.

- **Fear Motivation**

  Fear motivation coercions a person to act against will. It is instantaneous and gets the job done quickly. It is helpful in the short run.

- **Achievement Motivation**

  It is the drive to pursue and attain goals. An individual with achievement motivation wishes to achieve objectives and advance up on the ladder of success. Here, accomplishment is important for its own shake and not for the rewards that accompany it. It is similar to ‘Kaizen’ approach of Japanese Management.

- **Affiliation Motivation**

  It is a drive to relate to people on a social basis. Persons with affiliation motivation perform work better when they are complimented for their favorable attitudes and co-operation.

- **Competence Motivation**

  It is the drive to be good at something, allowing the individual to perform high
quality work. Competence motivated people seek job mastery, take pride in developing and using their problem-solving skills and strive to be creative when confronted with obstacles. They learn from their experience.

Overall, the basic perspective on motivation looks something like this:

![Figure 2.2. The basic perspective on motivation](image)

2.7.3 Theories of Academic Motivation

- Abraham Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs categories is the most famous example:

- Self-Actualization
- Esteem
- Belongingness
- Safety
- Physiological

Specific examples of these types are given below, in both the work and home context. (Some of the instances, like "education" are actually satisfiers of the need.)
Table 2.1

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Need</th>
<th>Home</th>
<th>Job</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>self-actualization</td>
<td>education, religion, hobbies, personal growth</td>
<td>training, advancement, growth, creativity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esteem</td>
<td>approval of family, friends, community</td>
<td>recognition, high status, responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>belongingness</td>
<td>family, friends, clubs</td>
<td>teams, depts, coworkers, clients, supervisors, subordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>safety</td>
<td>freedom from war, poison, violence</td>
<td>work safety, job security, health insurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physiological</td>
<td>food water sex</td>
<td>Heat, air, base salary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Maslow, lower needs take priority. They must be fulfilled before the others are activated. There is some basic common sense here -- it's pointless to worry about whether a given color looks good on you when you are dying of starvation, or being threatened with your life. There are some basic things that take precedence over all else.

**Alderfer's ERG theory**

Alderfer classifies needs into three categories, also ordered hierarchically:

- Growth needs (development of competence and realization of potential)
- Relatedness needs (satisfactory relations with others)
- Existence needs (physical well-being)

This is very similar to Maslow -- can be seen as just collapsing into three tiers. But may be a bit more rational. For example, in Alderfer's model, sex does not need to
be in the bottom category as it is in Maslow's model, since it is not crucial to (the individual's) existence. (Remember, this about individual motivation, not species' survival.) So by moving sex, this theory does not predict that people have to have sex before they can think about going to school, like Maslow's theory does.

Alderfer believed that as one starts satisfying higher needs, he becomes more intense like an addiction.

- Not everyone is motivated by the same things. It depends where one is in the hierarchy.
- The needs hierarchy probably mirrors the organizational hierarchy to a certain extent: top managers are more likely to motivated by self-actualization/growth needs than existence needs.

**Acquired Needs Theory (McClellan)**

Some needs are acquired as a result of life experiences

- Need for achievement, accomplish something difficult. As kids encouraged to do things for themselves.
- Need for affiliation, form close personal relationships. As kids rewarded for making friends.
- Need for power, control others. As kids, able to get what they want through controlling others.

These needs can be measured using the TAT (Thematic Apperception Test), which is a projection-style test based on interpreting stories that people tell about a set of pictures.
Cognitive Evaluation Theory

This theory suggests that there are actually two motivation systems: intrinsic and extrinsic that corresponds to two kinds of motivators:

- **Intrinsic motivators**: Achievement, responsibility and competence. Motivators that come from the actual performance of the task or job -- the intrinsic interest of the work.

- **Extrinsic**: pay, promotion, feedback, working conditions -- things that come from a person's environment, controlled by others.

Intrinsically motivated individuals perform for their own achievement and satisfaction. If they come to believe that they are doing some job because of the pay or the working conditions or some other extrinsic reason, they begin to lose motivation.

The belief is that the presence of powerful extrinsic motivators can actually reduce a person's intrinsic motivation, particularly if the extrinsic motivators are perceived by the person to be controlled by people. In other words, a boss who is always dangling this reward or that stick will turn off the intrinsically motivated people.

Two Factor Theory (Herzberg)

According to Herzberg, two kinds of factors affect motivation, and they do it in different ways:

- **Hygiene factors**: These are factors whose absence motivates, but whose presence has no perceived effect. They are things that when you take them away, people become dissatisfied and act to get them back. A very good
example is heroin to a heroin addict. Long term addicts do not shoot up to get high; they shoot up to stop being sick -- to get normal. Other examples include decent working conditions, security, pay, benefits (like health insurance), company policies, interpersonal relationships. In general, these are extrinsic items low in the Maslow/Alderfer hierarchy.

- **Motivators.** These are factors whose presence motivates. Their absence does not cause any particular dissatisfaction, it just fails to motivate. Examples are all the things at the top of the Maslow hierarchy, and the intrinsic motivators.

So hygiene factors determine dissatisfaction, and motivators determine satisfaction. The two scales are independent, and you can be high on both.

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**Equity Theory**

Equity theory says that it is not the actual reward that motivates, but the perception, and the perception is based not on the reward in isolation, but in comparison with the efforts that went into getting it, and the rewards and efforts of others. In other words, people's motivation results from a ratio of ratios: a person compares the ratio of reward to effort with the comparable ratio of reward to effort that they think others are getting. Of course, in terms of actually predicting how a person will react to a given motivator, this will get pretty complicated:

1. People do not have complete information about how others are rewarded. So they are going on perceptions, rumors, and inferences.
2. Some people are more sensitive to equity issues than others
3. Some people are willing to ignore short-term inequities as long as they expect things to work out in the long-term.
Reinforcement Theory

Operant Conditioning is the term used by B.F. Skinner to describe the effects of the consequences of a particular behavior on the future occurrence of that behavior. There are four types of Operant Conditioning: Positive Reinforcement, Negative Reinforcement, Punishment, and Extinction. Both Positive and Negative Reinforcement strengthen behavior while both Punishment and Extinction weaken behavior.

- **Positive reinforcement.** Strengthening a behavior. This is the process of getting goodies as a consequence of a behavior.
- **Negative reinforcement.** Strengthening a behavior. This is the process of having a stressor taken away as a consequence of a behavior.
- **Extinction.** Weakening a behavior. This is the process of getting no rewards when do a behavior.
- **Punishment.** Weakening a behavior. This is the process of getting a punishment as a consequence of a behavior. Example: having your pay docked for lateness.

**Reinforcement schedules.**

The traditional reinforcement schedule is called a continuous reinforcement schedule. Each time the correct behavior is performed it gets reinforced.

Then there is what we call an intermittent reinforcement schedule. There are fixed and variable categories.
The **Fixed Interval Schedule** - where reinforcement is only given after a certain amount of time has elapsed. So, if you decided on a 5 second interval then each reinforcement would occur at the fixed time of every 5 seconds.

The **Fixed Ratio Schedule** - where the reinforcement is given only after a predetermined number of responses. This is often seen in behavior chains where a number of behaviors have to occur for reinforcement to occur.

The **Variable Interval Schedule** - where the reinforcement is given after varying amounts of time between each reinforcement.

The **Variable Ratio Schedule** - where the reinforcement is given after a varying number of correct responses.

Fluctuating combinations of primary and secondary reinforcers fall under other terms in the variable ratio schedule.

**Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory:**

Herzberg has tried to modify Maslow’s need Hierarchy theory. His theory is also known as two-factor theory or Hygiene theory. He stated that there are certain satisfiers and dissatisfiers for employees at work. Intrinsic factors are related to job satisfaction, while extrinsic factors are associated with dissatisfaction. He devised his theory on the question: “What do people want from their jobs?” He asked people to describe in detail, such situations when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad. From the responses that he received, he concluded that opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction. Removing dissatisfying characteristics from a job does not necessarily make the job satisfying. He states that presence of certain factors in the organization is natural and the presence of the same does not lead to motivation.
However, their non-presence leads to demotivation. In similar manner there are certain factors, the absence of which causes no dissatisfaction, but their presence has motivational impact.

Figure 2.3. Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory

Examples of Hygiene factors are:

Security, status, relationship with subordinates, personal life, salary, work conditions, relationship with supervisor and company policy and administration.

Examples of Motivational factors are:

Growth prospectus job advancement, responsibility, challenges, recognition and achievements.
Contributions of Mayo

Mayo is famously known as “Hawthorne Experiments.” He conducted behavioral experiments at the Hawthorne Works of the American Western Electric Company in Chicago. He made some illumination experiments, introduced breaks in between the work performance and also introduced refreshments during the pauses. On the basis of this he drew the conclusions that motivation was a very complex subject. It was not only about pay, work condition and morale but also included psychological and social factors. Although this research has been criticized from many angles, the central conclusions drawn were:

- People are motivated by more than pay and conditions.
- The need for recognition and a sense of belonging are very important.
- Attitudes towards work are strongly influenced by the group.

Vroom’s Valence x Expectancy theory:

The most widely accepted an explanation of motivation has been propounded by Vroom. His theory is commonly known as expectancy theory. The theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a specific way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual to make this simple, expectancy theory says that an employee can be motivated to perform better when there is a belief that the better performance will lead to good performance appraisal and that this shall result into realization of personal goal in form of some reward. Therefore an employee is:

Motivation = Valence x Expectancy.

The theory focuses on three things:

- Efforts and performance relationship
• Performance and reward relationship

• Rewards and personal goal relationship

This leads us to a conclusion that:

\[
\text{Valence} \times \text{Expectancy}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Motivation} \\
\text{Action} \\
\text{Results} \\
\text{Satisfaction in form of Rewards}
\end{align*}
\]

\textit{Figure 2.4. Valence x Expectancy theory}

\textit{The Porter and Lawler Model:}

Porter and Lawler developed a more complete version of motivation depending upon expectancy theory.

\textit{Figure 2.5. The Porter and Lawler Model}
Actual performance in a job is primarily determined by the effort spent. But it is also affected by the person’s ability to do the job and also by individual’s perception of what the required task is. So performance is the responsible factor that leads to intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards. These rewards, along with the equity of individual leads to satisfaction. Hence, satisfaction of the individual depends upon the fairness of the reward.

2.7.1 Tips for improving student contributions to motivation

Senge et al., (1994); Lengnick-Hall and Sanders, (1997) give some tips for improving student contributions to motivation as listed below.

• **Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation:**

  Typical students bring varying degrees of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to the learning arena. Intrinsic motivational factors found to be at work with most students include involvement (the desire to be involved), curiosity (find out more about their interests), challenge (figuring out the complexity of a topic), and social interaction (creating social bonds).

  Extrinsic motivational factors include compliance (to meet another’s expectation, to do what one is told); recognition (to be publicly acknowledged); competition; and work avoidance (avoid more work than necessary). Individuals who are motivated intrinsically tend to develop high regard for learning course information without the use of external rewards or reinforcement. On the other hand, individuals who are motivated extrinsically rely solely on rewards and desirable results for their motivation, e.g., tests and GPA. (Lei, 2010) Students who are motivated externally are at a greater risk of performing lower academically than intrinsically motivated students. It is interesting to note that nontraditional students report higher levels of
intrinsic motivation than traditional students. (Dean and Dagostino, 2007; Daniels, 2010; Bye, Pushkar, and Conway, 2007; Afzal, et al., 2010)

• **Various individual and social factors:**

  Overall academic motivation is affected by various individual and social factors. For example, intrinsic motivation is affected by the reason for preferring the school, the probability of finding a job after graduation, the order of preference, the future expectation, the distinctiveness of testing and measuring activities at the school, and desire to complete a Masters’ degree. In the simplest terms, it is necessary to be motivated and to make an effort. Extrinsic motivation is significantly affected by the probability of finding a job, the attitude towards the teacher, the peer group, the level of income, the appropriateness of the classrooms, the adequacy of teaching materials, and the number of siblings. The most effective extrinsic motivation is the probability of finding a job. (Celikoz, 2010)

• **Hierarchy of needs:**

  Regarding lower level needs, if a student is hungry or thirsty, it is more difficult to focus on learning. Also, if the environment is physically, mentally, or emotionally unsafe, then it will be hard for the student to put all of his or her attention on learning. As such, the educator must do what is necessary to support the student to a higher level of need satisfaction so that the student can focus his or her attention on learning. Even at the level of selfactualization, the educator may need to provide encouragement or opportunities. (Maslow, 1943)
• **Perceived well-being:**

Students’ perceptions may be clouded by their perceived well-being, e.g., bad mood, not being able to find parking, or having a disagreement with someone before class. Well-being or life satisfaction is the degree to which a student is content with his or her life including pleasure in daily activities, meaningfulness of life, goodness of fit between desired and achieved goals, mood, self-concept, perceived health, financial security, and social contact. To increase satisfaction with the learning experience and in turn performance, these well-being factors need to be extrapolated into the classroom. That is, factors beyond quality of teaching can affect student satisfaction including student motivation, course level, grade expectations, type of academic field, and workload difficulty. (Duffy and Ketchard, 1998) At the very least, teachers will need to be compassionate and even supportive of the personal life conditions of their students that surface in the process of education.

• **Efficient use of energy and focus:**

Students should be taught how to produce results while maintaining focus and energy. Businesses and organizations certainly focus on getting the right results with the least effort or cost. Hence, educators need to train students to “stalk” efficient and effective results. In another complementary vein pertinent to the “greening” of business and the planet as a whole, each individual ultimately will be required to become a master of focusing on and using skills such as personal energy conservation and regeneration. This theme of efficiency should serve the student in his or her studies as well as in his or her life and global citizenry.
• **Purposeful connection with work:**

Emergent motivation results from connecting with work as a source of self-expression, exploration, and sustained creativity. It is emergent because purpose arises out of the interaction between a student and what he or she perceives as a significant and meaningful context. That is, students discover their own rewards by mastering new challenges and making unique contributions in a significant and meaningful context. To foster emergent motivation, educators need to design variety into a learning system. This variety can overcome extensive individual differences in student inputs and yield uniformly high levels of perceived personal effectiveness, organizational effectiveness, ability to apply course materials, and satisfaction with both course results and the educational process. Also, students become co-producers in the educational system because they are inherently responsible for the learning work that takes place. (Lengnick-Hall and Sanders, 1997)

• **Conscientiousness and achievement:**

Conscientiousness and achievement motivation are positively correlated with GPA. It is suggested that conscientious students may do better because of differences in achievement motivation capacity. As such, achievement motivation assessments and prior academic achievement could help identify students likely to maximize their potential. On the other end of the continuum, it also could alert educators to less conscientious and less achievement oriented students. Then, in turn, educators could provide appropriate attention,

• **Public speaking competence:**

Student motivation has been positively related to public speaking competence, but not to the demonstration of communication knowledge (Carrell, 1997).
fear of public speaking is a prevalent phobia of most people, continued practice in
public speaking will teach students how to face their greatest fears and get over them,
hence, getting over unconscious blocks, rebuilding traits, and enhancing self-concept.
These positive results should make students more confident and motivated.

• **Study time and study habits:**

Students lead very busy lives. As a result, evidence shows that students are
devoting less time to their studies (Higher Education Research Institute, 2003). While
the quantity of time spent studying has an influence on performance, this influence is
moderated by the students’ study habits. Also, the ability to concentrate influences
student performance positively. Having a good set of notes is important, but it still
depends on how study time is used. Ultimately, studying has quantitative aspects as
well as qualitative aspects, that is, amount of time studying and good study habits are
both important. (Nonis and Hudson, 2010)

• **Lecture attendance:**

Lectures are viewed as positively associated with academic performance. They
also are perceived as valuable and interesting learning experiences for students.
Lectures may be seen as only one of an array of student pressures. As a result,
students engage in a constant decision process that involves weighing the benefits
against the costs of attending lectures. Students generally see lectures as optional and
not always as a beneficial or enjoyable part of their college time. Non-attendance may
simply be a coping strategy that signals difficulty in coping with the content,
processes, or schedules associated with formal learning. (Moore, Armstrong, and
Pearson, 2008)
• **Comprehensive, long-range educational plan:**

The development of a long-range educational plan will help students to value education and to make the most of their time in school. This plan also should contribute to their confidence and reduce the fear of the unknown. That is, students who have compiled a long-range plan are less likely to give up when difficulties occur. This plan is even more effective when it is updated continuously and encompasses the transition from education to career. Creating a vision of adulthood and who they want to become is very empowering. This planning process can empower students to see the connection between school and work. Ultimately, it prepares them for a lifetime of productive employment and continual learning. (Dedmond, 2009) Student engagement is a key to academic motivation, persistence, and degree completion. Teachers are competing for the students’ attention, that is, jobs, family, personal activities and interests, use of information and communication technology and so forth. In addition, students almost have a “consumer” attitude about learning; it is another acquisition to purchase rather than a learning process.

• **Know your students and build on their strengths:**

Use the strengths that students bring to the classroom. For example, Gen Y individuals like group activities and want to learn information relevant to their lives and that can make a difference in the world. That is, experiential and service-learning programs could be very effective with this group. The learner-centered classroom is effective with this group in that it requires a shift from teacher-driven and content-centered learning to seeing the classroom as student-centered and process driven. Collaborative learning is effective with Gen Y. Also, it is important to teach students
how to find information and to evaluate the validity of the information. (McGlynn, 2008)

**• Value and build relationship:**

“Relationships are at the heart of teaching since it is an activity based on communication” (MacGrath, 2005). Some of the necessary elements that build and maintain constructive relationship include trust, be on their side, treat everyone with respect all of the time, be in charge and lead them to achievement, work together, and show you can listen and accept what the student says. Empathy can help to build a trusting relationship.

**• Relational turning points:**

Relational turning points between the student and teacher have been found to impact student motivation. A turning point is any event associated with a change in the relationship. Six turning point event types have been found: instrumental, personal, rhetorical, ridicule/discipline, locational, and other person. These relational turning point events can be positive or negative. In general, positive turning points appear to entail acting on students’ interests and needs including providing support and discussing common interests. On the other hand, negative turning points typically involve failing to meet students’ needs or expectations. In particular, positive relational turning points have a positive effect on student motivation. (Docan-Morgan and Manusov, 2009)

**• Enthusiasm:**

When the teacher is more enthusiastic about a topic, then the students will be more inclined to believe that the topic has value for them. That is, teacher enthusiasm
can motivate students. Enthusiasm can be expressed by facial expressions, body language, stating preferences, describing personal experiences or amazing facts, showing collected artifacts, using humor, putting energy into their lesson preparation, and meticulously preparing materials. The teacher also should balance his or her enthusiasm appropriately for the audience. (Palmer, 2007)

• **Timely and relevant to real life:**

  Making the content relevant to real life can increase a student’s motivation. As such, teachers should emphasize the links between real life and school subjects, design assignments, and experiments that use every day. Tasks that are meaningful to the students’ real life motivate them. (Frey and Fisher, 2010)

• **Variety:**

  Variety is very relevant to student motivation. Variety can be brought into the class by including activities wherein the students are physically active with a thinking component. Other forms of variety can be added into the content via dramatizations, model making, and out-of-classroom activities. (Palmer, 2007)

• **Technology and information from the Internet such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and phone apps:**

  Students love the Internet, so give them examples, videos, or demonstrations of topics from Internet sites that are interesting to them. At the very least, this incorporation of technology, the Internet, and phone apps involves using more of the students’ language and experience base. Also, the Internet is a great way to keep up-to-date and to show important current trends and ideas. However, students need to understand how to assess the validity and safety of Internet sites and information.
Whiteboards also can be powerful, interactive technological tools for improving instruction, but instructors need to know how to use them effectively.

- **Create an effective environment:**

  An environment of openness and freedom to learn from our mistakes can foster motivation to learn. Also, the environment can be physical as well as mental, emotional, and even spiritual in some regard. According to Rumsey (1998), when creating an effective environment, educators need to consider the following:

  - Overall approach to material presentation and development,
  - Examples coming before and after detailed discussions of the concepts,
  - The use of engaging classroom activities,
  - In-depth discussions or simulations,
  - The use of good business or organizational problems rather than contrived examples,
  - The use of real-life exercises throughout that are varied in scope and field of application,
  - Using applications relevant to students’ everyday experiences or to their chosen career fields,
  - Creating situations in which the students perceive themselves as academically productive,
  - Fostering positive peer social interaction and exchange,
  - Decreasing peer aggression,
  - Moving from simple to more complex problems,
  - The use of a good solidly written text in a traditional format,
• Incorporation of some modern or future components that concern students, – 
  Motivating by example and by encouraging student discovery,
• Developing positive attitudes,
• Making sure that academic tutoring is available,
• Having voluntary parental and community support and involvement as necessary, and
• Encouraging critical thinking

• **Individual and learning system design differences:**

  According to Lengnick-Hall and Sanders (1997), both individual and learning system design differences influence the learning environment. Students need not participate in establishing the goals as long as they accept the goals as feasible and desirable. When students take charge of their learning, they gain self-esteem and confidence, more choices, higher levels of commitment, and the ability to customize the learning process to best meet their personal needs and learning goals. “Through self-management and self-leadership, students invest their efforts more effectively and efficiently, take ownership of their educational experience, and customize the learning process to reflect their personal interests and competencies.” (Andersen, 2011; Stewart, et al., 2005)

• **Include the study of self-information:**

  Students are intrinsically interested in the study of information about themselves and about their own personal interests. Instructors need to find creative ways of knowing and incorporating self-information into the classroom. (Dargahi-Noubary, 1998)
• **Empowerment:**

Empowerment can contribute positively to the learning environment. Empowerment can mean vested authority or enablement. Before investing authority in a role or person, it is necessary to clarify the student’s mandate and the expectations of his or her performance. Enablement means having the right tools and support when they are needed. (Maccoby, 1999)

• **Engagement and considering student and teacher opinions:**

The learning environment should take into consideration the intrinsic and extrinsic student motivations and the opinions of students and teachers in arranging the environment. Materials, tools, and equipment that are needed in the educational process should be determined, obtained, and modernized so that active learning is promoted. This engagement results in students feeling that their teachers have a special interest in them. Students need to be encouraged to engage and to participate. (Celikoz, 2010; Daniels, 2010; Adkins Coleman, 2010)

• **Teamwork:**

An environment of teamwork can contribute to learning. All teams need four competencies: generate and refine ideas, organize and integrate work, sustain group spirit, and manage boundaries. “Smart teams” are built by having the entire team look at what competencies are needed to be effective.

Farrer and Maurer, (1999) In terms of multicultural diversity in groups, the following should be considered:

- the reasons for taking the course may be different than that perceived by the instructor or other team members,
students may have difficulty in studying or completing assignments due to part
time jobs or attending other courses,

- the instructor should not underestimate how differently people think and feel
from various cultures, and

- Value judgments of purpose and moral standards of behavior may be
important differences.

**Structures:**

Teachers, administrators, and counselors contribute to a positive teaching and
learning environment by putting in place structures that provide an optimal learning
environment for learners. These educational leaders can enhance the development of
an educational experience that encourages students to express their own ideas, freely
participate in discussions, freely compare and contrast ideas, be involved in
discussion, and be able to learn from each other. These structures can lead to
increased student-faculty interaction, elevated student-to-student relations, and the
development of critical thinking skills that in turn affect student motivation and
academic success. (Rugutt and Chemosit, 2009; Louis and Wahlstrom, 2011)
Structural characteristics also may include type of tasks, degree of student autonomy,
and evaluation (Debnath, Tandon, and Pointer, 2007)

**Distance and online learning:**

Instructors are moving increasingly to distance and online learning
environments. Motivating students online can be difficult given content, technology
access and challenges, isolation, poor communication with instructors, English as a
second language, and lack of connection between content and the students’ needs. In
addition, instructors may not be able to show the depth of their knowledge online, and empathy and enthusiasm may be lost in the online environment. On the other hand, assignments can be challenging and have the variety necessary to increase curiosity and creativity. Active and multifaceted projects may be developed that have personal meaning to the students. Distance and online communication should be clear, timely, friendly, and flexible. In the online environment, the acquisition of mastery and improvement could be the primary focus rather than the more traditional focus on test taking and evaluation. Social isolation and depersonalization can be reduced by building a sense of online community. Very importantly, teachers and students should have consistent contact with technical support personnel. Distance and online learning may be as effective as traditional learning in terms of student motivation, attitudes, and achievement. Intrinsic motivation is an important indicator for online students, with many online learners having higher intrinsic motivation. (Beffa-Negrine, Cohen, and Miller, 2002; Zhu, Valcke, and Schellens, 2009; Crank, Ristau, and Rogers, 1999; PR Newswire, 2010).

- Emotionally literate environment:

The more comfortable individuals feel in themselves and with others, the easier it is to concentrate and achieve. Consequently, emotional literacy has a positive impact on achievement, mental health issues, behavior, and workplace effectiveness. Creating an emotionally literate environment includes equipping students with essential life skills and learning behaviors including self-awareness, empathy, managing feelings, motivation, and social skills. These skills can be taught and modeled. In building an emotionally literate environment, the place for the teacher to start is with him or herself. That is, each instructor should get his or her thinking
straight, stand firm, refine communication skills to relate positively and creatively with the students, develop positive regard toward self and others, and develop a support network for oneself and a supportive lifestyle. (MacGrath, 2005; Lammers and Smith, 2008; Wighting, Liu, and Rovai, 2008).

2.8 CONCLUSION

The theoretical overview presented in the study focuses to the theoretical background of the certain psycho-social and academic variables selected for the present investigation. The investigator tried to find different aspects and views of happiness, personal resilience, time management, social competence, institutional climate and academic motivation. These theoretical backgrounds helped the investigator to understand more about the area of study and to get a proper direction to carry out the study.