Chapter I
Introduction
Communication is so much a part of human beings that people somehow take it for granted. Usual as well as casual talk is taken to be as communication. But to understand the complex nature of communication, we can’t take it for granted even as a layman. To understand human communication, we have to study the human behaviour in the intrinsic sense. If we penetrate deeply into the nature of a person’s ability to communicate within himself, with others, within institutions, or across cultures, we find that it is this ability that makes him human. This ability of a person goes on improving with his drive to survive and to move from one place to another.

In the process of making or conveying things clear to others and giving meaning to events, objects and behavioural pattern, a person consciously or unconsciously develops different ways either in the verbal or written form. These ways reflects his attitudes, positive or negative. And these attitudes bring a social experience for him. By knowing others as well as letting others to know about oneself, these efforts make an individual aware about considering the importance of communication, as all social behaviours either directly or indirectly are revolving around human communication.

A teacher, who says that communication is not of my concern, doesn’t understand his/her responsibility as a teacher. But, there must be a realization of the fact that nothing is effectively taught and learned in any course of study without effective communication on the part of teacher and learning on the part of students. Communication so understood is not commonly found in school classrooms especially in India where teachers generally assume on their part that some of their students will receive the matter. Classroom communication, therefore, involves not only the unilateral presentation by the teacher of new words or new facts or new ideas, it also requires the inter-communication between students and teachers, a mutual sharing of experiences, a continual feedback process of reciprocal response adjustments.
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COMMUNICATION

To understand the other individual, his surrounding environment and the most important aspect (which even now has not been explored fully) was to explain his inner world’s mysteries. So, man hesitantly started to develop his own language from the sounds, which he can understand with common ease. But this process made it difficult for man to grow in communication, as countless tribes and tribal groups didn’t have the common language and the process continues, till now, inevitably though slowly, towards a common world language. As language arouse from the need to abstract upon events and experience, so was the writing. It makes word-signs last longer than the fleeting sound signs.

The past, when it was written down, became the information source to be preserved. The rate of change in the style and form of human communication from language to writing, from writing to printing, from printing to films and broadcasting continues to computers, Internet etc. Thus, the full significance of acts of communication is seldom on the surface. Every act of communication or every communicator and receiver, has an individual set of purposes and reasons. A tiny communication may have an enormous effect. Studying communication behaviour is like studying the sea. It may be done at any level and beyond a certain depth must lead to another Universe of Research. The mobility and expressiveness of the human face is one of the remarkable things about human communication.

It is through communication that members of a group learn to understand one another and to influence, or be influenced by, each other. Yet, communication is not just a matter of expressing ideas clearly. Often the non-verbal part of communication is the most eloquent. A great deal is revealed about what a person is really thinking and feeling by their facial expression, postures and gestures.

Communication comes from the Latin word Communis common.

According to Floyde Brooker (1949) “...anything that conveys meaning, that carries a message from one person to another, is communication.” For Shannon and Weaver (1949) the word communication in a very broad sense includes all of the procedures by which one mind may affect another. This, of course, involves not only
written and oral speech, but also music, the pictorial arts, the theatre, the ballet, and in fact all human behaviour.

*Schramm, Wilbur (1954)* looked at it as an effort where we are trying to establish a *commoner* with someone. That is we are trying to share information, an idea, or an attitude. The essence of communication is getting the receiver and the sender *turned together for a particular message.*

When this relationship works well, it results in a kind of *in-tuneness* that is one of the remarkable experiences of man. When it works poorly, it results in misunderstanding, sometimes in hostility, and often in behaviour different from what was intended.

*Devito, J.A. (1978)*, communication refers to the act, by one or more persons, of sending and receiving messages, which can be distorted by noise, within a context, with some effect and with some opportunity for feedback.

*Thayer (1979)* pointed out that communication is not like an information processing theory because people are not passive processors of information as the one-way flow model implies. People interact with the environment; they can change their perceptions of it with respect to thoughts, beliefs and goals.

*Yadava, J.S. and Vinayshi Gautam (1980)* defined communication as deeply rooted in ideas and the myriad ways in which man expresses his thoughts in speech, in rites and rituals; through the medium of music, dance and drama; through folk arts and crafts.

According to *Cronkhite (1986)* communication includes all instances of symbolic thought, which comes in the human mind.

For *Shedletsky (1989)* communication is a symbolic, active, complex behaviour while *Motley (1990)* argued that not all behaviour is communication behaviour.

The *Oxford English Dictionary (1989)* defines communication as the imparting, conveying, or exchange of ideas, knowledge, information etc. (whether by speech, writing or signs).
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According to Finnerty (1991), communication and language are different. Language helps one to communicate and enables the mind to compress and efficiently manage thoughts, and then it serves as a vehicle to transport those thoughts out of the mind and into the world. Communication is a broader concept than language. The purpose of language is to provide one of the essential elements needed for communication, but communication is the goal. Language is a vehicle and communication is the destination.

Gergen (1991) argued that the people have ideas, formed in the mind, which are then conveyed to others by a process of communication.

Mohanty (1992) defined communication as the art of transmitting information, ideas and attitudes from one person to another. It is a need for a human being to communicate with his fellow beings. It is a primal urge and in the modern civilization a necessary for survival.

In Encyclopaedic Dictionary of Sociology (1992), communication is a social process involving an emitter (someone conveying a message of some kind), the message (verbal or non-verbal), a channel through which message is conveyed, and a receiver. The source and the receiver may be more or less skillful in translating the message into appropriate codes (at encoding and decoding).

In The Encyclopedia Americana International (1995), communication in its most general sense is a chain of events in which the significant link is a message. The chain connects a source that originates and a destination that interprets the message. The process also involves the production, transmission, and reception of messages. In its broadest humanizing sense, communication is a source and extension of imagination in forms that can be learned and shared. It is the production, perception, and understanding of messages that bear man's notion of what is right, and what is related to something else. Messages are events that signify other events. The significance of these messages stems from form, pattern or structure rather than from other causally or naturally determined connections with other events. Messages are formally coded, symbolic, or representational patterns of some significance in a culture. Culture itself may be broadly conceived as any system in which messages cultivate and regulate relationships. In
human culture, and in the conduct of man’s life and society, communication plays its most complex and distinctive part.

Human communication is a subtle and ingenious set of processes. It is always thick with a thousand ingredients, signals, codes, and meanings – no matter how simple the message or the transaction. Human communication is an ever-present set of processes. Whenever people interact, they communicate. To live in societies and to maintain their culture they have to communicate.

According to NTC’s Mass Media Dictionary (1996), communication is the use of language and non-verbal signs to establish social interaction.

When seen from the perspective of an organization Thill and Bovee (1999) said good communication skills are vital because every member of an organization is a link in the information chain. The flow of information along that chain is a steady stream of messages, whether from inside the organization (staff meetings, progress reports, proposals, research results, employee surveys and persuasive interviews) or from outside the organization (loan applications, purchasing agreements, help-wanted ads, distribution contracts, product advertisements and sales calls).

Sethi and Michigan (2000) opined that communication starts with the need to convey a message from one person to another or to an establishment. It accomplishes the task of sending, receiving and acting communication, if not done by using words judiciously, can cause misunderstandings.

For Clampitt, P.G. (2001) communication can be viewed as uncertainty reduction, in which the possibilities of one interpretation increased and others decreased. Context is the major implicit modifier of the probabilities.

In the words of Adler and Rodman (2003) communication refers to the process of human beings responding to the symbolic behaviour of other persons.

Sharma et al (2005) stressed that communication is the link between ideas and actions. It is the process that generates profit. It is the emotional glue that binds human together in relationships, personal and professional.
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According to Srinivasan, T.M. (2005) communication is all about what kinds of stimuli tend to lead to what kind of responses, for example, attention, perception, learning, and concept formation.

PROPOSITIONS OF COMMUNICATION

Since we cannot explain our own internal programming to others, and if we could do it for one set of circumstances, there is no guarantee that it would remain the same for others. In order to remain fully aware of the complexity of human communication, it is important to remember three propositions:

- Each person’s mind is unique in content and only partly similar in its rules of operation to another mind.
- Whatever goes on in one mind is logical and reasonable to one at the time, despite the fact that it may not look logical and reasonable to anyone else and that it might even seem foolish and defeating to one after he/she behaves.
- Every communication behaviour affects the person who perceives it and influences his next behaviour. Thus, communication is a dynamic process of relationship.

BASIC ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication always requires at least three elements

- the source,
- the message, and
- the destination.

A source may be an individual (speaking, writing, drawing, gesturing) or a communication organization (like a newspaper, publishing house, television station).

The message may be in the form of ink on paper, sound waves in the air, impulses in an electric current, a wave of the hand, or any other signal capable of being interpreted meaningfully.
The destination may be an individual group, a lecture audience, a football crowd, or a mob, or an individual member of the particular group we call the mass audience, such as the reader of a newspaper or a viewer of television.

COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

Shannon and Weaver (1949) emphasized that the fundamental problem of communication is that of reproducing at one point either exactly or approximately a message selected at another point. These messages can be (a) consciously (b) unconsciously, and (c) spontaneously delivered as shown in Fig. 1.1.

![Fig.1.1: Types of delivering Messages.](image)

The number of message can be finite or infinite as shown in Fig. 1.2.

![Fig.1.2: Number of Messages.](image)

By a communication system, Shannon and Weaver (1949) means a system of the type indicated schematically in Figure 1.3.
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The communication system consists of essentially six parts.

1. An Information Source.

An information source is a source, which produces a message or sequence of messages (after selecting a desired message out of a set of possible messages) to be communicated to the receiving terminal. The word *information* in communication theory relates not so much to what you say, as to what you could say. That is, *information* is a measure of one’s freedom of choice when one selects a message. The concept of information applies not to the individual messages (as the concept of meaning would), but rather to the situation as a whole in which one has an amount of freedom of choice, in selecting a message. It generally relates to artificially simple situations where the information source is free to choose only between several definite messages while forming the message.

*Information* in *Communication Theory*, is associated with the amount of freedom of choice, we have in constructing messages. *Information* and *communication* are closely related, as communication is a process of social exchange and information is the object of the exchange. Communication usually starts with an idea, a thought, or message, which a sender wishes to convey to others; it also implies transfer of information from a sender to a receiver via particular channel. These information sources can be in the verbal or written form as shown in Fig.1.4.
2. A Transmitter.

A transmitter, which operates on the message in someway to produce a signal for transmission over the channel to the receiver. The function of the transmitter is to encode. In telephone, this operation consists merely of changing sound pressure into a proportional electrical current. In telegraphy we have an encoding operation, which produces a sequence of dots, dashes and spaces on the channel corresponding to the message.

Signals may have either continuous or discrete symbols. (Fig.1.5)
3. The Channel.

The channel is merely the medium used to transmit the signal from transmitter to receiver. The capacity of a channel is to be described not in terms of the number of symbols it can transmit, but rather in terms of the information it transmits. In Radio, the channel is simply space and the signal is the electro-magnetic wave, which is transmitted.

In oral-speech, the information source is the brain; the transmitter is the voice mechanism producing the varying sound pressure (the signal), which is transmitted through the air (the channel) as represented in Fig. 1.6.
4. The Receiver

The receiver ordinarily performs the inverse operation of that done by the transmitter, reconstructing the message from the signal. In oral speech, it is ear of the second person (as shown in Figure 1.6).

5. The Destination

The destination is the person (or thing) for whom the message is intended (Fig. 1.6).


Noise may enter any communication system. Noise is anything that distorts or interferes with the message. In the process of being transmitted, it is an unfortunate characteristic that certain things are added to the signal, which were not intended by the information source. These unwanted additions might be distortions of sound (in telephone), static (in radio), errors in transmission (telegraphy or facsimile etc) and shading of picture (in television) or disconnection of any Internet site.

As earlier stated, information is a measure of one’s freedom of choice in selecting a message. The greater this freedom of choice, (and hence the greater the information) the greater is the uncertainty that the message actually selected is the same as intended. Thus, greater freedom of choice and greater uncertainty will go hand in hand. If the noise exists, then the received message contains certain distortions, certain errors, and certain extraneous material that would certainly lead to an increased uncertainty of the message to be coded by receiver properly. The most important aspect, of course, is that the minimum undesirable or spurious uncertainties cannot be reduced further, no matter how complicated or appropriate the coding process is.

VARIOUS ASPECTS OF COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

The message is thus transmitted from transmitter to the receiver through a process of encoding and decoding. The transmitter encodes the message and receiver decodes it.

Encoding and Decoding in a Communication System

In communication theory, the act of producing messages, for example, speaking or writing, is termed as **encoding**. By putting our ideas into sound waves we are putting
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these ideas into a code, hence encoding. By translating sound waves into ideas we are
taking them out of the code they are in, hence decoding.

Considering the Figure 1.7, the idea-generating component (i.e. brain of the first
person) would be referred to as the source, while the signal or message producing aspect
would be referred as to of the encoder. Conversely, in listening, the brain of the second
person will act as the receiver while the auditory mechanism (i.e. ear) would be decoder.

Competence and Performance

Competence is the knowledge of language, which is uninfluenced by any
psychological or physical processes. Performance on the other hand, is influenced by such
factors as fatigue, anxiety, boredom, attention span, and interest.

Fig.1.7: Encoding and Decoding in a Communication System.

An individual is able to perform his linguistic feats without any problems if he has
linguistic competence and knows the rules of the language (competence) and can
Introduce and understand sentences (performance). Competence and performance differ in an important way. When one fails to understand what someone says, it may be due to one’s competence. However, if it is due to one’s failing to attend to what was said or perhaps to one’s lack of interest, then it is called one’s performance (Fig. 1.7).

Feedback

The return process in any communication system is called feedback (refer Fig.1.8), which plays a very important part because it tells us how the other individual is interpreting our messages. An experienced communicator is attentive to feedback and constantly modifies his messages in light of what he observes in or hears from his audience. We can also get feedback from our own messages. That is, when we hear our own messages or our own voices, we can correct mispronunciations. We can see the words we have written on paper and can correct mis-spellings or change the style. Interpreter in this context may be the person himself or the listener.

![Fig. 1.8: Feedback in Communication.](image)

Field of Experience

The overlapping circles in Figure 1.9 refer to what is called a field of experience. The assumption here is that communication can only take place to the extent that the participants share the same experiences. Otherwise, communication is ineffective or impossible. Differences among people serve to make communication more and more difficult.
UNIVERSALS OF COMMUNICATION

The communication act includes the following components:

- source(s),
- receiver(s),
- messages,
- channels,
- noise,
- sending or encoding processes,
- receiving or decoding processes, and
- feedback and effect.

These elements seem the most essential in any consideration of the communication act and are called *Universals of Communication*. These elements are present in every communication act, regardless of whether it is intrapersonal, interpersonal, small group, public speaking, mass communication, or intercultural communication.

A Fig. 1.10 depicting Model of the Universals of Communication shows that the *source* influences the *receiver*; at the same time, the receiver influences the *source* and the context influences both *source* and *receiver*. In turn, both the source and the receiver and their interactions influence the context. Each element in the communication act influence and is being influenced by each other element.
Communication always takes place within a context. At times this context is not obvious; at other times, the context stands out boldly, and restricts or stimulates our communication. The communication process faces at least four dimensions of the context.

- **Physical Context**

  The room or hall or park, whatever be the tangible of concrete environment in which communication takes place is the Physical Context. It exerts some influence on the content as well as on the form of our messages.

- **Social Context**

  The social dimension of context includes the status relationships among the participants, the roles and the parts that people play and the norms and cultural set up of the society in which they are communicating.

- **Psychological Context**

  It consists of such aspects as the friendliness or unfriendliness of the situation, the formality or informality, and the seriousness or humorousness of the situation.

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**Fig.1.10: Model of the Universals of Communication.**

**CONTEXTS OF COMMUNICATION**

Communication always takes place within a context. At times this context is not obvious; at other times, the context stands out boldly, and restricts or stimulates our communication. The communication process faces at least four dimensions of the context.

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- **Psychological Context**

  It consists of such aspects as the friendliness or unfriendliness of the situation, the formality or informality, and the seriousness or humorousness of the situation.
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• Temporal Context

This dimension includes the time of the day as well as the time in history in which the communication act takes place.

These four dimensions of context interact with each other; each influences and is being influenced by the others. The context of the communication model (Fig. 1.10) is depicted by a broken line to illustrate that the context is dynamic rather than static.

Contexts of communication are as follows:

• Intrapersonal
• Interpersonal
• Group
• Organizational

1. **Intrapersonal Context.** Communication in this context takes place when one communicates within him. It is the most basic form of communication because it goes on within us continuously regardless of the presence or absence of other people.

2. **Interpersonal Context.** In interpersonal communication context, people attempt to share their own meanings with other people.

3. **Group Context.** Each Individual is a member of a group, a class, a family or a political group with whom he communicates. The common sharing, ideas, age, culture, tradition etc. facilitate the formation of a group.

4. **Organizational Context.** Organizational context contains all those characteristics found in the other contexts of the communication.

**FRAMEWORK OF COMMUNICATION BEHAVIOUR**

I: **Communication as a One-Way Action**

Communication as a one-way action implies that messages are being transmitted in one direction i.e. from one person to another. In this action a person or a communicator
has some information, he/she selects an audience and delivers that information to the audience (Fig. 1.11).

Now, in the one-way action framework the role of source (information) is regarded with much stress that if there is some distortion, the immediate fault will be of the source. So, the source has to refine his skills in communicating to adapt to his audience and to reinforce communication in a meaningful way. The whole approach of this framework is to oversimplify the communication by treating it as a one-way or linear activity, i.e. $C = f (S)$ which means communication ($C$) is the function ($f$) of source ($S$).

S - Source

R - Receiver (it refers to another person as well as to a group of people).

Fig. 1.11: Linear Approach of Communication.

II: Communication as an Interaction

Sharply in contrast with the one-way action framework, communication is thought to be a string of causes and effects or actions and reactions. And, interaction is a two-way communication, where each source is either sending or receiving messages and it also adds the notion of feedback. The approach of communication in this case is of non-linear type.

\[ C = f (S, R) \]

Communication ($C$) is the function of source ($S$), where the other receiver ($R$) remains constant and

\[ C = f (R, S) \]

Similarly, communication ($C$) is the function of receiver ($R$), where the source ($S$) remains constant.
Source (S) or Receiver (R) further depends functionally upon the feedback \( f_e \) element which they get from each other.

\[
S = f(f_e) \quad \text{and} \quad R = f(f_e)
\]

The drawback that this framework has is the possibility that people can’t send and receive messages simultaneously as one remains constant.

III: Communication as Transactional

In transactional framework, the weakness and inaccuracies of describing communication either as one-way action or as an interaction is eliminated. The term transactional means that the communicators are interrelated. That is, one perception of a communicator can’t be considered apart from all his other perceptions.

Moreover, the external environment and the internal state of each person in the communication are interrelated. In transactional approach all elements of communication are not viewed separately but are considered interrelated and interdependent.

The difference between communication as an interaction and communication as transactional is that in the former communication process doesn’t seem to happen simultaneously between two communicators while in the later it happens. We will discuss this, in detail later on after understanding the communication system.

Communication as a transactional process can be better understood by taking into account the specific internal and external cues, Sereno and Bodaken (1975).

- **Internal System**: Internal elements are those elements, which comes from within of an individual while dealing with a communicating situation. These elements comprise his memories, hopes, attitudes, fears, values, and hatredness, in sum, a record of lifetime experiences.

The elements identified in Fig. 1.12 are among those that are commonly found in the communication process.
The i's represent *internal stimuli* that show up as attitude, personality, sex, IQ, information, needs and so forth. These elements can also be called *private cues*. The existence of these elements can only be inferred or assumed by observing an individual's outward behaviour. This outward action behaviour can be observed by certain elements found in the Internal Stimuli of an individual.

- **External System**: It contains all those external elements that exist outside the individual's Internal System. Also called *external stimuli* or *public cues* because they are *stimuli potentially available* to all persons in a given communication setting. The phrase *potentially available* serves to stress the point that a stimulus in the environment may or may not be perceived by someone else in that same setting.

In Fig. 1.13 the e's represent external stimuli potential available to a perceiver: verbal cues (words, content, arrangement, style); non-verbal cues (body motion, characteristics of appearances and voice, use of personal space and distancing).

- **Verbal Cues**: *Verbal Cues* are the words used in communication, whether spoken or written. Words are elements of language and language is a set of words or symbols used according to some meaningful pattern. These languages enable people to communicate with one another. There exists common agreement among
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people while speaking or using a language to have symbols linked with a certain idea, object or event.

- **Non-Verbal Cues:** Non-verbal elements include all external stimuli other than spoken or written words. They range from characteristics of body motion to patterns of voice to effects of the physical sitting. Four subcategories of public stimuli are; body motion, characteristics of appearance, characteristics of voice, and use of space and distancing.

MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

Models simplify reality, select key elements and indicate relationships. According to Sereno and Bodaken (1975), a model is a means for showing what is fundamental to the process under study. Models identify significant features of the event being modeled. They are a means of our pointing out the critical elements of a process so that they can be readily grasped and at the same time a means of our disregarding insignificant distractions.

One characteristic of a model is that it describes the thing or event being modeled only in specific ways and not in a complete way. Thus, several models of the same event or process may be constructed, each with its own emphasis. No single model can include every factor. The fundamental elements of each model reflect the model maker’s perceptions of what is basic to the process- what needs to be shown and what can be shown. One man’s crucial component may be another’s trivial irrelevancy. Models also have potential disadvantages. Simplification involves selection and may mislead by omitting important features. The more general the model, the less true it will be to any one particular case. One should be aware of such limitations and of the fact that no model is suitable for all purposes or all levels of analysis.

In the case of communication, models are typically symbolic diagrams with verbal explanations of elements and that describe the essence of the event under study. Since communication is a process and not a physical object, communication models are not of a physical sort. Communication models vary in the degree to which they are more dynamic (dealing with process and change) or more static (dealing with structure and relationship) although both aspects are present in all communications.
In the broadest sense, a model is a systematic representation of an object or event in idealized and abstract form. Models are somewhat arbitrary by their nature. The act of abstracting eliminates certain details to focus on essential factors. The key to the usefulness of a model is the degree to which it conforms - in point-by-point correspondence - to the underlying determinants of communicative behaviour Mortensen (1972). Communication models are merely pictures; they’re even distorting pictures, because they stop or freeze an essentially dynamic interactive or transitive process into a static picture.

The initial development of communication models in the late 1940s and early 1950s was associated with the emergence of a new science of communication. Most communication models employ a small number of basic concepts: a sender; a process of encoding into signals or symbols; a message; a channel; a receiver; a relationship a process of decoding; a range of things to which messages refer (referents); and an actual or probable effect, intended or not. Some models incorporate a feedback link from receiver to sender. The development of communication models has reflected advances in understanding of how communication works. The most relevant points in communication models are

- there is selectivity in attention, perception, and retention of messages by the receiver;
- communication is essentially transactional, with the receiver playing an active role in the course of any communication process;
- communication does not always flow directly from one sender to one receiver but by way of intervening processes;
- mass communication processes involve professional mediation between senders and receivers; and
- communication takes place in complex social systems rather than in isolated acts of transmission.
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FUNCTIONS OF MODELS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is an extremely complex process. Because of the tremendous complexity and the fact that in communication everything is constantly changing, there is no need to simplify and generalize the essential elements and processes so that we may better explain and understand the structure and functions of communication. Communication models are perhaps the best way to accomplish this simplification.

Communication models are visualizations of the communication process. The basic theories concerning the elements of communication and how these elements operate and interact are simply reflected in these models. Karl Deutsch's (1952) general outline of functions of models (Refer Fig. 1.14): -

1. Models serve to **organize** the various elements and processes of the communication act. Even though, it is not always possible for any model to organize all the data pertaining to communication.

2. Models aid in the **discovery** of new facts about communication. It should generate questions concerning communication that can be researched.

3. Models enable us to make **predictions** concerning communication under certain conditions.
4. Models might provide a means of *measuring* the elements and processes involved in communication.

**EARLY MODELS**

- **LASSWELL’S MODEL**

  In 1948, U.S. political scientist Harold D. Lasswell presented his verbal model, which became known as the Lasswell formula: *Who says what in which channel to whom with what effect?* With its roots in Aristotelian principles of RHETORIC, this model remains a useful way to split the communication process into basic components, as can be seen in Fig. 1.15 and Fig. 1.16.

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**Fig. 1.15: Aristotle's Model of Communication. (I)**

A Speaker...

- **Invention**
  - Discovers rational (logos) emotional (pathos) and ethical (ethos) proofs (pistis)
- **Arrangement**
  - Arrange those proofs strategically
- **Style**
  - Cloths the ideas in clear and compelling words
- **Delivery**
  - Delivers the product appropriately

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**Fig.1.16: Aristotle’s Model of Communication. (II)**

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Lasswell’s own use of this model is seen in Fig. 1.17.

Fig. 1.17: The Lasswell Formula Model.

The major value of this Lasswell model (Fig. 1.17) lies in its use as a structuring device and in situations in which the sender has clear intent to influence the receiver.

- **SHANNON AND WEAVER MODEL.**

The mathematical model of communication was designed by Claude Shannon and Warren Weaver and was presented in 1949. It was the most famous of all the models of communication and is termed as the Mathematical Theory of Communication. It shows, on the *sender* side the source and its message which through the help of a transmitter is sent in the physical form of a signal to a receiver, which reconstructs the signal to another message, which ultimately reaches the destination. On its way the signal can be more or less distorted by interfering noise, which means that the signal received by the receiver is not necessarily identical to the one sent by the transmitter.

The Shannon-Weaver model (Fig. 1.18) can be used on several different levels. Its original application was technical, but subsequently it was used as an analogy and was applied to different types of human communication.

Fig. 1.18: Shannon and Weaver’s Model of Communication.
A most insightful model of interpersonal communication was propounded by Wendell, Johnson (1951). In Figure 1.19 the surrounding rectangle indicates that communication takes place in a context that is external to both speaker and listener and to the communication process as well. The curved loop indicates that the various stages of communication are actually interrelated and interdependent.

The actual communication process begins at 1 which represents the occurrence of an event, anything that can be perceived. This event is the stimulus. Although not all communication occurs with reference to such external stimuli, communication makes sense, only when it does in some way relate to the external world. At stage 2 the observer is stimulated through one or more sensory channels. The opening at 2 is purposely illustrated as relatively small to emphasize that out of all the possible stimuli in the world,
only a small part of these actually stimulate the observer. At stage 3 organismic evaluations occur. Here nerve impulses travel from the sense organs to the brain, which effect certain bodily changes in, for example, muscular tension. At 4, the feelings aroused at 3 are beginning to be translated into a process that takes place in accordance with the individual’s unique language habits. At stage 5 from all the possible linguistic symbols, certain ones are selected and arranged into some pattern.

At 1' the words that the speaker utters, by means of light waves, serve as stimulation for the hearer much as the outside event at 1 served as stimulation for the speaker. At 2' the hearer is stimulated, at 3' there are organismic evaluations, at 4' feelings are beginning to be translated into words, at 5' certain of these symbols are selected and arranged, and at 1'' these symbols, in the form of sound and/or light waves, are emitted and serve as stimulation for another hearer. The process is a continuous one.

- **SCHRAMM'S MODEL**

In 1954 U.S. scholar Wilbur Schramm drew on the work of Charles Osgood (1954) to emphasize the circularity of communication and to bring into picture the processes of encoding and coding, without which messages can have no MEANING. In doing so he laid the foundation for models dealing with essential aspects of mass communication. (Refer Fig. 1.20)

![Fig.1.20: Schramm’s Model of Mass Communication.](image)

- **GERBNER'S MODEL**

George Gerbner’s general model of Communication (1956) has been especially influential and can be summed up in a single sentence that captures its main feature:
Someone perceives an event and reacts in a situation through some means to make available materials in some form and context conveying content with some consequences. The most important points are that Gerbner takes account of the context of communication situations and also of the participants' perception of and response to situations and communication processes. Communication situation includes objective events and subjective perceptions. They are open and transactional. This model can incorporate machine as well as human processes in different combinations and at various stages.

- HELICAL SPIRAL MODEL

A model that appears relatively simple compared with the other models is the helical spiral proposed by Frank Dance (1957). This model, presented in Fig 1.21 emphasizes that communication has no clear observable beginning and no clear observable end, as the spiral continues indefinitely. No communication transaction may be said to have fixed boundaries. Each transaction is, in part, a function of previous communications and each transaction in turn influences future communications.

![Dance's Helical Spiral Model](image-url)

Fig. 1.21: Dance's Helical Spiral Model.
Introduction

- Westley and Maclean Model

Bruce Westley and Malcolm MacLean (1957) incorporated further insights from social psychology into the portrayal of how communication works. These concerned the dynamics of communication as a process of information seeking and information giving. A central idea was that communication is the outcome of a search for balance and congruence between individuals on the one hand and their environment and other persons on the other. Westley and MacLean based their 1957 conceptual model for mass communication research on T. Newcomb's model (1953) of interpersonal relations, in the form shown in Fig. 1.22.

![Fig. 1.22: Westley and MacLean's Model of Communication.](image)

The main elements labeled in the Figure 1.22 are as follows:

- X: an event or object in the environment
- A: the role of advocate or source wishing to present a particular view of event X
- C: a mass medium (or channel) role that selects among A's and X's for further transmission to an audience (B)
- B: the audience role the eventual destination for information, views and the like
- X': the choice made by C for access to the channel (modified into X'' on the way)
Introduction

fBA: feedback from audience to advocate (source)

fBC: feedback from audience to mass medium (C)

fCA: feedback from a medium (C) to an advocate (source)

X3C etc: an observation among X’s made directly by a C (mass medium) without mediation by an A.

This model is important for emphasizing several distinctive features of mass communication:

- There is a long process of selection, with several distinct stages from event to reception.

- Much of the communication process is non-purposive, the role of a medium (C) being often that of neutral broker between audience’s interests and events or advocates and the audience itself rarely looking for specific information.

- There are different kinds of, and variable opportunities for, feedback.

- The whole process is open, self-adjusting, and dynamic, depending on the wider social environment and the number of alternative channels.

- BERLO’S MODEL

David Berlo’s (1960) model of communication attempts to explain the four basic components in the communication process (Fig.1.23). The four basic components are source, message, channel and receiver. For each of these four components there are five elements that need to be considered. The source and receiver are treated alike. To study either we need to consider their communication skills (speaking and writing for the source, and listening and reading for the receiver), their attitudes, their knowledge, the social system of which they are a part, and the culture in which they operate. The message consists of both elements and structure, each of which may be broken down into content, treatment and code. For the channel, Berlo lists the five senses, emphasizing that messages may be sent and received through any and all of the senses. A source encodes a message for a channel to a receiver who decodes the message: S-M-C-R Model.
SYSTEMATIC MODEL OF COMMUNICATION

Some communication theorists have attempted to construct models in light of General Systems Theory. The key assumption of General Systems Theory is that every part of the communication system is so related to every other part that any change in one aspect results in dynamic changes in all other parts of the total system.

A Systematic Model of Communication has to address the following axioms as suggested by Watzlawick and his associates (1967):

i. **The impossibility of not communicating.** It is not possible to conceive of non-behaviour. If all behaviour in an interactional situation can be taken as having potential message values, it follows that no matter what is said and done, one cannot not communicate. Even when one person tries to ignore the overtures of another, he nonetheless communicates a disinclination to talk.

ii. **Content and relationship in communication.** All face-to-face encounters require some sort of personal recognition and commitment, which in turn create and define the relationship between the respective parties.

iii. **The Punctuation of the Sequences of Events.** Human beings set up between them patterns of interchange (about which they may or may not be in agreement) and these patterns will in fact be rules of contingency regarding the exchange of reinforcement.
iv. **Symmetrical and Complementary Interaction.** A symmetrical relationship evolves in the direction of heightening similarities; a complementary relationship hinges increasingly on individual differences. The word symmetrical suggests a relationship in which the respective parties mirror the behaviour of the other tends to respond in kind. Thus, an initial act of trust fosters a trusting response; suspicion elicits suspicion; warmth and congeniality encourages more of the same and so on. In sharp contrast is a complementary relationship, where individual differences complement or dovetail into a sequence of change. Whether the complementary actions are good or bad, productive or injurious is not relevant to the concept.

- **BARNLUND'S TRANSACTIONAL MODEL OF COMMUNICATION (BTMC)**

A model of communication that most clearly emphasizes the transactional nature of communication has been proposed by [Dean Barnlund (1970)](https://example.com). The said model is explained in the next paragraphs here, as the process of the present study is wholly based upon it.

Thus, the communication model is a useful general device rather than an instrument to be applied to one particular field or to one theory. It has its biases and limitations, especially unsuitability for dealing with cultural matters and with communication as RITUAL or expression rather than as transmission. Many models are revised or supplemented to take into account new technologies of communication. They are likely to include information-search behaviour initiated by the receiver, interactive exchanges, and central registration of communication activities connected in the same network. Different patterns will be associated with different forms and uses of the new technology and models can play a role in describing and analyzing the changes under way.

But, the danger is that the model limits our awareness of unexplored possibilities of conceptualization. We tinker with the model when we might be better occupied with the subject matter itself. In many areas of human behaviour, our knowledge is on the level of folk wisdom, incorporating it in a model does not automatically give such knowledge a scientific status. The majority of our ideas are usually a matter of slow growth, which cannot be forced. Closure is premature if it lays down the lines for our thinking to follow when we do not know enough to say even whether one direction or another is the more
promising. Building a model, in short, may crystallize our thoughts at a stage when they are better left in solution, to allow new compounds to precipitate (Kaplan, 1964).

BARNLUND’S TRANSACTIONAL MODEL OF COMMUNICATION (BTMC) (Detailed version)

The models discussed so far may prove misleading if we assume that the source remains the source throughout the communication transaction. In actuality, conversational communication, interviews and committee meetings require participants in the communication process to switch back and forth between the roles of source and receiver. Consequently, both participants in an interview and all members of a group discussion will be involved in encoding as well as decoding in the transmission as well as in the reception of messages. The Barnlund model (as a graphic demonstration) of the sharing of source and receiver functions in an interpersonal communication. By far the most systematic of the functional models is the transactional approach taken by Barnlund (1970), one of the few investigators who made explicit the key assumption on which his model was based (Mortensen, 1972).

Barnlund (1970) suggested that communication is not a reaction to something, not an interaction with something, but a transaction in which man invents and attributes meanings to realize his purposes. It should be stressed that meaning is something, invented, assigned, given, rather than something received. It is the production of meaning rather than the production of messages that identifies communication.

Barnlund (1970) described the communication process as a process of discriminations and organizing clues— an interpersonal phenomenon, best viewed as transaction. From this perspective, the individual communicator is simultaneously both a source and a receiver; while one is attaching meaning to one’s environment, one is enacting behavior toward it. As students listen to their teacher, they are reacting verbally and / or nonverbally. As teacher lectures, he is attaching meaning to the verbal and nonverbal cues emanating from his audience. From this perspective each one of us is simultaneously a source and a receiver of communication.

While describing the nature of communication between persons Barnlund (1968) further redefines the definition, omitting the source who consciously attempts to influence
and focusing exclusively on the individual as receiver: communication, then, is an *effort after meaning*, a creative act initiated by man in which he seeks to discriminate and organize cues so as to orient himself in his environment and satisfy his changing needs.

**Dean Barnlund's** model of communication is based upon the transactional mode of communication where each element in the communication acts influences and is being influenced by each other element. It is based on six assumptions, which provide significant insight into communication in general.

- **Communication is dynamic**: Communication is an ongoing event and not a static entity.
- **Communication is continuous**: Communication has no beginning and no end. It is a continuous condition of life.
- **Communication is circular**: Communication is a circular process with each person serving each function, with each person influencing and is being influenced by every other person.\\
  
  \[ P_1 = F(P_2) \quad \& \quad P_2 = F(P_1) \]

  where \( P_1 \)'s action is the function of \( P_2 \)'s action & \( P_2 \)'s action is the function of \( P_1 \)'s action.
- **Communication is unrepeatable**: No action and no reaction is exactly repeatable. No person ever does the same thing in exactly the same way.
- **Communication is irreversible**: Communication is an irreversible process. We can never undo what has already been done. What has been communicated remains communicated, however we may attempt to qualify it or negate it.
- **Communication is complex**: The numerous types of communication, the numerous purposes it serves, the numerous contexts in which it may take place, and the numerous forms communication messages take, make a vast array of communication acts possible.
Introduction

- Components of Barnlund’s Transactional Model of Communication (BTMC)
  - There are two persons $P_1$ and $P_2$ involved in the communication act.
  - Functions or actions of speaker are equivalent to the functions of hearer. There is no distinction between speaker and hearer as both parties send and both parties receive messages at the same time.
    \[ f(\text{speaker}) = f(\text{hearer}) \]
  - Cues, derived from the environment available to all potential communicators and are created prior to the communication act are Public Cues ($C_{pu}$). (Refer Fig.1.24)
  - Public cues ($C_{pu}$) are distinguished from the communication messages, which are naturally created during the communication act.
  - Public cues are classified into natural cues, those created by nature, and artificial cues, those created by people.
  - Private cues are cues that are not available to other people. The persons themselves experience these cues. These cues can be, for example, a taste, a pain, or an itch that only one person perceives.
  - $C_{behv}$ denotes verbal behavioural cues.
  - $C_{behv}$ denotes nonverbal behavioural cues. These cues are considered to include both deliberate nonverbal acts as well as unconscious nonverbal acts such as biting one’s lip or squinting.
  - D and E for decoding and encoding, receiving and sending.
  - The term message, $M$, according to Barnlund, is restricted to meaning that set of cues that are purposely controlled by one person in order to communicate with another.
Introduction

Private cues (Cpr) include all stimuli uniquely available to an individual communicator. They include such factors as self-image, fatigue, fear, excitement, etc. The private cues differ in their perceived significance. In other words, at a given moment, headache may be a negative cue; self-image may be somewhat neutral (o), while one’s concept for the feelings of other partner in communication may be positive.

Public cues (Cpu) are those cues meeting two criteria: First, they must be a part of, or available to, the perceptual field of all participants in the communication transaction. Second is the weather, physical arrangement of office furnishings, room temperature, paintings hanging on the wall, the magazines in a display rack and a cluttered or uncluttered desk top are all examples of public cues. Public cues may also be interpreted as positive (+ve), negative (-ve), or neutral (o).

Barnlund is concerned with both verbal and non-verbal message transmissions. His model includes behavioral cues that are verbal (Cbehv) and nonverbal (Cbehiv). Behavioral nonverbal cues might be picking up a magazine, straightening one’s collar or tie, the manner in which one walk’s, one dresses and grooming etc.
Introduction

Behavioral verbal cues include all encoded and transmitted messages on the verbal level. Again, Barnlund stresses that behavioral verbal and non-verbal cues may be perceived as positive (+ve), negative (-ve), or neutral (o). The wavy lines in Figure 1.25 bracketing private, public, non-verbal and verbal cues are intended to indicate that the number of cues involved may vary from a few to hundreds.

Internal feedback is accounted for at the level of monitoring one's own nonverbal behavior (indicated by the loop from C_{BE} to the Encoding / Decoding spiral).

There is the phenomenon of selective attention also. As the drawing indicates, both participants in the communication process are able to choose from among positive, negative or neutral private cues, public cues, and verbal and nonverbal behavioral cues in determining to what they shall attend. At the same time, each participant transmits numerous non-message cues (nervous movements, physical appearance, clothing and so forth), which may be attended to in lieu of message cues. To the extent that non-message cues capture the attention of a receiver, message information will be lost or distorted.

The model justifies that mere interaction cannot be called as a communication act. It is the process whereby one person P1 tries to encode the message it wants to be decoded to the second person P2 and on the other hand, P1 observes that how a person P2 decodes the message that P1 encoded it earlier. Here the communication is a circular process, as it starts from one person to influence the other and is being influenced by the other person, at the same time or simultaneously.

In this model, the act of producing messages is termed as encoding. By putting the ideas into sound waves, P1 tries to encode these ideas. P2 on the otherhand takes them out of the code (i.e. by translating sound waves into ideas), is on the way of decoding. The idea behind Barnlund's Transactional Model of Communication is that if the message is not decoded by other, in a pattern that corresponds to the encoding done by the first person (P1), P2 will not be able to handle the decoded message at the efficient level. It will happen only, when we start realizing that all these steps must be accomplished with high efficiency. If the encoding is good the capacity of the decoding leads to the near capacity of coding.
Fig. 1.25: Barnlund's Transactional Model of Communication.

As the communication process is circular in this model, the process begins with the speaker but doesn't end with the listener. There is no distinction made here between speaker and hearer, both parties send and both parties receive messages at the same time. In Fig. 1.25 and Fig. 1.26 Barnlund's model depicts communication between two people P₁ and P₂. The arrows emerging from P₁ (dotted arrows) represent the perceptions of P₁. These perceptions are of two types: private (Cₚₑᵱ) and public (Cₚₑᵰ). The dotted arrows go not only to the public cues but also to the verbal and nonverbal messages of P₂, as well as to the nonverbal message of P₁. The process is identical from the point of view of P₂.

In interpreting Barnlund's Transactional Model of Communication we are capable of being both sender and receiver at the same time i.e. transreceivers.

The person P₁ on the left side (Fig. 1.26) of the model is one who wishes to communicate a message (a concept or an idea) to the other person P₂. The sender now
sorts through and selects from his storehouse of knowledge and past experience, choosing items that help him to define and refine what he is trying to say. So one must have a basis upon which to perform this operation. The brain here becomes a kind of input regulator where we feed the programme. The sender now chooses her codes and applies at least the same programme. Ultimately, the sender transmits the message, which is primarily oral. Let's assume further, that there is no unusual distraction or noise in the situation, and that the sensory abilities of each person are adequate. When the other person receives the message, the resulting sensations experienced by the receiver are the first part of human perception; the second part is the interpretation of what those sensations mean in the particular situation.

The model suggests that our receiver now decodes the signs, symbols and language of the sender, sorting through his storehouse of knowledge and experience and selecting those meanings that will allow him to create a message. To the extent that this re-creation is similar to the sender's intended message, we have achieved the objective of transactional communication. This reconstructed idea, then, is heavily dependent upon a person's prior knowledge and experience. Certain behaviours taken in this model may have positive, negative or neutral impact upon the other person. In Fig.1.25, the spiral line interweaving the decoding process (D) and encoding process (E) is significant for two reasons:

- The spiral line indicates the continuous interrelationships between encoding and decoding within each participant in the communication process.

- The spiral line indicates that cues received by a communication participant (whether private cues or public cues) are influential on both the encoding and the decoding process.
Barnlund introduced the idea that six persons are present each time whenever two persons enter a transaction. These 6 persons emerge as follows:

1. How you view yourself?
2. How you view the other person?
3. How you believe the other person views you?
4. How the other person views himself / herself?
5. How the other person views you?
6. How the other person believes you view him/her?

In a sense, Barnlund is arguing that as we interact with others, we construct ourselves and our participation in the interaction process is limited by how we view the situation.

Barnlund (1968) explained the nature of feedback and how it operates. Each person (in the relationship) must monitor his own acts to produce the words and gestures he intends, and must monitor the reactions of others to those words and gestures to see if his message prompted the reaction he sought. Barnlund’s Transactional Model of Communication encourages a deep investigation into transaction of human communication behaviour. This in turn increases one’s capacity to see alternative ways of interacting with others and the means by which to enhance the quality of communication between people.

Mortensen (1972) on the other hand put forwarded the limitation of this model, which presupposes that the terms communication and meaning are synonymous and interchangeable. Yet nowhere does the model deal in even a rudimentary way with the difficult problem of meaning. The inclusion of decoding and encoding may be taken as only a rough approximation of evolution of meaning, but such dualistic categories are not particularly useful in explaining the contingencies of meaning.

The modified version of Barnlund’s Transactional Model of Communication can be altered to include:

- Small group communication.
- Public speaking.
- Mass communication.
- Self-communication.
- Classroom communication.

The purpose of the present study was to identify for the teacher a model of communication for the significant insight into communication in the classroom as a general situation. By applying communication models in classroom situation, a teacher
can build up his capacity to communicate with more students and create a richer and more diverse environment for learning to take place. In this context, **Barnlund (1968)** has observed that in ordinary human relationships, it is usually the teacher, the supervisor, or the parent who is expected to do the talking and the student, the worker, or the child who is expected to listen. But, there is need to break this monotony. Now, in the next section, let us see what role does communication play inside the classroom.

**COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM**

It has long been understood that process of teaching is quite synonymous with the process of communication. The act of teaching is a communicative act. To communicate the subject matter of a course to a variety of students requires an understanding of the process of communication. The emphasis of communication in classroom is to be understood as willingness of the learners to participate in the changes made by his/her teacher and on the need for the teacher to understand how to persuade the learner in terms of the learner’s own goals. Persuasion, in this sense, is what communication is all about. Communication is directed toward a goal set by an individual or a teacher and it involves the use of verbal and non-verbal patterns chosen as appropriate to a particular set of circumstances involving other people who matter.

A communicator uses verbal as well as non-verbal channels to communicate his message. Experts say that only 7% of the impact during communication is of words, 38% of the impact is achieved by the way the words are spoken and the remaining 55% of the impact is made by body language. **Dunkin and Biddle (1974)**, and **McDonald and Elian (1976)** say that the teacher does most of the talking in the typical classroom – 60 to 80 percent of the verbal interchanges.

It has been found that most teachers tend to overlook the powerful influence of **non-verbal communication in the classroom**. Both conscious and unconscious communication messages are transmitted non-verbally. Often, this can have a definite impact on the receiver than the words that are actually said. Much of the non-verbal communication is unconsciously uncontrolled. And it creates the problem, as student outside the classroom can learn a great deal of communication and yet they resist learning it inside the classroom. Since inside the classroom, learning rests on the ability to speak, write, listen and read, therefore teaching must be in tune with the communication
principles relating well to the students perception. Each act by a teacher in the classroom is a communication, since the goals are premeditated and each has an important function in the learning process. One of the hazards of the education is the fact that most of the teachers are acculturated quite differently from their students. It is easy to identify with people who share a common base of understanding or for a teacher who has common students. But identification cannot be extended to unfamiliar people or students until we have cracked their code or enter the right password and understand their internal as well as external systems.

Another important problem faced in communication process in classroom settings, is that we do not react solely to the external stimuli. The human brain has the capacity to process information without reference to external fact and consequently we can develop internal motivations unique to ourselves. We can create a world of events in our own minds. The rules and ideas of each of us seems to be sensible and rational to us at the time we employ them, but it is not safe to assume that another person will understand them in the similar context. Since we cannot explain our own internal programming to others, and if we could do it for one set of circumstances, there is no guarantee that it would remain the same for others.

Noise is also a great obstructor in the communication system or in teaching-learning process. Barriers of physical, intellectual and psychological perception may cause it. Clarity, simplicity, intelligibility of the message affects its reception and understanding. Thus, too slow or too loud, too simple or too complex messages may be regarded as noise presenting problems for understanding. There are different kinds of difficulties standing on the way of effective communication or teaching. The important of them are poor physical reception, inaccurate reading of feedback, jargon, verbalism, pictoralism, dissimilar background experience, generation gap and differing conceptions of time and space. To avoid noise in the channel, one has to understand the different types of noises that can hinder smooth communication in the classroom. In Table 1.1 and 1.2 we see a few types of noises.
Table 1.1

Verbal Noises: Classroom Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Noise in the Channel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Unfamiliar to receivers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choice of words</td>
<td>Difficult, Bombastic, Ambiguous, negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-words</td>
<td>Ah, Um, err, O.K., You see, You Know, I think etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech</td>
<td>Monotonous and dull</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tone</td>
<td>Low, mumbling</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.2

Non-Verbal Noises: Classroom Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Noise in the Channel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Posture</td>
<td>Slumped, leaning on table or podium.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movement</td>
<td>Unnecessary, constant pacing, prowling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gestures</td>
<td>Pointing, culturally unacceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hands</td>
<td>Above shoulders, below waist, behind the back, in pockets, on hips, closed fists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye contact</td>
<td>Constantly shifting, fixed on a few</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pointer</td>
<td>Wooden, folding, torch, high-tech instrument</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Classroom communication, therefore, involves not only the unilateral presentation by the teacher of new words or new facts or new ideas, it also requires the intercommunication between students and teachers, a mutual sharing of experiences, a continual feedback process of reciprocal response adjustments.
Schramm, Wilbur (1954) says that communication brings groups of individuals sufficiently together to establish cultures or societies. Teachers should understand how the communication process works, how attention is gained, how meaning is transferred from one subjective field to another, how opinions and attitudes are created or modified, and how group memberships role concepts, and social structure are related to the process.... Therefore, teachers need to know and appreciate several things about communication.

- First, everything that goes on in a classroom in someway would be regarded as some form of communication. Classrooms are set up for the purpose of coming and learning is contingent upon its taking place.

- Second, communication skills always are a basic concern of the school. They can be taught and improved and they are especially important and necessary in today’s divided world.

- Third, teachers should know the extent and quality of the communication and their possible effects on the learning of students.

Having the knowledge of a subject matter is a different thing but to communicate it to different students requires an understanding of the process of communication and practice in implementing the same in the classroom. It is also to be seen whether the instructional strategy being used by the teacher is consistent with the design of the curricula material or not. By examining the classroom interaction, we can infer the significant non-verbal messages that take place in the classroom. Without feedback, the teacher has no way of knowing what effect his performance has. He may guess, imagine, or assume, but he doesn’t know how much influence he will have on his students.

Any model, which we want to apply in classroom, calls for an evidence not just fact. Evidence is that set of facts, which will not only withstand challenging criticism but also, withholds its winning strategy over others. And, these evidences must relate directly to the given model, its activities and other criteria used for its observation. It is also to be seen whether the instructional strategy being used by the teacher is consistent with the design of the curricular material or not.
Elements of Teaching Model

Joyce and Weil (1980) have transformed theories of teaching into different models of teaching, which can be conveniently used by teachers for classroom teaching in the schools. According to them, a model of teaching consists of guidelines for designing educational activities and environments, specifying to achieve certain kind of goals. A model includes rationale, a theory that justifies it and describes what it is good for and why. Empirical evidences that it supports must accompany the rationale. There are some fundamental elements on which an outline of model can be explained.

- **Focus**
- **Syntax**
- **Social System**
- **Principles of Reaction**
- **Support System**
- **Instructional and Nurturant Effect**

1. **Focus:** The focus of the model is concerned with the goals or objectives of the model, which will determine what we want the students to learn and how we will know that they have learned. The clarification of objectives is must for any model because the type of objective undertaken dictate the selection of instructional methods, media and evaluation procedures used in the lesson.

2. **Syntax:** The syntax of the model explains the sequence of actions that will be followed during the application of the model. In classroom set up it specifies an educational environment that will be created with the help of the model. The phasing of models not only depends upon the objectives of the model but also upon the designed activities that will be carried out in the classroom. Each teaching model has a distinct flow of phases.

3. **Social System:** The term social system describes roles and relationships of students and teachers in the classroom. It also specifies the kind of norms that will be retained and encouraged. The dominancy of the role affects social system.
4. **Principles of Reaction**: Generally, it tells about the nature of interaction between the teacher and the students. These principles guides the teacher how to regard the learner and how to respond to the learner’s actions.

5. **Support System**: *Support system* of any model implies the supporting conditions necessary for model’s existence. Not only human skills and capacities are required here but also the technical facilities necessary to employ model i.e. instructional aids, self – instructional materials, trained experts etc.

6. **Instructional and Nurturant Effects**: The effects of an existing environment can be explicit, depending upon the teaching content, teacher’s activity, responses of students, skills (human as well as technical), student’s activities etc., on which the model is based upon. The description of the effects of models can validly be categorized as the direct or instructional effects and the indirect or nurturant effects. The *instructional effects* are those, which are directly achieved by leading the learner in certain directions. The *nurturant effects* come from experiencing the environment created by the model.

Each of these components has been discussed in the context of Barnlund’s Transactional Model of Communication (BTMC) in Chapter II under BTMC Instructional Packages.

It is true that whatever human beings learn at an early age will consistently elicit a specific response from the existing environment in future also. Children learn those behaviours quickly, which are responded in affection from parents, praise from teachers or the admiration and quick acceptance from the peers. Since these kinds of responses are rewarding, they engage in those behaviours more frequently than others and attempt to generalize them for unique situations or manners.

To take best out of these generalizations and inferences drawn through various communications, young people require special training and skills to face challenges of life. These skills may include decision-making, assertiveness, problem solving, positive thinking, negotiation and skills for protecting oneself from risky and conflicting situations. The next segment of the chapter focuses the issues related to *life skills* as abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable an individual to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life.
The rapid pace of modernisation and the social changes caused by it has placed our youth at a critical juncture where they stand between traditional set up and emerging non-traditional society. The pressure from parents and teachers to excel and the inability of students to measure up to their expectations only deteriorate the situation. The emergence of the borderless education will further crop up the problem in near future. Narayanan, S. (2003) said it is shocking to note that almost 80 percent of students feel that they cannot talk to their parents about personal problems. Nearly 40 percent also said they feared examinations and suffered from fear of failure.

There may be number of factors responsible for students failure in the existing system whether it is their academic performance or their life. Even then we can’t ignore the fact that we have to face the situation accordingly because the remedy lies in our hands.

And, here comes the role of life skills. A number of studies have examined the long-term retention of every day cognitive skills. Skills that have not been highly practiced appear to be lost fairly rapidly once they are no longer used. Highly practiced skills are retained very well; skill at algebra that is being used in calculus course is retained for life even though the more tenuously learned skill at calculus is rapidly lost with disuse (Bahrick & Hall, 1991).

According to Winston English Dictionary (1957), skill is knowledge of any art together with expert ability to put that knowledge to use. The term skill denotes that some learning has taken place and that a smoothing or an integration of behaviour has resulted. A skilled act has to be learned. It is not one, which might be termed instinctive, or reflexive or one in which successful performance is achieved in a single trial (Kerr, 1998).

(The development of life skills is an important part of personality development, which can be beneficial for all young adults (Rao, 2003).)

Life skills are defined as the abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life. Life skills constitute a continuum of knowledge and aptitudes that are necessary for a person to function independently and to avoid interruptions of the employment experience (Brolin, 1989). Life Skills includes self-development, communication skills, job and financial skills development,
education, interpersonal and family relationship development and stress and anger management.

Abraham Maslow (1970), in his discussion of a hierarchy of human needs, pointed out that belonging was an essential and prerequisite human need that had to be met before one could ever achieve a sense of self-worth. He posited that the needs of human beings could be divided and prioritized into five levels. Individuals do not seek the satisfaction of a need at one level until the previous level of need is met. The five levels of need identified by Maslow were

- Physiological,
- Safety/Security
- Belonging/Social Affiliation,
- Self-Esteem, and
- Self-Actualization. They are represented as a pyramid in Fig. 1.27.

Maslow maintained that our most basic need is for physiological survival: shelter warmth, food, drink, and so on. Once these physiological needs are met, individuals then are
able to address the need for **safety and security**, including freedom from danger and absence of threat. Once safety has been assured, **belonging or love**, which is usually found within families, friendships, membership in associations, and within the community, then becomes a priority. **Maslow** stressed that only when we are anchored in community do we develop self-esteem, the need to assure ourselves of our own worth as individuals. **Maslow** claimed that the need for **self-esteem** could be met through mastery or achievement in a given field or through gaining respect or recognition from others. Once the need for self-esteem has been largely met, **Maslow** stated, we will develop a new restlessness and the urge to pursue the unique gifts or talents that may be particular to that person. According to him, a musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be at ultimate peace with himself. What a man can be, he must be. He must be true to his own nature. **Maslow** referred to this final level of need as **Self-Actualization**.

**Maslow**'s hierarchy of needs not only reminds us how essential it is for people to live within the context of a community, but it also shows us that the need for self-actualization necessary implies that every person has abilities that warrant specific development within themselves. Fig. 1.27 can be divided into two zones: 

- **First Zone**: Life skills zone, which includes only human beings.
- **Second Zone**: Life skills non-zone includes human beings and animal.

The upper part of the Fig. 1.27 is meant for only human beings life skills, which was considered in the present investigation.

**Allen, Mehal, Palmateer and Sluser (1995)**, says that in a Life Skills group, responsibility for personal growth rests with the client. Personal growth, counseling and developing belief systems are all part of encouraging psychological growth. Psychological growth must be considered to be a primary goal of Life Skills.

**Helminia (1996, 1998)** makes a strong case for the inter-relatedness, even near-equivalence, of psychological growth and spiritual growth. Many other psychologists, philosophers and theologians (Buber, 1923/1958; Frankl, 1959; Peck, 1978; Campbell and McMahon, 1985; Dreher, 1990; Kurtz, 1990; Kornfield, 1993; Reed, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Hinterkopf, 1998; West, 1998; Emmons, 1999) support the notion. **Wolman (2001)** considers the drive for spiritual self-improvement to be the same thing as the desire for self-actualization. Self-actualizing people provide a benchmark for psychological health **Maslow**
Introduction (1987). From this perspective, Life Skills, in its support and encouragement of personal growth, is involved with supporting and encouraging spiritual growth also.

Life Skills are problem-solving behaviours appropriately and responsibly used in the management of personal affairs (Curtiss and Warren, 1973).

Life Skills, being focused on matters of problem-solving and effective behavior change through choices of action, and also being concerned with matters of morality, invokes the exercise of spiritual intelligence when problems of right and wrong arises and when decisions about moral courses of action are to be made (Himsl, 1973).

There is a growing body of material that supports the idea of a spiritual approach to matters of leadership. Short (1998) makes the connection that to live is to lead. He sees us as the centres of self-created organizations that are made up of the people and relationships that we bring into and maintain in our lives. How we use, delegate and abdicate responsibility and control of our organizations is up to us. Short’s view is supported by Fox (1934), who says Man is the ruler of a kingdom, although in most cases he knows it not. That kingdom is nothing less than the world of his own life and experience. We are the leaders of our own organizations. In that light, Life Skills, which focuses on developing balanced self-determined (i.e. assertive) individuals, is leadership-training programme.

Current thought in leadership development is reflected in the words of Picard (1999): So, as people and leaders, how can we afford not to invest time in spiritual development? Meier (1984), in a similar vein, says, The term professional development can never again denote only the acquisition of external skills and knowledge, but must include developing the full range of internal mental and spiritual skills as well. Life Skills, then, in order to come into line with current leadership thinking, also needs to pay attention to spirit.

The following connections that emerge between spirituality and life skills are
- Life Skills not only support and encourage personal growth but also are involved with supporting and encouraging spiritual growth of an individual.
- Life Skills invoke the exercising of spiritual intelligence when problems of right and wrong are to be resolved and when decisions about moral courses of action are to be made.
- Life Skills need to pay attention to spiritual aspect of life of a person also.
IDENTIFICATION OF LIFE SKILLS

The document on life skills in South Africa, prepared by Sabine Lobner (1997), is an input to the ILO Action Programme on Skills and Entrepreneurship Training for Countries Emerging from Armed Conflict. This multidisciplinary programme, under implementation during the 1996-97 biennium, is geared to, inter alia, making policy proposals, elaborating guidelines for national and international capacity-building, producing training materials, a database and a compendium of major training and employment-related initiatives in conflict-affected countries. The programme has undertaken several country-level research activities to generate relevant data and insights to underpin preparation of the above-mentioned outputs. Ms. Lobner’s (1997) study is one example.

Life skills’ training is increasingly attracting attention as an important element in the preparation of people for the world of work. Life Skills encompass orientation for the world of work, adult basic education, social and basic management skills. Ms. Lobner (1997) provides an analysis of a variety of programmes in the area of life skills in South Africa and draws a number of lessons, which can also be applicable to other countries. The report demonstrates that life skills increase efficiency and quality of work. In the post-conflict context, it is observed that life skills’ training enhances creativity and capacity to deal with the difficult period of transition to a peaceful society.

Life skills is an umbrella term, which encompasses a wide range of generic skills aimed at helping trainees to cope with various aspects of life. Life skills are geared to peacefully strengthen survival capacities by providing orientation, basic education, and pertinent health messages, social and basic management skills. Only when people learn to cope in this way will they be able to contribute and participate effectively in the workplace. Life skills enhance the abilities of trainees to both cope with the changing environment and translate technical skills into employment. Life skills empower people to make informed choices about their future.

Life skills are part of the general skills training. They are complementary to technical training and not a substitute. Life skills help to develop human potential and therefore enhance the ability of people to reintegrate into society and contribute to its reconstruction. Life skills contribute to a systematic development of attitudes, knowledge
and skills patterns required for a job. Life skills training implies the training of individuals and groups in skills, insights and competencies in order to help them develop a range of personal competencies that will equip them to fulfill a variety of life roles in a rapidly changing world. It has as its goal the development of human potential, the mastery of developmental tasks and the prevention of emotional disorders. It further leads to economic independence and contributes to economic development.

The term life skill is currently not widely used by international and non-governmental agencies. However, most organizations undertake some activities within the spectrum of life skills and those interviewed understood the use of the category after explanation. In a sense, what is being put forward is a basic education curriculum, which, along with vocational training, which equips people with the necessary skills and information to cope with the real problems (both material and psychological) they face in life.

WHO (World Health Organization) 1993, mentions that life skills consists of 10 skills (5 pairs) and divide the intelligence behaviour into three types as follows:

- creative thinking - self awareness
- critical thinking - empathy
- interpersonal relationship
- communication
- decision making
- problem solving
- coping with emotions
- coping with stresses

Fig.1.28: Life Skills identified by WHO.
Introduction

➢ **Cognitive Domain:** It consists of two life skills: -

  ▪ **Creative Thinking** means the extensive thinking that has no frame without any restriction.

  ▪ **Critical Thinking** means the considerations thinking, analyzing other situation problems, deciding and judging the information all over the body.

➢ **Affective Domain:** Two life skills important in this domain are: -

  ▪ **Self-Awareness** means finding and understanding good or bad points of themselves. The students can know differences between themselves and others. These are ability, sexual, age, level of education, religion, skin, health etc.

  ▪ **Empathy** means imaginative and involuntary project of one’s self in to an object or being, leading to sympathetic understanding or vicarious experience of events witnessed. The theory of empathy tries to account for the observer’s expansive mood in viewing wide-open spaces, his experience of the feel of motion at the sight of a flying sea gull, etc.

➢ **Psychomotor Domain:** It emphasizes three pairs of life skills: -

  ▪ **Interpersonal Relationship**, social responsibility and communication means students can talk, speak and can use body language for communication about what one feels. He can accept others feelings which have to be appreciated with positive skill and interpersonal relationship.

  ▪ **Decision-Making** means to know problems or a cause of problems. It is selecting priorities and analyzing between good or bad. So, problem solving then means, students can select, evaluate and decide suitable choices. They can decide activities for daily life.

  ▪ **Coping with Emotions and Stress** skill means the students can evaluate emotion and its influence for self-behaviour. They can react suitably and know the causes of stress, control emotion, keep off problem and behave in a good way.

According to **UNICEF (2002)** there is no definitive list of life skills. The list below includes the psychosocial and interpersonal skills generally considered important. The choice of, and emphasis on, different skills will vary according to the topic and local
conditions (e.g., decision-making may feature strongly in HIV/AIDS prevention whereas conflict management may be more prominent in a peace education program). Though the list suggests these categories are distinct from each other, many skills are used simultaneously in practice. For example, decision-making often involves critical thinking (what are my options?) and values clarification (what is important to me?). Ultimately, the interplay between the skills is what produces powerful behavioural outcomes, especially where this approach is supported by other strategies such as media, policies and health services.

Following are some listed life skills of UNICEF:

- **Communication and Interpersonal Skills**
  - **Interpersonal Communication Skills**
    - Verbal/Nonverbal communication
    - Active listening
    - Expressing feelings; giving feedback (without blaming) and receiving feedback
  - **Negotiation/Refusal Skills**
    - Negotiation and conflict management
    - Assertiveness skills
    - Refusal skills
  - **Empathy**
    - Ability to listen and understand another's needs and circumstances and express that understanding
  - **Cooperation and Teamwork**
    - Expressing respect for others' contributions and different styles
    - Assessing one's own abilities and contributing to the group
  - **Advocacy Skills**
    - Influencing skills and persuasion
    - Networking and motivation skills

- **Decision-Making and Critical Thinking Skills**
  - **Decision Making / Problem Solving Skills**
    - Information gathering skills
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- Evaluating future consequences of present actions for self and others
- Determining alternative solutions to problems
- Analysis skills regarding the influence of values and attitudes of self and others on motivation

- Critical Thinking Skills
  - Analyzing peer and media influences
  - Analyzing attitudes, values, social norms and beliefs and factors affecting these
  - Identifying relevant information and information sources

- Coping and Self-Management Skills
  - Skills for increasing Internal Locus of Control
    - Self esteem/confidence building skills
    - Self awareness skills including awareness of rights, influences, values, attitudes, rights, strengths and weaknesses
    - Goal setting skills
    - Self evaluation / Self-assessment / Self-monitoring skills
  - Skills for Managing Feelings
    - Anger management
    - Dealing with grief and anxiety
    - Coping skills for dealing with loss, abuse, trauma
  - Skills for Managing Stress
    - Time management
    - Positive thinking
    - Relaxation techniques

Life Skills identified for Industrialized World/ Business Standards

In the Western world, which is largely free from violent warfare and where people have achieved a reasonable standard of living, there is still much demand for what can be understood as life skills. Numerous training programmes and advice centres exist for orientation to the world of work -- for understanding the job market and matching aptitudes
to job specifications and for training for self-employment. There are also various out-of-school programmes aimed at improving basic numeric and literacy not to mention thousands of adult education programmes (often evening courses) for people to expand their skills and broaden their knowledge and interests.

Alongside this has been a growing trend in training for personal development. This encompasses a whole range of social skills from conflict resolution (in the workplace and in personal relationships), assertiveness training and self-esteem to managing one's time and stress levels. These courses may be short-term workshops, residential programmes or evening classes. The growth in these kinds of programmes that aim for attitudinal, psychological and lifestyle change reflects the belief in education for self-improvement and for life change. The following life skills throw light on the set business standards:

**Standard 1 – Personal Management**

Plan and apply the strategies needed to obtain personal management skills in a business environment. For e.g.:

- **Understands on-going process of self-assessment in a business environment**
  - Identify and develop interpersonal skills related to self-initiative, including: Setting and meeting deadlines, Thinking clearly under pressure, Verbal and nonverbal communication skills, Practical intelligence (common sense), Personal integrity, Perceiving and exploiting power (taking responsibility), Risk taking, Tolerating ambiguity, Ongoing professional development.
  - Demonstrate interpersonal skills relevant to professional relationships, including: Tact and diplomacy, Clarity of verbal expression, Empathy and understanding, Respect for others, Recognition of others’ strengths, Active listening, Conflict management, Mental flexibility, Goal setting strategies.

- **Explains the necessity of self-management as it relates to business**
  - Conduct self-assessment and needs assessment in terms of: Sense of direction, Sense of purpose, and Ability to create/generate resources.
  - Correlate self-management skills to business success.

- **Uses effective time management as it relates to business**
  - Define the following terminology: Time management, Procrastination, Inertia, Priority, Consequence, Incentive.
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• Identify short-term and long-term goals.
• List influences on use of time.
• Identify time wasters: State principles of efficient time management, Identify reasons for procrastination, List ways to overcome procrastination, Develop habits that save time (e.g. planner, computer calendars, etc.), Develop a time plan.

Standard 2 – Communication

➢ Demonstrate essential and effective communication skills in a professional environment (e.g., reading, writing, speaking, and listening);
• Develop communication skill.
• Define hearing and listening.
• Describe how the following factors affect listening: Past experience, Age, Ego involvement, Personal anxieties, Fatigue level, Attention span, Intelligence, Linguistic aptitude, Reading skill, Organizational ability.
• Draw conclusions or make generalizations from another’s oral communication.
• Discuss general reasons for listening.
• Visualize results.
• Reduce barriers (or interference) that may impede effective listening.
• Outline the listening process.
• Follow oral instructions: Listen for and identify key words, Listen for words that identify a task, Listen for steps or actions to be performed, Listen for clues regarding the order or sequence in which a task is performed.
• Identify environmental factors that affect listening comprehension.
• Interpret nonverbal cues (eye contact, posture, gestures) to find meaning in a spoken conversation.
• Distinguish fact, opinion, and inference in oral communication of what was said.
• Restate or paraphrase a conversation to confirm one’s own understanding.
• Provide verbal and nonverbal feedback to indicate comprehension or non-comprehension.
Introduction

Standard 3 - School to Career
Model the skills needed to secure, maintain, and prosper in a business career. For e.g.:

- **Explore various careers as they relate to business.**
- Relate and organize information.
- Relate and recall information.
- Apply self-assessment skills to the career decision-making process.

- **Understand the process of obtaining employment**
- Prepare employment-related documents.
- Demonstrate effective job interviewing techniques.

- **Understand the process of keeping employment**
- Maintain a learning-process consciousness.
- Recognize the necessity and effectiveness in team workmanship.

- **Examine and apply good work habits**
- Describe objectively the actions of a team.
- Describe the role of the individual in a team.
- Identify team tasks: Establish team goals and objectives, Establish team standards, Receive and give information, Process information, Plan for action, List benefits of setting goals.

- **Describe ways to excel in the workplace**
- Maintain team effectiveness: Establish open communication lines, Recognize and resolve conflict, Evaluate the team process, Provide for the team’s physical needs.
- Build team consensus: Clarify statements, Reconcile disputes and disagreements, Propose alternative plans for action, Maintain task-focused procedures, Respond positively to ideas and suggestions, Express agreement, Express disagreement diplomatically.

Standard 4 - Problem Solving/Critical Thinking
Assess the factors that impact on decision making in business situations. For e.g.:

- **Compare problem-solving/critical thinking techniques**
- Employ problem-solving/critical thinking techniques
• Utilize problem-solving/critical thinking skills: Define critical issues, Select a problem for resolution, Analyze causes of a problem, Examine the results of a problem, Offer solutions to a problem, Select a solution to a problem, Develop an action plan, Implement an action plan.
• Draw conclusions and make generalizations.

➢ Demonstrate the process of analysis: e.g.:
• Distinguish fact, opinion, an inference, Analyze and identify a speaker’s point of view, Differentiate between learning and being taught.

➢ Identify the factors that impact decision-making
• Describe the factors that impact decision-making: e.g.: Needs and wants, Values, Goals, Standards.

Standard 5 – Research and Technology

Analyze and appraise data collected through a variety of research methods to solve business challenges (e.g., apply previous knowledge to changing situations; technological improvements of software).

➢ Develop the application of research in the classroom
• Develop research and assessment skills

➢ Identify various technological resources
• Utilize various technological resources: Electronic mail, Internet, and Various computer software packages.

LIFE SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAMMES

➢ LIFE SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAMME OF UN

In 1991, United Nation’s Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization had suggested to implement life skills techniques for teaching act in school based programme. Botvin (1985a) and his colleagues developed a curriculum – based programme called Life Skills Training (LST), which seeks to facilitate the development of generic life skills as well as skills and knowledge more specifically related to substance use.

The LST programme incorporates a curriculum to teach a wide range of personal and social skills in order to improve youth’s general competence and reduce potential motivations
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for substance use. The relative failure of informational approaches to prevent substance use and abuse has led to a broadening of the scope of substance abuse prevention programs and the development of more comprehensive, skills-based strategies. Specific applications of these skills are practical in social pressure situations.

The general cognitive–behavioural skills incorporated into the LST programme include the techniques for

(a) enhancing self-esteem (e.g. goal setting, behavioural change techniques, increasing positive self-statements)
(b) resisting persuasive appeals (e.g. identifying persuasive appeals, formulating counter-arguments)
(c) coping with anxiety (e.g. relaxation training, mental rehearsal)
(d) verbal and non-verbal communication skills; and
(e) a variety of other social skills (e.g. initiating social interactions, communication skills, complimenting, assertiveness skills). These skills are taught using a combination of instruction, modeling and rehearsal.

The LST programme also teaches students skills and knowledge more specifically related to the problem of substance abuse. For example, in addition to teaching students general assertiveness skills, students are taught how to use these skills to resist direct interpersonal pressure to use drugs.

Evaluation indicates that the LST programme is capable of producing initial reductions of 50 per cent or more in new cigarette smoking among junior high school students. In the most recent study conducted, the LST prevention programme has also been found to have a significant impact on both drinking and marijuana use (Botvin, 1985b). Moreover, this prevention approach has produced significant changes in knowledge and attitude relating to smoking, alcohol and marijuana use. Students’ assertiveness, social anxiety, self-esteem and decision-making have also changed as a function of participating in the programme. These changes have been in a direction consistent with the theory underlying this prevention model, which posits that the development of generic social coping skills, as well as the transfer of information and skills related more directly to social influences to smoke, drink or use drugs, can decrease substance abuse among adolescents.
LIFE SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAMME IN THAILAND

In January 1994, some Ministries of Public Health and Ministry of Education have suggested to include aspects of life skills sciences in education for prevention of AIDS, Narcotic drugs. Since 1997, the government of Thailand has come up with a plethora of plans some of these include Thai National Education Plan, Economic Plan and Social Development Plan, Prevention and Control AIDS and Narcotic Drug Plan was one of them. The National Adolescence Development Plan specified the importance of life skills of social responsibility. The Ministry of Education (1997-2001) stressed life skills techniques for adolescence in primary schools like White School Plan (1997), which has been a milestone in the planning. It has facilitated the Ministry of Education to encourage problem-based learning. Its one of the objective was to fight prevention to set a strategy of life skills for schools in Thailand.

The Ministry of Education in Thailand has provided life skills to adapt and set creative thinking, critical thinking, social responsibility, self-disclosure, insight to self awareness and empathy under affective domain as given by the WHO. These life skills suit the Thai situations, as many adolescents who get wrong value judgement and lack social responsibility can be treated with these life skills for anti-drug addiction.

Thailand life skills for Anti-drug addiction consist of:

1. Social responsibility means cooperation, participation in developing community, to increase the capabilities of each community and the focus was on developing manpower. The students know and feel about themselves as a part of society. They can help the growth of society to create social responsibility as they are proved themselves and their motivation will do well for others and society.

2. Self-disclosure and insight means to face the self. It means that the students can confide everything about themselves to others (teacher, parent, medical personnel) including the drug addiction. (Refer Fig. 1.29)
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□ LIFE SKILLS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Life skills, as examined in the report by Sabine Lobner (1997) on ILO Action Programme on Skills and Entrepreneurship Training for Countries Emerging from Armed Conflict during the 1996-97, provides an analysis of a variety of programmes in the area of life skills in South Africa and draws a number of lessons which can also be applicable to other countries. The report demonstrates that life skills increase efficiency and quality of work.

The overall conclusions highlight lessons learnt from the South African experiences which could be applicable in other contexts: Life skills training adds value to technical training is the main conclusion to be drawn after looking at the broad application of life skills.
programmes and their evaluation. Life skills’ training enhances the creativity and capacity to deal with difficult periods of transition. It increases efficiency and the quality of work. The programmes ideally accompany all stages of technical training, beginning with the selection process before and continuing with different components during and after technical training. In addition, it is important to reach substantial numbers of people with the programmes.

The programme further highlights that successful life skills training is people-centred, makes them aware of their potential and helps them to develop and use them. Badly designed or implemented training can also have a politically dangerous effect, as the frustration might increase if the training does not lead to an improvement in the living situation. In the often highly tense environment of a post-conflict situation, these frustrations could have risky consequences.

In this programme, trainers repeatedly identified the lack of certain life skills components as a bottleneck, but they might not know how to improve the training or how to tap resources of other organizations if they themselves lacked the capacity. Although life skills were taught on an informal level by technical trainers, there was no systematic and guided implementation. As consequential life skills training demanded different pedagogical approaches, many traditionally qualified trainers lacked the ability for its successful implementation.

The programme concluded that life skills already played a role in the selection process for the training courses. The more orientation, basic education and social skills people have and are able to communicate, the better the chance that they get admitted to the training courses. A needs assessment for life skills training should be made on the basis of a problem analysis from the perspective of both the trainees and the employers (if the training is not aimed at communities or self-employment).

The training should be exposed to the reality of the trainees and evaluated according to outcomes so that: (1) the trainees have a realistic idea of what they want and which steps they have to take to achieve their aim; (2) they have acquired a basic education which improves their understanding of technical training; (3) they are able to communicate their ideas and to work in groups; and (4) they have a basic understanding of how an economy functions.
Introduction

□ LIFE SKILLS APPROACH IN ARMENIA

The collapse of the Soviet system had major impacts on education in Armenia. Government annual expenditure per child decreased from $600 USD in 1992 to $36 USD in 1998. This had led to an overall decline in quality of education, accessibility and demand throughout the education system. Changes in the society influenced the system of education, bringing forth the need of gradual reform aimed at changes in structure, management and funding as well as curriculum of the schools.

To address some weaknesses in the existing curriculum and teaching methods, in 1998 the Ministry of Education and Science in collaboration with UNICEF and the International Institute of Global Education (IIGE) of the University of Toronto, Canada introduced Life Skills into the core curriculum.

The Nagano Olympic Fund supported the implementation of the project in 1998-1999. The funds were used to organize training for a Life Skills working group comprising teachers introduced to the Life Skills Curriculum in pilot schools. UNICEF, using Japanese contributions, equipped the working group and pilot schools.

On September 1, 1999, the Life Skills Pilot Project was launched in 16 schools throughout Armenia. These schools had been specially chosen, including equal numbers of schools from Yerevan and its provinces. Selected teachers attended special training seminars covering the philosophy of the Life Skills Project, its goals, active methods of teaching, and developed lessons as well as their assessments.

In the framework of this Project, selected schools were provided with some materials and necessary supplies. This had its impact on the Project implementation process and the creation of a positive atmosphere in the schools. At the end of 1999 the Life Skills Working Group carried out an interim evaluation of the project. Questionnaires were worked out for both teachers and pupils with the aim to investigate impact and effectiveness of the project.

The conclusions of the findings were:

- Children participate in Life Skills classes with great pleasure and enthusiasm.
- Development of such skills as self-assertion, self-expression, self-esteem, self-awareness in children.
- Created affection and understanding between children and teacher, a tendency of improvement of teacher-pupil relationships.
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- Development of new esteem and interpersonal relations between pupil’s, teachers and parents.
- A tendency to parents’ growing interest towards the school.
- Growing interest and participation of other subject teachers in Life Skills teaching methodologies.

HEALTH EDUCATION AND LIFE SKILLS TRAINING (WHO)

Health Education and Healthy Nutrition

According to WHO School Health Information Series (2002), WHO, Geneva, Health Education when applied to the issue of healthy nutrition, one or a combination of life skills can enable students to:

- Identify personal preferences among nutritious foods and snacks and choose them over foods and snacks that are less nourishing (e.g., self awareness, decision making)
- Identify and counter social pressures to adopt unhealthy eating practices (e.g., critical thinking, communication skills)
- Persuade parents to make healthy food and menu choices (e.g., interpersonal relationship skills, communication skills)
- Evaluate nutrition claims from advertisements and nutrition-related news stories (e.g., critical thinking)

Health Education and Mental Health Promotion

When applied to the issue of mental health, skills-based health education can be part of a broader effort to create a healthy psychosocial environment at school. A healthy school environment has been shown to enhance students' psycho-social and emotional well-being and learning outcomes when it:

- promotes cooperation rather than competition;
- facilitates supportive, open communications;
- views the provision of creative opportunities as important; and
- prevents physical punishment, bullying, harassment and violence.
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As an example, the Gatehouse Project has been developing and evaluating a school-based mental health promotion strategy in Australia since 1996.

Health Education and Sanitation and Hygiene

Improving sanitation, safe water supplies, and personal and food hygiene can greatly contribute to disease reduction, particularly those diseases and infections spread through human faeces. A crucial component of hygiene improvement programs are hygiene education. Using a skills-based approach to hygiene education, rather than providing information only, can enable students to:

- identify and avoid behaviours and environmental conditions that are likely to cause water- and sanitation-related diseases (e.g., problem solving, decision making).
- communicate messages about diseases and infection to families, peers and members of the community (e.g., communication skills, interpersonal relationship skills).
- encourage others (e.g., peers, siblings and family members) to change their unhealthy habits (e.g., critical thinking, communication skills, interpersonal relationship skills).

UNICEF's Water, Environment and Sanitation section has created a web resource on School Sanitation and Hygiene Education, which outlines a skills-based approach to sanitation and hygiene, identifies specific life skills that are relevant, and provides case studies of countries already implementing skills-based sanitation and hygiene education.

Health Education and Tobacco Use Prevention

When applied to the issue of tobacco use prevention, one or a combination of life skills can enable students to:

- Resist peer pressure to use tobacco (e.g., decision making, communication skills, coping with emotions).
- Resist pressure to use tobacco without losing face or friends (e.g., decision-making, communication skills, interpersonal relationship skills).
- Identify social factors that may influence them to use tobacco and to decide how they will personally deal with those influences (critical thinking, problem-solving, decision making).
• Inform others of the dangers and personal reasons for refraining from tobacco use (communication, self-awareness, interpersonal relationship skills).
• Effectively request a smoke-free environment (communication skills).
• Identify and counter persuasive messages in tobacco advertisements and other promotional materials (critical thinking, communication skills, self awareness).
• Support persons who are trying to stop using tobacco (interpersonal relationship, coping with emotions, coping with stress, problem solving).
• Cope with tobacco use by parents and others (interpersonal relationship skills, coping with emotions, coping with stress, problem solving).

☐ LIFE SKILLS - MASTERY TO EMPLOYMENT (INDIA)

The paradox between growing unemployment and lack of awareness about career options is the main culprit for driving young adults towards high-risk behaviour. Adolescents, who are synonymously addressed as young adults are often led into vocations and careers unrelated to their aptitude and suitability. U.N.B.Rao (2003), Chairman Urivi Vikram Chritiable Trust (UVCT), India disclosed this and said that the development of life skills is an important part of personality development, which can be beneficial for all young adults.

☐ LIFE SKILLS TRAINING (LST) BY BOTVIN (1985)

A brief description about this programme has already been given under the Life Skills Training Program of UN in this chapter. The general cognitive – behavioral skills incorporated into the Life Skills Training (LST) programme by Botvin (1985) includes the techniques for
• Decision-Making
• Problem Solving
• Communication Skills
• Coping with Emotion and Stresses
• Self-Esteem
• Social Responsibility
• Positive Thinking
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- Negative Skills

The operational definitions of these life skills are:

- **Decision-Making** means to know problems or a cause of problems. It is selecting priorities and analyzing between good or bad.

- **Problem Solving** then means students can select, evaluate and decided suitable choices.

- **Communication skills** means students can talk, speak and can use body language for communication about what one feels. He can accept others feelings which have to be appreciated in relationships.

- **Coping with Emotion and Stress Skill** means the students can evaluate emotion and its influence for self-behaviour. They can react suitably and know the cause of stress, control emotion, keep off problem and behave in a good way.

- **Self-Esteem and Self-Confidence** mean to know the feeling of value in oneself. These are the helpful, giving and proud of one’s abilities (like society, music, sport, art etc.). The students don’t take interest of the figure face, charm or sexual, intelligence etc.

- **Social Responsibility** means cooperation, participation in developing community, to increase the capability of each community and the focus is on developing manpower. The students know and feel about themselves as a part of society. They can help the growth of society to create social responsibility as they are proud of themselves and their motivation will do well for others and society.

- **Positive Thinking** means feeling achievement, that is, positive and considered to be morally good or practically useful in some way. Besides, it means an action or decision that is positive, is done or made in such a way that it is likely to have good results.

- **Negative Skills** means a word, expression, gesture etc that measures or suggests the meaning no, not etc. Negative is used to describe something that gives or suggests the answer no.

The planning of the LST program given by Botvin (1985a) was mainly psychological skill for life. Due to exhaustive nature of life skills, the present study has included only the following life skills:
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- Skill of Acquiring Knowledge.
- Skill of Critical Thinking.
- Skill of Decision-Making.
- Communication Skill.

➤ SKILL OF ACQUIRING KNOWLEDGE

By skill of Acquiring Knowledge we mean to increase knowledge around the content of what is being taught/learned as well as the familiarity level of comfort. Here one is aimed at acquiring the compiled, automatized, functional and proceduralized knowledge characteristic of a well developed cognitive skill. It also implies in Acquiring Knowledge and skills within the training environment how quickly individuals are flexibly using new skills.

Helping students to acquire and integrate new knowledge is one of the main aspects of learning. When students are learning new information, they must be guided in relating the new knowledge to what they already know, organizing information and then making it part of their long-term memory when students are acquiring new skills and processes, they must learn the steps, then shape the skill or process to make it efficient and effective for them and finally, internalize or practice the skill or process so they can perform it easily.

Getting evidence of the degree to which pupils acquired factual information or understanding or the ability apply what they know is always made easier when teachers are able to define exactly what they mean in each instance. If a teacher, for example, means by teaching factual information that his pupils should be able to answer appropriate questions requiring the facts immediately, this gives him a good idea as to the kind of test questions to use to get evidence of the success of his teaching. If he defines understanding as meaning to paraphrase, to pick out the central idea, to explain, or to make correct inferences, each of these definitions helps him in the construction of items to get evidence on the degree to which his pupils can do these things. Whether or not a pupil has learned facts or acquired skill of information of a factual nature can be measured in either of two ways:

(i) One way is to find out whether or not he can recognize correct facts, that is, facts should be given in response to specific questions. An illustration of recognizing the correct fact would be a pupil’s under-lining of the 3rd choice in the following multiple-choice question: Underline the name of India’s present finance minister:
The pupil may not have able to recall the name Chidambaram but he could recognize it as correct. (ii) The second general method of getting evidence as to whether or not pupils have acquired the skill of information in the sense of remembering facts, names, principles or other items of information is to find out whether or not they can recall them. A question similar to the above that requires recall might be worded as follows: What is the name of the present finance minister of India?

In both the methods skill of Acquiring Knowledge is measured through achievement of facts or information.

Achievement is synonymous with the accomplishment or proficiency of performance in a given skill or body of knowledge. Good (1959) in the Dictionary of Education, referred to academic achievement as the knowledge attained or skill developed in the school subjects, usually designed by test scores or marks assigned by the teacher. Hawes and Hawes (1982) defined achievement as successful accomplishment or performance in particular subject, area or courses, usually by reasons of skills, hard work and interest, typically summarized in various types of grades, marks, scores or descriptive commentary. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (2002), achievement is a thing done successfully especially with effort and skill.

For McCombs and Marzano (1990), achievement outcomes have been regarded as a function of two characteristics, skill and will. These must be considered separately because possessing the will may not ensure success if the skill is lacking. An achievement is simply the successful conclusion of a worthwhile task, project, or goal. It includes skill of ability to prioritize, create plans, overcome obstacles and follow through, etc., which are essential skills for professional and personal success. Here is a brief summary of six essential components of skill of Acquiring Knowledge (achievement):
• **Define Goals and Objectives:** The ability to clearly define goals and objectives is the first, critical step to the achievement of those goals and objectives. Without a clear vision, one’s chance of achievement can be drastically limited.

• **Create a Plan:** Achievements don’t happen by accident. They are the result of focused effort and actions. For this one’s plan must be realistic and viable, meaning that if followed, it has a reasonable likelihood of success.

• **Overcome Obstacles:** Problems, challenges, and unforeseeable setbacks are a natural part of life. Developing and improving one’s abilities to overcome obstacles — both mental attitude and problem-solving abilities, is an essential part of any worthwhile achievement.

• **Preserve:** Some of the most rewarding achievements require the greatest investment in time and resources. Having a commitment to preserve, especially when faced with obstacles, is a key differentiator between achievement and failure.

• **Involve Others:** No one becomes successful alone. Individual and team achievement is greatly impacted by one’s abilities to delegate, ask for assistance, and solicit support from friends, family, teachers, co-workers, mentors and others who have experience in the area of one’s pursuits.

• **Recognize Partial Success:** Every major achievement is the culmination of many little ones, with each of the smaller achievements providing important steps that lead to success.

As one complete each task in his plan, the sense of achievement will continue to rise. This creates a pattern of personal success that will help to attain every goal one chose to pursue throughout his life. In the present study, achievement in academic subject was the prime concern of investigator; therefore achievement tests were used to assess the skill of Acquiring Knowledge.

➤ **SKILL OF CRITICAL THINKING**

The term *critical* is derived from ancient Greek. The word *critical* derives etymologically from two Greek roots *kriticos* (meaning discerning judgement) and *kriterian* (meaning standards). Etymologically, then the word implies development of discerning judgement based on standard.
In Webster’s New World Dictionary (1989), the relevant entry reads characterized by careful analysis and judgement and is followed by the gloss: critical, in its strictest sense, implies an attempt at objective judgement so as to determine both merits and faults. For example, those who think critically typically engage in intellectual practices of the following sort: monitoring, reviewing and assessing goals and purposes: the way issues and problems are formulated, the information or data of evidence presented for acceptance, interpretations of such information, data or evidence; the quality of reasoning presented or developed, basic concepts or ideas inherent in thinking, assumptions made, implications and consequences that may or may not follow; points of view and frames of reference. Those who think critically, therefore, characteristically strive for such intellectual ends as clarity, precision, accuracy, relevance, depth and logicalness.

Critical thinking is thinking more deeply. It involves reasoning logically and analyzing, organizing, examining and questioning information to attain several possible answers. The concept of critical thinking as defined by Robert Ennis (1985) states that critical thinking is focused on deciding what to believe or do. This definition allows flexibility and diversity of application, including decision-making, problem solving, value judgement and higher levels of Bloom’s (1974) taxonomy.

Critical thinking is convergent or judgemental thinking, where the mind discovers a common attribute, expressed as a word or phrase, which is shared by more than one idea or concept in the population of ideas being considered. Reasoning which results in a value judgement is termed by many thinkers as Critical Thinking and is an aim of education, which everyone accepts.

Attributes of a critical thinker according to Ferrett (1997) are:

- asks pertinent questions.
- assesses statements and arguments.
- is able to admit a lack of understanding or information.
- has a sense of curiosity.
- is interested in finding new solutions.
- is able to clearly define a set of criteria for analyzing ideas.
- is willing to examine beliefs, assumptions, and opinions and weigh them against facts.
• listens carefully to others and is able to give feedback.
• sees that critical thinking is a lifelong process of self-assessment.
• suspends judgement until all facts have been gathered and considered.
• looks for evidence to support assumption and beliefs.
• is able to adjust opinions when new facts are found.
• looks for proof.
• examines problems closely.
• is able to reject information that is incorrect or irrelevant.

➤ SKILL OF DECISION-MAKING

The dictionary meaning of *decision* is the act of reaching conclusions or making up one’s mind. Decision-making has been discussed by various authors in various ways of describing as a process, or in the form of theories or models.

Decision-making implies a process, which occurs over a period of time. Theory and research reveal that decision making involves becoming aware of the need to make a decision going through a process of working on that decision (i.e., gathering information, identifying options, evaluating options, selecting among options) making a decision and then taking action to implement that decision (Tiedman and O’Hara, 1963; Harren, 1979). On the basis of this viewpoint, decision-making refers to making a choice among options and it occurs during problem solving. But not all decision making is part of problem solving. It is therefore, presented as a separate thinking skill.

Clarke et al., (1965) suggested four stages in the decision – making process. At each stage, the person choosing from alternatives requires certain information: 4

• information about alternative actions;
• information about possible outcomes;
• information about probabilities linking actions to outcome; and
• information about preferences for the various outcomes.

Gelatt’s (1962) decision-making framework assumes a decision maker who requires information to produce a recommended course of action, which may be terminal or investigatory depending upon how it relates to the decision maker’s purposes.
Introduction

In 1989, Gelatt summed up decision making as the process of arranging and rearranging information into a choice of action. For Janis and Mann (1977) decision-making involves a conflict within each individual, who is faced with a personally relevant decision as simultaneously opposing tendencies to accept and reject a given course of action. According to Arsham (1994-2006), decision-making is central to human activity and is the core of all managerial activities. Planning, for example, involves the following decisions: What should be done? How? Where? By whom? As shown in the following Figure 1.30.

![Diagram of Decision-Making Process]

Fig.1.30: Process of Decision Making.

The decision making process contains a few well-defined stages, including describing, prescribing and controlling the problem, each of these stages requires a set of relevant questions to be asked. Moreover, this process is never ending since the problem keeps changing, therefore there is always need for feedback to measure the effect of decision. Each decision problem makes the one successful as the decisions becomes rules, which afterwards serves to make other decisions.

> COMMUNICATION SKILL

An effective communicator successfully interacts with others using a variety of mediums, e.g., reading, writing, speaking, listening, painting, singing, playing instruments, dancing, dramatizing, sculpting etc. The attributes of an effective communicator can be:

- Uses appropriate methods to communicate with others.
- Plans, organizes and selects ideas to communicate.
- Is flexible and responsible in communication.
- Recognizes attributes of the audience.
- Communicates clearly in oral, artistic, written and non-verbal forms.
- Expresses ideas, feelings and beliefs aesthetically.
- Communicates with others in a civil, respectful way to work towards common goals.
- Responds appropriately when receiving communication.
- Receives and understands ideas communicated through a variety of modes.
- Accesses prior knowledge necessary to interpret information and construct meaning.
- Supports effective communication by seeking clarification and providing appropriate feedback.
- Recognizes effective communication.
- Adapts and adjusts communication to suit the needs of the intended audience.

In the present study all the selected life skills viz. skill of Acquiring Knowledge, skill of Critical thinking, skill of Decision Making and Communication Skill as discussed above were assessed with the help of Life Skills questionnaire adopted from Botvin’s (1985) Life Skills Training (LST) Programme.

**LEARNING APPROACHES**

Academic learning outcomes are believed to be influenced by a complex system that influences the interaction of student personality characteristics and learning processes.

The context of learning has been controlled in many experimental designs, so that certain fundamental general principles can be produced. The fundamental principals of stimulus – response learning have certainly helped teacher much but the various theories developed had not given an answer to teachers how pupils or students learn. As the formal education system defines learning in its own terms.

Over the past three decades, education researchers have approached an understanding of learning from a phenomenon – logical perspective. Qualitative methods were employed to assess students’ experience of learning and the ways in which they made sense of the individual approach to the tasks prescribed by their course of study. The work developed by
these educational researchers has moved away from an assumption of stable personality characteristics and has placed greater emphasis on the choices an individual makes in selecting an approach to a learning task.

The choice an individual makes in selecting an approach to a learning task, was somewhat the education researchers had approached to an understanding of learning. These researchers also moved away from several usual assumptions that may affect task, but a great emphasis was laid on the choices an individual makes in finding an approach to a learning task.

According to James Rhem (1995), in the United States, the phrase learning styles commonly accompanies discussions of personality differences. These discussions almost always create a kind of short-term, local excitement, but they tend to exaggerate the correlations between individual personality types and cognitive engagement. As Wilbert McKeachie (1988) pointed out in the last issue of The National Teaching and Learning Forum, the best validated conceptions of learning styles stem instead from research begun in Sweden in the mid-1970s by Ference Marton and Roger Saljo.

In the last twenty years, this line of inquiry (in which the idea of styles emerges as secondary to a larger preoccupation with approaches to learning) has been pursued by many researchers working in a variety of countries. The research has looked at thousands of students studying in over 40 disciplines. Repeatedly, it has found fundamental patterns in studying and learning behavior as it actually occurs within the contexts of university education.

Probably the most influential finding of the original experiments, the researchers say, was what they describe as an obvious aspect of learning virtually ignored by earlier research. And that was the fact that many students did not get the point of what they were reading simply because they were not looking for it. What were they looking for? They were looking for the facts they thought they would be tested on. They were not looking for the meaning of the text. In a sense, for them, at least as they perceived the situation, the meaning of the text stood in direct relation to the way they expected to be assessed. They were taking what has become known as a Surface Approach rather than a Deep Approach to learning.
Alarmingly, studies in Australia suggested that students progressively drop a Deep Approach to learning as they move through high school and college. It appears that in many ways, traditional teaching pushes students toward superficial levels of engagement with material, even as it hopes to do the opposite. To find out, this problem these researchers put students at the center of their work and took a qualitative look at what students thought they were doing when they studied. They avoided questions such as:

- Do introverts learn mathematics more easily than extroverts?
- Why are some teachers more effective than others?

Instead of asking how and why questions, they concentrated on what questions: What does it take to be good at learning from a text; to learn arithmetic; or to be an effective teacher?

The shift towards a fuller understanding of learning phenomena in context involved an inquiry into the meaning of the underlying human actions behind them. Instead of projecting laboratory ideas about learning onto real-world settings, and rather than assuming that output or achievement equaled intelligence, they approached students, observed their actions and listened very carefully as they described how they actually went about studying in particular situations. In the end, they focused on metacognition as the heart of learning and view it as a phenomenon more influenced by the demands of particular learning environments than by predispositions of personality. The research does not boil down into an easy or mechanistic answer to the challenges of good college teaching precisely because it shows very clearly how learning and teaching must be considered in relation to both the content and the context of the teaching.

But repeatedly, Ference Marton (1975) (Sweden), Noel Entwistle (1987) (Scotland), Paul Ramsden (1984) (Australia) and a host of colleagues found the same emerging patterns which have strong implications for making teaching in college effective. For example, the same student may take a Deep Approach in a humanities class, where it seems to be demanded and a Surface Approach in a science class where just grabbing the facts and formulae seems to equal academic success. Indeed, the very way in which these researchers, in dialogue with one another, moved towards the term approach and away from the term process indicates how inseparable an awareness of context is from their insights into how
students learn. **Approach**, they feel, embraces a sense of the student’s intention in taking up a learning task as well as how the student goes about the task (processing it).

Intention emerges as perhaps the dominant idea in the pair (if one must dominate), because the how’s of learning necessarily vary. And this is where the Deep/Surface Approach literature takes up the idea of learning styles, not in terms of fixed traits or unyielding attributes of individual students, but in terms of cognitive (and social) orientations within Deep or Surface Approaches to learning. It’s true that the how’s do vary in response to personal preference, habit, and personality, but they vary more in response to a student’s perception of particular contexts and the intention the student forms as a result. Students build toward understanding in one of two general ways. Some draw a quick mental sketch of the material to be grasped, using analogies, metaphors, and ties to personal experience, and then fill in and alter that framework as they acquire more and more detailed information. Others build up a framework piece by piece only as they acquire knowledge of the details.

- The first approach roughly describes what the researchers call comprehension learning.
- The second describes operations learning. Both are necessary—on both global and local levels—to develop real understanding.

Social orientations also affect student learning. Research at the Oxford Polytechnic and the Open University found four general social orientations: academic, vocational, personal, and social. Each of these also differed in response to the amount of extrinsic or intrinsic motivation students felt.

**Ramsden (1984)** emphasized that a delicate balance was needed. It was not so much the specific teaching and assessment methods one used, that make the difference to the quality of student learning, but the reasons why one used them and the way his students perceived him. The key thing to understand about approaches was that they arise from the student’s perception of the teacher’s requirements.

In the field of educational research, researchers have employed a range of methods to study the learning outcomes. But over the past 28 years, quantitative approaches, using psychometric techniques to develop questionnaires to access students’ approaches to studying have been adopted by **Entwistle, Hanley & Hounsell (1979)**, **Biggs (1987)** and
Schmeck, Ribich & Ramaniah (1977). Measuring students’ approaches to learning has been seen as a means of:

- Encouraging a more systematic approach to academic teaching (Katz & Henry, 1988).
- Assisting individual academics that are concerned to monitor and improve the effectiveness of their own teaching (Richardson, 1990).
- Identifying students at risk through ineffective study strategies (Tait & Entwistle, 1996).
- Observing the outcomes (Biggs & Collis, 1982) and experience of learning (Marton, Hounsell & Entwistle, 1984).
- Evaluating the quality of student learning (Meyer & Muller, 1990).

There are four key classifications, which, however, offer a checklist of general features to consider in developing strategies and cultivating environments, which help Deep Approaches to thrive.

- **Motivational context:** We learn best when we feel we need to know. Intrinsic motivation remains inextricably bound to some level of choice and control. Courses that remove these take away the sense of ownership and kill one of the strongest elements in lasting learning.
- **Learner Activity:** Deep learning and *doing* travel together. Doing in itself isn’t enough. Faculty must connect activity to the abstract conceptions that make sense of it, but passive mental postures lead to superficial learning.
- **Interaction with others:** As Noel Entwistle (1981) put it in an email message, the teacher is not the only source of instruction or inspiration. Peers working as groups enjoin dimensions of learning that lectures and readings by themselves cannot touch.
- **A well-structured knowledge base:** This doesn’t just mean presenting new material in an organized way. It also means engaging and reshaping the concepts students bring with them when they register. Deep Approaches, learning for understanding, are integrative processes. The more fully new concepts can be connected with students’ prior experience and existing knowledge, the more likely it is they will be impatient with inert facts and eager to achieve their own syntheses.
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The experimental procedure adopted by Marton (1975a, 1975b) and Saljo (1975) in their qualitative studies described what the students had preferred ways of tackling their learning task, thus different approaches to study were found among learners. In many ways this tide of research ends up affirming the primary importance of helping students learn how to learn, how to study, how to know themselves as learners (Marton et al, 1984). Study skills courses, however, do not do that, cultivating this awareness must become part of coursework itself. The approaches adopted by students—Deep or Surface—don’t represent intelligence or character (or personality). It represents a relationship between the student and what he or she is trying to grasp.

Learning means different things to different people. Saljo (1979) classified the conceptions held by respondents in his interview-based study into five categories:

1. Learning as a quantitative increase in knowledge. Learning is acquiring information or knowing a lot.
2. Learning as memorising. Learning is storing information that can be reproduced.
3. Learning as acquiring facts, skills and methods that can be retained and used as necessary.
4. Learning as making sense or abstracting meaning. Learning involves relating parts of the subject matter to each other and to the real world.
5. Learning as interpreting and understanding reality in a different way. Learning involves comprehending the world by re-interpreting knowledge.

It has been argued that 1, 2 and 3 are views, which underpin surface learning strategies, while 4 and 5 relate to deep learning.

Biggs (1987a), Entwistle and Entwistle (1991) and Trigwell and Prosser (1991) have confirmed that the approaches student adopt have subsequent effect on the quality of learning.

The research findings of McKeachie (1988), Schmeck (1988), Weinstein and Van Mater Stone (1992) have also suggested that learning and studying process adopted by
students are helpful to distinguish the successful students from less successful ones. Murray - Harvey (1993) using path analysis to investigate students learning in higher education, also concluded that learning process variables such as approaches to studying are important factors in determining students learning progress.

The work conducted by Marton & Saljo (1976) identified two levels of processing: Deep and Surface. A Deep Approach entails looking for meaning in the matter being studied and relating it to other experiences and ideas with a critical approach. A Surface Approach can be thought of as a reliance on rote - learning and memorization in isolation to other ideas. It is generally held that the development of a Deep Approach is consistent with the avowed aims of higher education. Expert students are expected to show more deep level processing, higher levels of critical thinking, and ability to engage in self- regulated learning than less advanced students.

In the case of surface – level processing the student directs his attention towards learning the text itself (the sign), i.e., he has a reproductive conception of learning which means that he is more or less forced to keep to a rote- learning strategy. Biggs (1987a), Entwistle & Entwistle (1991) and Trigwell & Prosser (1991) stressed that the Surface Approach generally brings about a superficial grasp of the subject content and a low level of conceptual understanding whereas the Deep Approach evokes understanding and integrating of principles and concepts (Murray – Harvey, 1993).

In the case of deep- level processing, the student is directed towards the intentional content of the learning material (what is signified), i.e., he is directed towards comprehending what the author wants to say about, for instance, a certain scientific problem or principle.

The Deep Approach refers to a level of understanding whereby the learner understands the content, the argument and the meaning of the learning materials and is able to apply a critical point of view and can justify and interact with the learning materials. The Surface Approach involves a superficial mastery of the learning materials where the learner typically memorises the facts.

Biggs (1979) further proposed that there were motive and strategy components underlying deep, surface and achieving approaches to studying and that the learner tends to be influenced to act by the corresponding motive.
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Weinstein & Van Mater Stone (1992) reported that successful students are better able to utilize learning strategies that are characteristic of the Deep Approach. Subsequent work (Laurillard, 1984; Ramsden, 1984) has shown that some students may utilize a Surface Approach for one task but a Deep Approach for another, depending on the students’ perception of the nature of the task and the teaching and learning environment. Entwistle (1987) provides a useful summary of the main characteristics of learning approaches as:

Deep Approach
1. Intension to understand.
2. Vigorous interaction with content.
3. Relate new ideas to previous knowledge.
4. Relate concepts to everyday experience.
5. Relate evidence to conclusions.
6. Examine the logic of the argument.

Surface Approach
1. Intension to complete task requirements.
2. Memorise information needed for assessment.
3. Failure to distinguish principles from examples.
4. Treat task as an external imposition.
5. Focus on discrete elements without integration.
6. Unreflectiveness about purpose or strategies.

Strategic Approach
1. Intension to obtain highest possible grades.
2. Organize time and distribute effort to greatest effect.
3. Ensure conditions and materials for studying appropriate.
4. Use previous exam papers to predict questions.
5. Be alert to cues about marking schemes.

It is important to clarify what they are not.

- Although learners may be classified as deep or surface, they are not attributes of individuals: one person may use both approaches at different times, although he or she may have a preference for one or the other.
• They correlate fairly closely with motivation: deep with intrinsic motivation and surface with extrinsic, but they are not necessarily the same thing. A person can adopt either approach with either motivation.

• There is a third form, known as the Achieving or Strategic Approach, which can be summarised as a very well organised form of Surface approach, and in which the motivation is to get good marks.

For the measurement of learning approaches, Surface Motive (SM), Surface Strategy (SS), Deep Motive (DM), Deep Strategy (DS), Achieving Motive (AM) and Achieving Strategy (AS) were used by Biggs (1987b) for the development of Study Process Questionnaire (SPQ).

Entwistle & Tait (1995) classified the dimensions of learning on the basis of Revised Approaches to Studying Inventory (RASI): -

**Deep Approach**
--intention to understand
--relating ideas
--use of evidence
--active interest

**Surface Approach**
--intention to reproduce
--unrelated memorizing
--passive learning
--fear of failure

**Strategic Approach**
--study organization
--time management
--alertness to assessment demands
--intention to excel
--academic self-confidence

While reconsidering the dimensions of approaches to learning Kember, D.; Wong, A. and Leung, D. Y.P. (1999) discussed Career Motive (CM); Fear of Failure (FF) and Meaning Approach (MA) in their studies.
Learning cannot be viewed in isolation but must be seen in a wider content including factors such as the curriculum, assessment, and models of teaching, students’ prior experience of education and their perceptions of learning. The aim therefore, is to create an environment that encourages students to develop a Deep Approach to learning, encouraging students to develop a deeper understanding of course material, which in turn, creates higher quality learning outcomes. Quality learning outcomes include: a good understanding of the discipline, as well as developing higher order skills, such as the ability to think critically and process information at high levels of generality (Biggs, 1993; Knight, 1995; Trigwell & Prosser, 1991).

Students who have only Surface Approach to learning do not acquire enough skills to tackle life’s situations and therefore feel panicky when dealing with these situations. The students fail to come to grip with the actual process of communication because the Learning Approach that they had temporarily undergone was not sufficiently practiced so as to become a permanent behaviour of Deep Study Approach.

The whole process of education seems to become a single channel broadcast system wherein very little of planned communication takes place. The climate of the usual classroom sometimes becomes very authoritarian and gives the learner no freedom or choice to learn. This leads to a cold war atmosphere and quite often student’s resort to other methods of showing their frustrations. Otherwise, if given opportunities in learning strategies are accessible through introspection.

The research procedure adopted by Marton (1975,1976) involves asking students how they set about reading a chapter from a textbook, as well as finding out how well their understanding of the ideas in that chapter tallies with the intentions of the author. Philosophically, even if a theorist, or a saint, sees an important truth, his ability to communicate that truth will be distorted by the formal symbolism with which he tries to pass on his ideas. Those who try to understand the ideas are themselves limited by preconceptions, attitudes and incomplete previous knowledge. It seems an intriguing research idea to investigate the qualitative differences between the ways different students come to understand or misunderstand, what they read.

One another important aspect of Marton’s (1975,1976) research was that it points up the other strong frame, which limits our ability to, think imaginatively about learning. The
formal educational system defines in its own characteristics and in rather narrow way. Our examination systems may, in fact be encouraging those ineffective learning strategies, which lead the students to rely on the surface structure of language and the regurgitation of facts, rather than on ways of coming to understand important ideas and relationships. This theory of qualitative differences in learning seems to carry with it important implications for educators and the methodology is one which could be followed by teachers and lecturers in relation to their own subject area.

Some researchers have suggested that instruments measuring approaches to learning have an important role in the professional development of teachers in higher education (Richardson, 1990) and in encouraging a more systematic approach to academic teaching (Katz & Henry, 1988). Newstead (1992) observed that in recent decades there has been an explosion of research into individual differences in student learning.

Biggs (1993) set the deep/surface debate in the context of Chinese culture with the consideration of an apparent paradox, echoed by Marton, Watkins & Tang (1997), namely the perception in Asian Cultures that understanding may come through memorization (Tang refers to this as deep memorizing). Kember (1996) discusses the paradox of the Asian learner: anecdotal evidence of rote learning but high academic achievement.

**FACTORS INFLUENCING THE STUDENTS' ADOPTION OF APPROACHES TO LEARNING**

While Deep and Surface Approaches characterize the way students engage with a task or unit, they do not describe how the students develop or choose the respective approach to learning. Biggs (1987) developed the Presage, Process and Product model that describes the process of student learning as follows:
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Fig. 1.31: The 3P Model of Student Learning.

The 3P Model of Learning describes the way in which students' approach learning tasks and how they organise their time to complete them. Besides, Booth et al. (as cited in Hall et al., 2002) found out that although students cannot simultaneously adopt both Surface and Deep Approaches to a specific task, their approach may interact with the way they organise their time to complete the task. For example, student may rote learn in an organised way (Surface and Achieving Approaches) or search for meaning in an organised way (Deep and Achieving Approaches). The model implies that students do not adopt deep and surface approaches to learning because they have Deep or Surface learning personalities but because different approaches are a response to students' learning environments. Hall et al. (2002) and Bonanno et al. (1998) found out that changes made to the learning environment which included the use of group problem solving exercises, group presentations and group assignments in first accounting subjects resulted in students increasing their Deep Learning Approach. Meanwhile, Ball (1995) on the otherhand found out that applying problem based learning strategies and real life exercises can promote Deep Learning Approaches among students.

The Biggs (1987) 3P Model of Learning emphasized the importance of the students' perceptions of the learning environment towards their Learning Approach. To support this argument, Eley (as cited in Hall et al., 2002) found out that students' approaches to learning

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differed across different subjects within the same course i.e. lower deep and higher surface approaches in accounting compared to business law.

Referring to the Biggs (1987) 3P Model of Learning (presage, process and product factors), although educators do not have much control over students' characteristics, they do have control over the learning environment. The model represents not only a linear movement from presage to process to product, but also allows for interactions between the components that form an integrated system, which is in equilibrium. A change to any part of the system affects other parts of the system.

**Presage factors** include both students’ characteristics and aspects of the teaching context. Student presage factors are relatively stable learning-related characteristics that include components of learning, prior knowledge, motivation, work habits, study skills, abilities, locus of control orientation, perceived self efficacy, learning style and social and cultural factors. Teaching presage factors include conceptions of learning and teaching, teaching styles and methods, curriculum organization, task difficulty, assessment procedures, time available, freedom allowed, classroom management, resource materials and the classroom climate.

**Process factors** are the result of the interaction between student and teaching presage factors and refer to the way the students handle the learning task by adopting deep, surface or achieving approaches to learning. Deep is defined as learning approach characterized by an intention to seek the meaning of the material being studied by using the material to elaborate and transform it. In the Surface Approach, the material being studied is reproduced using routine procedures. A deep approach to learn is associated with constructivist teaching (Biggs & Moore, 1993; Dart, 1997; Tang, 1998) which suggested that learners actively construct knowledge for themselves. On the otherhand, a Surface Approach to learning (Biggs & Moore, 1993; Dart 1997; Tang, 1998) is related to the tradition transmission models of teaching in which information is transferred from teachers to learners and in which learners assume passive roles. An achieving approach, in which intention is ego enhancement or excelling in organized activities and cue-seeking behaviour.

**Product factors** are the outcomes of learning and are determined mainly by the approaches to students learning. Outcomes may be categorized quantitatively (how much is
learned), qualitatively (how well it is learned) and institutionally (relating to either quantitative or qualitative outcomes or both, leading to the awarding of grades).

In the present study only the Deep and Surface Approaches of learning were considered. The features of Deep and Surface Approach by Ramsden (1984) can be summarized as in the form of Table 1.3.

**TABLE 1.3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic Features of Deep and Surface Approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>DEEP APPROACH</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus is on <em>what is signified</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relates previous knowledge to new knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relates knowledge from different courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relates theoretical ideas to everyday experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relates and distinguishes evidence and argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizes and structures content into coherent whole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis is internal, from within the student</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gow et al. and Sharma (as cited in Hall et al, 2002) have found several variables which will influence the students' Learning Approach such as workload, the nature of assessment tasks, teaching style, staff/student ratios, the structure of the course and lectures, enthusiasm of lecturers and tutors, generation of a personal learning context and provision of feedback.

**TEACHER'S ROLE IN ORIENTATION TOWARDS LEARNING APPROACHES**

Curtin University of Technology (2004a) suggested that Surface Approach to learning is encouraged by university teachers who demand mostly memorisation, rote learning and a focus on marks through assessment (which creates anxiety); overload the curriculum with excessive material (and focus on covering the syllabus); give little or no feedback on progress, and little choice in methods of learning. Surface approaches are also reinforced when students come from school systems where attainment in the qualifying entrance examination is seen as an end in itself. Meanwhile, a Deep Approach to learning is
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encouraged by assessment methods that foster active and long term engagement with learning tasks; stimulating teaching which demonstrates the lecturer's personal commitment to the subject matter and stresses its meaning and relevance to students; clearly stated academic expectations; and choice in the method and content of study. It also recommended several ways to improve lecturers to foster Deep Approach to learning:

- Allow the students take control by inviting them to refocus on their learning, asking questions related to the lecture and breaking the large group into pairs for short sessions.
- Provide summary of the lecture a week earlier and let the students know that the lecture time will be used to solve problems or to discuss issues based on that information.
- Ask students to reflect in silence in order to think, formulate a question, and make a suggestion, to share a task in pairs or in small groups. In large lectures, call the names of students that the lecturer can remember and try to remember more names each week.
- Start the lecture by requesting the students to tell the lecturer about last week's lecture and its application in their lives or test their comprehension of the lecture.
- Conclude the lecture by allowing the students to self test themselves on whether they have mastered the learning outcomes.

Research also indicates the following instructional methods help promote deep learning:

- Encouraging faculty/student interaction (e.g. meet groups to plan projects, personalise teaching)
- Encouraging student/student interaction (e.g. group projects, peer tutoring)
- Explain to the students that they are expected to participate, contribute to debate and activities and prepare for the tutorial by reading, engaging in activities etc. Also, remind the students that the lecturer will not generally be using the tutorial as an opportunity to re-present the lecture.
- Plan activities that will require students to actively engage rather than passively receive such as role-playing, discuss various aspects of a problem in pairs etc.
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According to Christopher Knapper (1998), Deep and Surface learning can be considered in terms of the Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Deep learning requires higher order cognitive thinking skills such as analysis (i.e. compare, contrast) and synthesis (students are required to integrate components into a new whole, e.g. What is the relationship....). Surface learning, on the other hand, consists mainly of comprehension and reproducing knowledge (rote learning), which is often forgotten by students shortly after the course, has ended.

The University of Queensland, Australia offers guidelines on how to engender a Deep Approach among students by supporting independent learning, organise appropriate learning activities that require students to be active in their learning experience, reward deep learning and inform students in advance of the marking criteria and standard required. Christopher Knapper (1998) emphasized the roles of manageable workload, consistency of assessment tasks and the learning objectives, appropriateness of teaching methods and learning objectives towards encouraging students to adopt the Deep Approach to learning.

The following Table 1.4 compiled from the work of Biggs (1999), Entwistle (1988) and Ramsden (1992) provides some very valuable characteristics of the approaches and illustrates the importance of how we manage the curriculum impacts on the learning process. For example, clearly stated academic aims, opportunities to exercise some choice and well aligned assessment strategies that help students to build confidence can be found among the factors identified as encouraging a Deep Approach.

Table 1.4
Characteristics and Factors that encourage Deep and Surface Approaches to Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deep Learning</th>
<th>Surface Learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Definition:</strong></td>
<td>Examining new facts and ideas critically, and tying them into existing cognitive structures and making numerous links between ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accepting new facts and ideas uncritically and attempting to store them as isolated, unconnected, items.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Looking for meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relying on rote learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristics</strong></td>
<td>Focusing on the central argument or <strong>concepts</strong> needed to solve a problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Focusing on outwards signs and the <strong>formulae</strong> needed to solve a problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receiving information passively.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introduction

Encouraged by Students'

Interacting actively.
Distinguishing between argument and evidence.
Making connections between different modules.
Relating new and previous knowledge.
Linking course content to real life.
Having an intrinsic curiosity in the subject.
Being determined to do well and mentally engaging when doing academic work.
Having the appropriate background knowledge for a sound foundation.
Having time to pursue interests, through good time management.
Positive experience of education leading to confidence in ability to understand and succeed.
Showing personal interest in the subject.
Bringing out the structure of the subject.

Encouraged by Teachers'

Concentrating on and ensuring plenty of time for key concepts.
Confronting students' misconceptions.
Engaging students in active learning.
Using assessments that require

Failing to distinguish principles from examples.
Treating parts of modules and programmes as separate.
Not recognising new material as building on previous work.
Seeing course content simply as material to be learnt for the exam.
Studying a degree for the qualification and not being interested in the subject.
Not focussing on academic areas, but emphasising others (e.g. social, sport).
Lacking background knowledge and understanding necessary to understand material.
Not enough time / too high a workload.
Cynical view of education, believing that factual recall is what is required.
High anxiety
Conveying disinterest or even a negative attitude to the material.
Presenting material so that it can be perceived as a series of unrelated facts and ideas.
Allowing students to be passive.
Assessing for independent facts (short answer questions).
Rushing to cover too much material.
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thought, and requires ideas to be used together.
Relating new material to what students already know and understand.
Allowing students to make mistakes without penalty and rewarding effort.
Being consistent and fair in assessing declared intended learning outcomes, and hence establishing trust.

Emphasizing coverage at the expense of depth.
Creating undue anxiety or low expectations of success by discouraging statements or excessive workload.
Having a short assessment cycle.

After having explored the theoretical framework of each of the variables under study, a review of research literature related to each variable was done which has been presented in the following paragraphs.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of the literature review is to expand upon the context and background of the study, to help further define the problem and to provide an empirical basis for the subsequent development of hypotheses (Tuckman, B.W., 1972). A review of related studies is not only the foundation for any problem undertaken by the researcher but also help him to identify other variables of potential importance and to see how these variables relate. As the main focus of the present investigation was to study the impact of Barnlund’s Transactional Model of Communication on Life Skills in relation to the students Learning Approaches, the studies which have been conducted in these areas have been collected as under:-

➢ RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED WITH COMMUNICATION/COMMUNICATION MODELS

Stern, R. C. (1991) used a standard communication model as a measure (actional, interactional and transactional perspectives of sender and receiver interaction). The congruence between the self-assessed communication perspective of homiletics instructors

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of the Evangelical Lutheran Church of America and the texts used in the basic homiletics course’s was examined. The conclusions drawn from the research were that the surveyed instructors tended to score toward the transactional end of the scale. Yet, the majority of the instructors chose at least some texts, which reflected an actional perspective. The risk of this incongruency of communication perspective was that students might perceive mixed messages about their communication role in the classroom and beyond.

Schaller, K.A.’s (1993) study proposed a communication based model of teacher efficacy and tested this model by examining the relationship among teacher perceptions of efficacy and student perceptions of teacher communication competence, teacher immediacy and student learning. Participants in this research included 47 instructors and their students (n=557) at Ohio University. The multiple regression analyses performed in this study revealed that perceived teacher communication competence and teacher immediacy were significant predictors of perceived teacher efficacy and student learning. Specifically, results indicated that perceived teacher communication competence and teacher immediacy were: (1) significant positive predictors of both teacher efficacy and affective student learning and (2) significant, negative predictors of cognitive student learning. The study concluded that teachers could be informed of communication behaviours that contribute to and enhance sense of efficacy and, in turn, student learning.

A study done by Brey, J.R. (1994) was to create a psychometric instrument, the Attorney Communication Skills Instrument (ACSI), which measured the communication strengths and weaknesses exhibited by attorneys during their client interview. The inventory was composed of three tests, the ACSI-Climate, ACSI – Listening, and ACSI-Nonverbal, which were assessed in three empirical surveys. The first assessment involved a mail survey to 500 randomly selected members of The Florida Bar Association. The second assessment involved the distribution of 333 copies of each test to attorneys attending the 1993 Florida Bar Association’s Annual Convention. The results indicated a highly defensible psychometric inventory. The results provided a strong set of homogeneous, unidimensional items which appeared to be reliable and valid measure to the communication constructs of establishing a supportive climate, listening and non-verbal communication skills.

Cooks (1994) in his study critical pedagogy as communication education: researching the possibilities employed phenomenology to uncover teachers lived
experiences of teaching and learning. The implication of the study was that how critical pedagogical theory could be articulated and improved in communication education.

The study done by deKock, Dorothea Maria (1995) on the design and implementation of a teaching communication model had the purpose of (1) conceptulating teaching communication in a theoretical model; (2) establishing how teaching communication may be optimized; (3) designing a training programme for teaching communication based on what was achieved under the first two aims. The research confirmed the indispensability of training the teacher in teaching communication especially in view of the pivotal role that the teacher will play in meeting the educational demands of the future.

The purpose of the study done by Steele, L.A. (1995) was to determine if there was a relationship between performance by elementary education majors on the Communication Skills (CS) and General Knowledge (GK) subtests of the National Teacher Examinations (NTE) and the specific variables: test anxiety, reading ability, grade point average and transfer student status. Two sections of CEL 301, Introduction to Elementary Education, taught by the same instructor were the focus of the study. Findings from this study indicated that elementary education students’ levels of reading rate, reading comprehension and reading vocabulary were strongly related to their performance on standardized tests. The study also indicated elementary education students’ GPA (Grade Point Average) was an indication of their performance on the CS and GK subtests of the NTE. Finally, the study revealed that transfer status of elementary education students was related to their performance on the CS subtest of the NTE.

Eodice, M.’s (1998) study in socio-linguistics and classroom conversation revealed areas in which classroom discourse, communicative competence in classroom exchanges, the nature and role of teacher talk and the features of communication in writing conferences were explored. The study concluded that the writing conference is a private dyad within a larger speech community, made up of teacher and student sharing, and is a natural, necessary and productive supplement to classroom teaching. It can be a nurturing, productive, confidence-building, and even fun experience if treated as an open-ended communicative event in which the teacher asks questions, waits patiently for answers, provides verbal nudges and probes rather than tests the student.
She, Hsiao-Ching's (1999) in her study described the validation of a new instrument called the Teacher Communication Behaviour Questionnaire (TCBQ). This instrument was meant for use in assessing student’s perceptions of their interactions with their teacher by focusing on their teacher’s communicating behaviours. Quantitative and qualitative approaches were used in the development and validation processes of the TCBQ. The questionnaire was then used to investigate Taiwanese secondary science teachers’ behaviours and their associations with students’ perceptions and science academic achievement. Results indicated that all five scales of the TCBQ were found to display satisfactory internal consistency, reliability, discriminant validity and factor validity. There were strong associations between the use of verbal and non-verbal feedback in teacher-student interaction to enhance student’s attitudes toward science and their academic achievement outcomes.

Campbell’s (2000) study Praxionomy: A process- driven communication model design and implementation deals with the complex subject of organizational communication systems (OCS) within the context of the new emerging organizational design paradigm. The results of this research drove the development of the new model. The new model is described in detail where important elements of the model are examined from a process point of view.

A multi-level communication model for interacting with participants from a different language and culture was used as an additional supplement to participatory research as a link between non-formal adult education and community development in Brazil, a study conducted by Gormley, K.J. (2000). Theoretical contributions included the development of a interpretive theoretical model for PR (Participatory Research) and corresponding coding system, an explanation of the new theoretical model in relation to a pre-existing one (i.e., a hybrid model), and a review of the strengths and weaknesses of the PR theory.

Pike, M.A.’s (2000) thesis elaborates how communication and learning strategies can foster keen adolescent readers of pre-twentieth century poetry lessons through the development and application of a personal transactional model of reading. Fieldwork has been undertaken in a three-year longitudinal action research study of six selected readers (aged 14 and 16), saturated in late twentieth century culture, responding to a range of pre-twentieth century poems. Readers from the middle to upper ability range were selected who were not particularly keen on poetry, so that reasons for change could be evaluated. The
conclusion drawn from the study was that it is hoped that model will be beneficial to other readers.

Nebashi (2000) studied leadership in Japanese overseas subsidiaries and the relationship between leadership and communication in such organizations. The theoretical purpose of the study is to answer key questions and test hypothesized relationships about leadership and communication style in these businesses by testing a leader-subordinate communication model. There were 292 participants in the study. Results reveal that subordinates perceived that information was better shared under Japanese managers who emphasized both performance and maintenance (PM) as leadership functions and when messages were communicated explicitly.

Stein, K.L. (2000) analyzed the effect of Adult Learning Theory and the Nutrition Communication Model on cognitive (knowledge) and effective (attitudes and behaviours) outcomes. Two different groups of adults an experimental and control, received two separate interventions. The experimental group received intervention based on concepts from the Adult Learning Theory and Nutrition Communication Model. The control group received a lecture style intervention. The finding of the study showed that there was no significant difference in t-test results between groups.

Kurtz, P.J. (2001) explored the effects of implementation of two-way interactive television technology on classroom interaction where transactional model of learning was followed. The format, structure, content and amount of discourse by both students and teachers are important areas of study, particularly when the traditional classroom is moved into the realm of distance learning technology. The study determined what effect the distance mediating technology has upon classroom interaction; both teacher-student and student-student. The empirical research has to be conducted to determine the implications of this project work.

A computer-conferencing communication model was developed for the study conducted by Loser, M.M. (2001). The study proposed improving conference navigation, structure and organization to reduce end-user feelings of being lost and of information overload and to increase end-user ability to relate local and global contexts and to find relevant information. End-users were significantly more satisfied with the spatial interface
than with previously experienced computer-conferencing interfaces and with the control interface used for the study.

Williams, A.L.S. (2001) in his study of *Demandingness and responsiveness of advisors as determinants of graduate students experience* uses Baumrind’s parental communication model to design the instruments for measuring type of advising style of students. The results of the findings show that students experiencing the authoritative advising style showed the highest means of satisfaction, student development and productivity. This pattern suggests that high levels of demandingness and high levels of responsiveness produce the optimal advisor-student communication pattern for doctoral student developmental outcomes.

Townsley, Jennifer M. (2004) in the study *University persistence: A study linking communication satisfaction to student retention* attempted to determine what, if any, link existed between communication satisfaction and a student's decision to remain enrolled in college. Questionnaires were administered to 131 students at a specialized commuter university. Results indicated a high perception of communication satisfaction, both interpersonally and organizationally, by persisting students. Results also indicated a low perception of student-faculty interpersonal communication satisfaction by persisting first-generation students.

The study on *the impact of positive feedback and communication on attitudes and self-efficacy beliefs of adult learners in introductory computer courses in Taiwan (China)* by Chang, Yu-Tai (2004) investigated adult students' learning of computer technologies in the community context. The study explored the effect of emphasizing communication and positive feedback on self-efficacy, students' attitudes, and achievement in the course. Based on the students' responses and the researcher's observations, the personal, private interaction that occurred between the students and instructor created a rewarding and enjoyable learning environment for the students. It also appeared to enhance students' self-efficacy by situating students within a learning context that affords an acceptable means for providing interaction, voicing frustration, and obtaining encouraging feedback.

The efficacy of traditional communication models as a tool for studying the Internet has been questioned in the scientific literature. Findings of the study done by Williams, V.M. (2004) suggested that the communication theories have been ignored in respect to the
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Internet and needs more careful study. The results of this study pave the way for communication researchers who wish to more thoroughly examine active audience theories on the use of net and serve as a starting point for those who wish to better explain the online communicative behavior of soap opera fans.

The primary goal of the research conducted by Groeling (2004) was to approach the technology dilemma from a communication perspective in an attempt to discover if technology impacts the communication, which in turn affects student learning in the classroom. The results showed that student cognitive learning outcomes for the online context were not significantly different from the scores for the face-to-face condition. Results indicated that there was a significant correlation between the relationship development category and quality of interaction. Interpersonal communication competence was the only predictor that was significantly related to cognitive learning outcomes in the path model and established that communication competence in the instructional setting is a contributor to positive cognitive learning outcomes.

The purpose of the study done by Raeder, Laura (2005) was to determine the relationship between the degree of Communication Apprehension and a student's grade point average. In addition, this study looked at Communication Apprehension differences in various communication settings of groups based on socioeconomic status, gender, ethnic groups, student participation in communication classes, and a student's primary language. The research participants included 176 high school students in a Midwestern high school. This study found that students who had low Communication Apprehension also had significantly less online apprehension when compared to students who had high Communication Apprehension. Finally, students who completed a speech or debate class had a significantly lower apprehension score than students who did not take a communications course. Classroom teachers can use this information to create an environment that will allow students with Communication Apprehension to be successful.

The purpose of the research study done by Casanova (2005) was to determine the extent to which CMC technologies promoted the achievement of stated goals and objectives for course taught in higher education. This study was directed by three research questions:

- In what ways are higher education faculties using CMC technologies to deliver their courses?
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- What is the faculty's primary instructional intent for the CMC technologies they selected for integration into the teaching process?
- In what ways does the integration of selected CMC technologies promote achievement of stated goals and objectives in their courses?

The research study population consisted of 17 higher education faculties from the Trek 21 project at West Virginia University during the year 2001. Findings indicated that faculty was mainly using CMC technologies to support teaching practices and to improve teacher's productivity. ITs were basically targeted to increase interactivity, open avenues for feedback, and provide online resources but less used for inquiry-based and active learning. Faculty's primary intent to integrate CMC technologies was to create different avenues to communicate with students and to offer them a learning environment that would support students outside the classroom. CMC promoted the achievement of goals and objectives with different degree of success mainly in two different areas: content delivery and course management and less regarding telecollaborative activity structures.

The use of computer-mediated-communication (CMC) has been applied increasingly in staff development efforts for teachers. Many teacher education programs are looking to CMC, particularly computer conferencing systems, as an effective and low-cost medium for the delivery of teacher educational programs anytime, anywhere. Based on constructivist learning theories, the study done by Chung (2005) focused on examining the use of an online-discussion-board, a communication model in a graduate course as a place where forty-six in-service teachers shared experiences and ideas. Data collection focused on online discussion transcripts of all the messages from three separate weeks and supplemented by interviews and teacher self-evaluation reports. Major findings included:

- Participation: The level of participation varied during the semester but was higher at the beginning of the semester and lower at the end of the semester.
- Critical Reflection: Teachers' critical reflection developed over time as a result of the online discussion board according to mean critical thinking scores during the three selected weeks. Cognitive presence was found mostly in focused discussion forums and social presence mainly existed in the unfocused discussion forums.
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- Social-Interpersonal Rapport: The number of social cues in the messages increased initially but declined significantly over time. When teachers focused more on on-task discussions or critical reflection, there was less social conversation.

- Teaching Practices and Professional Development.

The results of this study suggested that applying computer-mediated communication in teacher education would impact positively on teachers' growth in critical reflection and social-interpersonal rapport.

The study done by Clark (2005) was originally designed to examine and measure the effect of touch on achieving immediacy between elementary-aged students and teachers. The purpose of the study was to describe the communication between the elementary-aged students and teachers through touch, recognizing touch as a highly communicative act that influences human interactions.

An original model framed by Anxiety Uncertainty Management (AUM); an interpersonal communication theory was designed and tested in a study done by Meredith (2005) in order to determine how specific teacher behaviors influence unique student attributes to affect student-teacher interaction, and how resulting instructional solidarity functions to positively impact (both directly and indirectly) student-learning outcomes. The Student-Teacher Interaction and Relationship (STIR) model extended previous instructional communication research and allowed for a more complete understanding of student learning (affective, cognitive and behavioral) by incorporating relational constructs such as student teacher interaction (frequency and quality) and instructional solidarity into a coherent instructional model. Data for testing STIR model and the corresponding seven research hypotheses and one research question were generated from 234 undergraduate students from 15 different intact classes using student self reports. Results confirmed and extended previous research findings and provided empirical evidence that what a teacher says and does in the classroom influences students’ attitudes and attributes. Findings supported each of the seven research hypotheses, which, when taken together, revealed relationships between each of the constructs within the STIR model and suggested that many of the constructs positively influenced a student's classroom experience.

The study conducted by Harmon, Kristina (2005) employed the heuristic model to study the educator's experience of professional dialogue. The core themes were clustered
and included in the following categories: (1) qualities of relationships as a result of dialogue interaction; (2) the significance of place to support dialogue; (3) the significance of extended time for engagement in interaction; and (4) changes in professional practice as a result of professional dialogue exchanges. The results indicated that the development of interpersonal relationships was attributed to trust, honesty, openness, and effective communication skills. Hosting dialogue within the classroom, and repeating opportunities over time increased the effectiveness of the experience and increased positive change in professional practice.

The primary objectives of the study done by Rothenberg's (2005) were to introduce and partially test the communication information-seeking (CIS) model, based upon an extension of the uses and gratifications perspective, and to create a measure for identifying motives to seek information. The sample N=318 surveyed was comprised of private organizational and governmental employees, library patrons and health department patients. The CIS model was used to show how communication, social, psychological, and situational antecedents affect motivations to seek information and choose communication channels. The results provided initial support for the CIS model, and the use of the communication, social, psychological, and situational antecedents, and the Internet health motives scale for testing the model. The model is intended for multiple information-seeking tasks (e.g., instructional, political, news, sports, travel), strategies (e.g., gather, compare, verify information), and communication channels (e.g., media, interpersonal).

Communication scholars do not examine respect as a primary pedagogical factor with learning implications. Respect is active like an organism that is not only cumulative but has a very personal effect: a grounded theory methodology of a respect communication model in the classroom, this study, done by Martinez (2005) examined the notion of respect in the college classroom. The most practical contributions of this research identified several major notions including, the importance of relationships within the process, student self-esteem, and global-classroom respect.

Gregory's (2006) study on influence in the classroom: exploring instructor self-disclosive communication and student outcomes in higher education supported that teacher classroom communication affects learning and influences students’ attitudes. A two-part study was undertaken surveying both students and teachers. The results of the study indicated
that there are positive outcomes of teacher self-disclosure in building interpersonal classroom relationships which immediacy and thereby improve learning.

The review of the various studies on communication may be concluded on a note that effective communication transforms the patterns of behaviour of human beings.

➢ RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED WITH LIFE SKILLS

**Brochu & Souliere (1988)** studied *long -term evaluation of life skills approach for alcohol and drug abuse prevention*. Three -day life skills re-education programme, embedded in 10-week new employee basic training had no long -term effects on alcohol and drug knowledge and attitudes. Findings suggested that primary prevention programme in targeting adults may be too late to affect alcohol and drug habits and life skills approach may work best in secondary prevention efforts, and for long term evaluations.

**Hamburg's (1990)** study deals with essential life skills for young adolescents. At present, there is a need to formally and systematically teach middle and junior high school students life skills for surviving, living with others and succeeding in a complex society. In this study, an introductory section was followed by a discussion of early adolescent development and life skills and core elements of life skills training. Attention was then given to:

- School -based interventions, including Interpersonal Problem Solving, Social competence training, a drug and alcohol project, school and community programmes.
- The Mid western, a drug and alcohol - based interventions, including girl clubs of America, the summer training; and education programme and the salvation army.
- Promising new conceptual models including the school development programme, Rochester schools experiment, community prevention of alcohol and tobacco use, the violence prevention project and research leading to an anticipated middle - school violence prevention curriculum.

The next section discussed programme implementation and evaluation. Concluding remark focused on the need for dissemination of information about effective life skills training and recommendations for implementation of preventive programmes in middle schools.
RESEARCH STUDIES RELATED WITH LEARNING APPROACHES

Ramsden & Entwistle (1981) have shown effect of academic department on students’ approaches to studying. The investigation resulted that a positive attitude to study and strategic approach combined with high scores on deep approach and low scores on surface approach scales. There were found to be significant relationship between the variable among them and that positive attitudes and deep approach are linked with the academic progress.

Aggarwal (1981) carried out a study of learning approach and contract activity package and concluded that the level of students who are motivated and responsible may continue either academic or creative studies independently, through contract activity package. The academic achievers learned in depth, advanced, creative aspect of the area of study.

Van Rossum and Schenk (1984) used the reduction of conceptions in two categories: reproductive level and constructive level in their study on the relationship between learning conception, study strategy and learning outcome. They found that students who used a surface approach to learning held reproductive conception of learning (increasing one’s knowledge, memorizing and reproducing and applying) whereas those who used a deep approach held a constructive conception (understanding and seeing something in a different way).

The purpose of the study conducted by Avery, R.E. (1986) was to investigate the effect on academic achievement when teacher styles and student learning styles were matched. The study also assessed the teachers’ ability to determine their students’ learning styles by guessing. Other areas of study included: (a) the effect on academic achievement when teaching style, learning style and sex were matched; (b) the effect on academic achievement when the teachers’ sex matches the students; and (c) the relationship between the vocational students’ dominant styles and their shop placement. One hundred and eleven twelfth grade vocational students and seven teachers completed the Gregorc Style Delieneator. The study concluded that matching learning styles with teacher styles did not improve academic achievement; that teachers could not guess the dominant styles of their students; that there was no relationship between vocational placement and student dominant styles; and that
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when the sex of the teachers’ matched that of their students’ academic achievement decreased.

The purpose of the study done by Hinkle, K.S. (1987) was to investigate the relationships among learning style preferences, personality types and mathematics anxiety of college students. Data were collected during the Fall of 1985 from seventy-five students (27 male and 48 female) enrolled in the researcher’s Mathematics Anxiety Rating Scale Inventory (MARS), Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory (LSI), Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), California Achievement Test, free – response questionnaire and course performance. Learning style preferences and personality types were significantly related in the following ways: concrete experience to extraversion; reflective observation to introversion; active experimentation to extraversion; active experimentation to perceiving. The suggestions made by the study were that teachers should consider learning style preferences and personality types when planning instruction and should identify what learning style preferences and personality types lead to success in their class and teach students to adapt.

A study done by Thummarpon, A. (1988) was to investigate the preferred learning styles of junior students within the Faculty of Education, Prince of Songkla University and to determine relationships between learning styles and students’ grade point average, sex and programme area. A sample of 139 junior students was designated for this study. The Thai translated instrument used in this study was translated from the Learning Style Inventory developed by Albert A. Canfield in 1976. The data indicated that the junior students had a strong preference for three learning style variables concerning instructor affiliation, people and direct experience. The forward stepwise regression analysis indicated that learning style variable labeled expectation for success was the best predictor of academic success as measured by GPA.

The purpose of the study done by John Steven (1989) was to determine whether differences exist between gifted and non-gifted students in their learning style preferences. The study further attempted to investigate if learning style differences are affected by membership in a culturally different group. The subjects were 187 junior high school students from a large urban school district in southeastern Pennsylvania. The total sample was divided into two main groups: 115 white students vs. 72 black students and 90 gifted
students vs. 97 non-gifted students. All of the subjects were administered Renzulli and Smith’s Learning Style Inventory (1978). Findings revealed that significant learning style differences existed between gifted and non-gifted students (p< .05) as well as black and white students (p< .01). This replication study confirmed the findings of earlier studies that reported significant differences in learning style preferences between gifted and non-gifted students regardless of grade level (elementary vs. junior high), type of giftedness (academically talented vs. intellectually gifted), and geographic locale (urban vs. suburban).

The study done by Finley, J.L. (1990) was to identify the factors underlying three self-report learning style inventories. An additional goal was to determine the relation of the underlying factors to academic performance. Over 700 first year students enrolled in introductory psychology courses at Colorado State University were given three learning style inventories. The three inventories were: (a) the Study Process Questionnaire (SPQ), (b) the Approaches to Studying Inventory (ASI) and (c) the Inventory of Learning Process (ILP). The findings of the study supported that the Achievement Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation factors were distinct from factors associated with the cognitive aspects of learning styles. Learning style constructs related little to undergraduate GPA in this study. Yet, the learning style constructs were suggested to be relevant in other ways such as making decisions about careers and college majors.

Kember (1991) investigated how students could be encouraged to develop a deep approach to learning and how teachers could also be encouraged to adopt instructional strategies which would foster this approach. He also observed that there was wide spread support for a deep approach by lecturers and teachers and this was frequently noted as a goal of education.

Landine, Jeffrey Robert (1994) examined the relationship between metacognitive approaches and motivation, locus of control, self-efficacy and academic achievement. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between metacognition and certain personality variables and the role they play in academic achievement. Biggs (1987) model of metacognition was used as the theoretical framework for the study. The model suggested three distinct approaches to learning surface, deep and achieving. Measures of metacognition, motivation, locus of control, self-efficacy were used to compare with the students’ estimates of current academic average. The results indicated significant positive relationships between...
metacognitive approaches and motivation, locus of control, self- efficacy and academic average. An analysis of differences between the three metacognitive approaches groups showed the deep and achieving approach groups to be related to academic success, but not the surface group. It was concluded that meatcognition and these personality variables are related to academic achievement.

Siliauskas- Waker, Gina (1994) examined the effects of learning approach and cognitive mapping on quality of learning outcomes. The focus of this study was to investigate whether less effective students who typically adopt a surface approach to learning (associated with the intention to reproduce essential information and the use of rote learning) can benefit from instruction in cognitive mapping to attain a meaningful learning outcome in a text comprehension task. Also examined was the effect of cognitive mapping on the performance of students whose typical approach is deep (learners who focus on the meaning, inherent in learning tasks and look for interrelationships). In addition, the study investigated the overall effectiveness of the cognitive mapping strategy in increasing meaningful learning outcomes. The findings of the study were that learners characterized as deep may be able to assimilate different deep strategies without ill effect, while learners categorized as surface may require other interventions if they are to develop understanding.

Watkins, David & Akande, Adebowale (1994) explored the approaches to learning of Nigerian secondary school children: Emic and ethnic perspectives in two studies. In study one, content analysis identified learning conception similar to those found in western studies that are thought to underlie deep and surface approaches to learning. Study two examined the reliability and validity of a Western – developed learning process questionnaire.

Yuen-Yee, Grace Chan & Watkins, David (1994) investigated classroom environment and approaches to learning: An investigation of the actual and preferred perceptions of Hong Kong secondary school students. Data showed the students perceived their classroom to be fairly competitive and teacher – controlled and as encouraging rote-learning. Students preferred a friendlier atmosphere where students and teachers collaborated to provide a greater variety of interesting but challenging activities. Such a learning environment, students indicated, would tend to promote the deeper, more achievement – oriented approach to learning that they would prefer.
Anderson, M. D. (1995) studied *relationship between college students’ learning approach to their quality of learning outcomes*. The focus of the study was to empirically test Biggs's (1985) theoretical model of the relationship between specific predictor and criterion variables. It examined the interrelationship among the predictor variables of Locus of Control, Approach to Learning and Metacognition and their relationship with the quality of learning outcomes. The results of study indicated a positive correlation between internal locus of control and deep and achieving approaches to learning and metacognition. A negative correlation between surface approach and metacognition was also found. No relationship between any learning approach and learning outcome was supported.

A study done by Lindsey & Faulkner (1996) began as a response to the question: *what makes the academic learning of highly gifted students different from those less able?* The research project began with a cohort of 11 students in the year 1987. Data was collected in the following areas:

- General ability. The Advanced test B 40 (Australian Council for Educational Research, 1983) was used as a measure of general ability. This test is a group test including verbal and numerical reasoning items.
- The Learning Process Questionnaire (Biggs, 1987) was used to provide measures of the students' general beliefs and goals in learning.

The findings highlighted a significant association between combinations of learning goals, the types of strategies students use and the levels of school achievement. The differences in strategy use and achievement that were found in this study pointed to the usefulness of taking into account the multi dimensional character of student styles of engagement with learning. The author stated that the characteristics, which each student bring to their learning context, shape and combine with their construction of the task, to influence the learning strategies they adopt and the outcomes they achieve. The study concluded that models of learning need to consider the influence of students' general orientation towards learning.

A paper presented by Beattie, Collins & McInnes, (1997) on *Deep and surface learning: a simple or simplistic dichotomy?* In the accounting education literature by introducing the full complexity of the important education literature on deep and surface
learning show that the use of this dichotomy, which is often used as a convenient shorthand, generally oversimplifies in two key respects.

- First, the deep-surface distinction is relevant in analyzing the following aspects of learning: student learning intentions, learning styles, learning approaches adopted and learning outcomes. The specific context in which the distinction is being applied must be defined carefully. Moreover, it is unrealistic to assume that a deep approach to learning is universally desirable, since it may be necessary, given the nature of the knowledge to be acquired, to adopt a surface approach.

- Second, the deep-surface approach to learning has been shown to comprise only one of several components, which influence a student's overall learning orientation.

As a consequence, the identification of several learning orientations, rather than two approaches, gives richer insights into students' learning processes. These orientations, which comprise the learning style and learning approach, are determined partly by the student's personality, motivation and study methods and partly by contextual factors such as the learning task, the attitudes and enthusiasms of the lecturer and the forms of assessment. If intervention strategies designed to improve teaching and learning are to be successful, then a fuller understanding is required of the complex, composite and contingent nature of deep and surface learning and its interrelationship within the teaching-learning environment.

Chin, C. Hui Li (1998) studied student's learning approaches and their understanding of some chemical concepts in 8th grade science. The analysis revealed the differences between the deep and surface learning approaches regarding generative thinking, nature of explanations, asking questions, meta-cognitive activity and approach to tasks.

Humphreys, B.K. (1998) studied how do students learn or fail to learn in a traditional chiropractic curriculum. The results revealed the educational environment, personal and curricular motivations to learn, personal perceptions of curriculum and individual approaches to learning and studying affected the learning of students.

Watkins and Wong (1998) conducted a longitudinal study of psychosocial environmental and learning approaches in the Hong-Kong classroom. The study revealed that an enjoyable classroom environment mediated the causal relationship between a deep approach and high-level achievement. However, classroom environment did not seem to influence changes in approach to learning.
Britton, L.A. (1999) conducted an exploratory study of the impact of hypermedia based approach and science – in – fiction approach for instruction on the polymerize chain reaction. The results of this study revealed that the significant conceptual change about the nature of science was not detected, even though most students demonstrated deep and elaborate learning styles.

Salimkumar, C. (1999) studied the impact of approach to studying and achievement motivation on achievement in Biology in relation with intelligence. The study concluded that there is no impact of approaches to studying and achievement motivation on achievement in Biology for high, low or average intelligence group.

Price, Nancy’s (2000) study has explored the qualitative differences in student learning outcomes while establishing the relationship between learning context, student approach to learning and student learning outcomes. The data set included instructor interviews, a qualitative measure of instructor’s student learning expectations for their course, qualitative measures of student learning expectations and quantitative measures of students’ general learning approach, students’ specific approach to learning in their course. The following relationships were examined within the context of three McGill Distance Education Program courses: (1) the relationship between learning context, student approach to learning and student learning outcomes; (2) the relationship between student and instructor perspectives of the learning context; and (3) the relationship between type of course, course learning expectations, course structure and design and the selected methods of assessment.

Evans (2001) in the study approaches to learning, need for cognition, and strategic flexibility among university students explored the relationships among three existing questionnaires: the Study Process Questionnaire (SPQ) (Biggs, 1978), the Need for Cognition Scale (NCS) (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982), and the Strategic Flexibility Questionnaire (SFQ) (Cantwell & Moore, 1996). The SPQ here measured the three approaches to learning: deep, surface, and achieving. The study found strong similarities among need for cognition, the deep approach and adaptive control learning. There also exist strong similarities among the surface approach, inflexible control and irresolute control of learning.

Sellheim, D.O. (2001) examined the ways in which physical therapy teachers and students beliefs and conceptions about teaching and learning, teachers’ instructional methods and students perceptions of learning experiences influence the students approaches to
learning. In addition, this study examines national trends in physical therapy students' approaches to learning. Qualitative data collection methods including semi-structural interviews of faculty and students, classroom observation and document (syllabi) review were utilized. The study showed preferences for deep or strategic approaches to learning.

Lucas (2001) reported the findings of a phenomenographic research study, which sought to identify students' approaches to learning introductory accounting and their conceptions of accounting. The findings revealed that, in common with other disciplines, deep and surface approaches to learning could be identified. However, the main contribution of this study lies in two areas.

- First, it distinguishes those features that are characteristic of the deep and surface approaches within the discipline of accounting.
- Secondly, it identifies contextual features surrounding these approaches to learning and which are central to an understanding of them.

The paper suggested how these findings can be used immediately to make changes within teaching and assessment practice through a phenomenographic pedagogy which: seeks to make students' conceptions of the subject matter explicit; provides diagnostic tools for the identification of distinctively different conceptions of the subject and approaches to learning; and addresses issues of preconceptions and relevance within teaching and assessment.

Gordon & Debus (2002) studied contextual modifications were implemented in an existing preservice teacher education programme to increase students' use of deep approaches to learning and reduce their reliance on the use of surface approaches, without the need for major redesign. Students' perceptions of their competence in performing the tasks of teaching (personal teaching efficacy) were also expected to improve in response to improvements in quality learning. Three cohorts of students (N = 134), enrolled in a preservice teacher education degree programme at a rural university in New South Wales, Australia participated in the study. A longitudinal quasi-experimental design was used, with Cohort 1 acting as a control while Cohorts 2 and 3 represented treatment groups. Repeated measures were taken on Biggs' (1987b) Study Process Questionnaire, a modified version of Gibson and Dembo's (1984) Teacher Efficacy Scale and the Academic subscale within Lefcourt's (1981) Multidimensional-Multiattributional Causality Scale. An action research paradigm was embedded to enable the development and refinement of the altered teaching
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approaches. Results indicated that the modifications to teaching methods, task requirements and assessment processes applied to the treatment group encouraged changes in students' approaches to learning by firstly reducing their use of surface approaches and later increasing the use of deep approaches. While both treatment and contrast groups exhibited equivalent growth in teaching efficacy, differences between cohorts were noted in the sources that informed personal teaching efficacy at the conclusion of the course. These findings suggested that the study succeeded in its major goal of improving the quality of teaching and learning in this teacher education programme.

Wannasilapa, U. (2003) in her study on language learning through language laboratory in relation to self-efficacy and learning approaches to technical college students in Thailand. One of the objectives of the study was to determine the effect of the Language Laboratory Interaction on language performance of technical college students with Deep and Surface learning approach. The sample consists of 400 randomly selected Technical College students of Thailand. Tools used were an instructional package for learning through Language Laboratory, Revised Two-Factor Study Process Questionnaire (R-SPQ-2F) (Biggs, 2000) for identifying deep and surface learning approaches and English Self-Efficacy Scale (Ahuja & Vibha, 2000). Finding of the study led to a conclusion that learning approaches do not seem to differently affect the attainments of students’.

Developing deep approaches to learning is claimed to enhance students' engagement with their subject material and result in improved analytical and conceptual thinking skills. The paper changing the learning environment to promote deep learning approaches in first-year accounting students by Hall, Ramsay & Raven (2004) reported on changes to the learning environment centering on the introduction of group learning activities that were designed to improve the quality of students' learning outcomes. The impact of changes in the learning environment on students' approaches to learning, as measured by the Study Process Questionnaire (SPQ) (Biggs, 1987b), was then assessed. Results indicate that, across the semester, accounting students exhibited a small but statistically significant increase in their deep learning approach, and a small but statistically significant reduction in their surface learning approach. The results suggested that accounting educators, through changes in the learning environment, might be able to influence the learning approaches adopted by accounting students.


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Emilia, Ova’s (2005) explored the influence of the clinical learning environment (CLE) on students' learning approaches and learning outcomes. A cross-sectional study of 209 medical students doing clinical clerkship rotations was conducted using two questionnaires (a) clinical learning environment questionnaire (Rotem et al, 1955) and (b) an approaches to learning questionnaire (Biggs, 1987 and Hilliard, 1995). The quantitative and qualitative findings reinforced each other. The CLE in the clinical rotation (i.e. department) had a strong influence on students' approaches to learning and learning outcomes. The extent of students' opportunities to practise was a strong indicator for perceived learning outcome. The study showed the potential for manipulating the CLE in order to influence students' approaches to learning and learning outcome.

A study on Mathematical problem-solving skills in undergraduate preservice teacher education students by Baker, M.E. (2005) examined the mathematical problem solving skills of preservice teacher education students. Twenty-seven students enrolled in one of the two sections of an elementary mathematics methods course in an upper midwestern university during the fall term of 2003 participated in the study. Variables examined in the study included problem solving, math anxiety, and approach to learning, as defined by strategies associated with the three approaches: surface, strategic, and deep. The relationships between the variables were also studied. Students related the extent to which they perceived that they experienced math anxiety and employed the strategies associated with problem solving and the three approaches to learning through their responses to pre- and post-course administrations of the Mathematics Information Processing Scale survey. These students indicated that they employed problem-solving strategies and that the strategies used increased by the end of the course. Students also indicated that they typically experienced math anxiety and this neither increased nor decreased significantly by the end of this course. Math anxiety was not correlated to problem solving on the pre-course survey, but it was on the post. The most common approach to learning reported by these preservice students was the Strategic Study approach, both before and after the course. By the end of the course, the Deep-Associative Study approach supplanted the Surface-Disintegrated Study approach for second place. This indicated growth in these preservice teacher education students as mathematicians and problem solvers since the Surface approach to learning has negative connotations and the Deep approach is a much more positive and deeply intrinsic approach to
learning. Positive correlations were found between both the Strategic Study and Deep-Associative study approaches to learning and problem solving. No correlation was found between the Surface-Disintegrated study approach and Problem solving.

Musicians have always learned music in various ways, it is not known how individual differences are conceptualized as learning style and learning strategies preferences influence this learning. In addition, it is not known how the concept of creativity relates to learning music. The study done by Hagans (2005) described the learning styles and learning strategies of formally trained and informally trained musicians and to explore creativity relationships when learning music. Identifying the learning styles and learning strategies of 109 students at Berklee College of Music accomplished this and 30 Naturally trained musicians in Tulsa, Oklahoma. The Learning-Style Inventory (LSI) was used to measure learning styles, Assessing the Learning Strategies of Adults (ATLAS) was used to identify learning strategy preferences. The study found the largest groups for the LSI were the Divergers and the largest groups for ATLAS were the Engagers. It also found that one's learning style and learning strategy group had no significance to one's level of creativity. Major conclusions were that the LSI and ATLAS are useful tools that accurately identify and describe learning preferences of formally and informally trained musicians.

The dissertation on learning strategies and performance in organizational teams by Bresman, P.H.M. (2005) addresses the subject of team learning strategies and their performance effects in three independent but related chapters. A common theme was the notion that theorizing about team learning as constituted by a set of distinct strategies can improve our understanding of how teams learn, and how it influences performance. The first chapter explores team learning in an inductive study of six teams in one large pharmaceutical firm. The second chapter reviews the literature on team learning and concludes that it has largely been treated as a uniform construct. Drawing on organizational learning theory, social learning theory, and the literature on the management of innovation and entrepreneurship, The final chapter examines different team learning strategies, and vicarious learning in particular, as a means to understanding learning and performance differences across teams. Vicarious learning is conceptualized as an integral part of how teams learn. The chapter concludes by pointing toward a contingency theory of team learning in which the
effectiveness of a team learning strategy depends on characteristics in the team's task environment.

Basharina, Olga's (2005) study on an activity system analysis of international telecollaboration: Contexts, contradictions and learning examined the long distance computer mediated communication in 4 WebCT forums which joined 52 Japanese, 37 Mexican, and 46 Russian English learners. The emphasis was on defining to what extent students shaped the environments and the environments shaped students' participation. Contradictions captured the how and learning aspects of interaction. The study illustrates how affordances of multiple contextual layers defined students' participation trajectories, their objectives, motivation or unwillingness to interact, and attitudes toward each other. The Japanese and Mexican students' participation represented an interactive learning paradigm whereas the participation of the Russian students represented a curriculum teacher-centred paradigm. Depending on their identity of deep, strategic or surface communicators students demonstrated differences in quality of their participation. The study identified eight major contradictions attributed to students' different cultures-of-use of the computer technologies (Thorne, 2003) and different frames of reference with regards to their norms of language use and beliefs about learning online. The study found evidence of both learning and not learning through content and discourse analysis of interaction protocols and students' interview and survey reports. Extending the ongoing discussion, the study emphasizes the importance of (1) students' cultures-of-use of computer technologies, mediated by instructors and by broader socio-cultural contexts, (2) students' frames of reference with regards to interaction and learning, and (3) students' agency in defining the meaning of being communicatively competent in international/intercultural online environments.

The study done by Struyven, K. (2005) adopted a course on Child Development in the teacher-training programme of Elementary school teachers that was either delivered by means of lectures in one group or by student-activating teaching methods in the other group. In total, 958 students participated in this study. Contrary to expectations, student-activating instruction does not lead students towards deep approaches to learning or learning for understanding. Instead, they tend to adopt more surface approaches to learning and less strategic approaches. Despite these findings, results reveal student performance to be similar in both groups. The student-activating teaching produces a wide range of course evaluations,
Yuan, Rong’s (2006) study on a probe into learning approaches and attitudes towards technology-enhanced language learning (TELL) on Chinese instruction carried out at the military environment at the Defense Language Institute aimed to investigate whether learning approaches could predict learners’ language proficiency and learners’ attitude towards technology-enhanced language learning (TELL). Both the learning approaches inventory ASSIST and the attitudes towards TELL survey were administered and sent out to 158 Chinese language learners. 137 valid responses were obtained. Conclusions of the study were as follows:

1. The surface and apathetic approach was a significant predictor for both learners’ measured language proficiency and their self-perception of academic performance.

2. The strategic approach was a positive predictor for learners’ attitudes towards TELL; whereas, surface and apathetic approach was a negative predictor for learners’ attitudes towards TELL.

3. None of the learners’ demographic variables could not predict either learners’ language proficiency or their attitudes towards TELL.

Much of the work that we have reviewed on learning approaches provided evidences that students’ learning techniques are different from one another. This being the case is also true that there would be a difference between the ways students should be taught and the ways the students are currently being taught. The studies highlighted that consideration of learning approaches on planning instruction, curriculum and teaching will certainly lead to success.

Overview:

- Conclusions based on Communication/Communication Models

While going through related literature based on the communication/communication models, the following points have emerged:

- There has been no direct work done on Barnlund’s Transactional Model of Communication (BTMC).
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- There has been no specific work done on transactional model of communication.
- There are some studies, which corresponds to transactional model criteria.
- Communication models are totally ignored in the classroom context.

The integration of Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) technologies into the higher educational settings required faculty to change their roles from the direct instructional model to a model based on constructivists' ideas. CMC instructional tools (ITs) have provided a change by shifting a traditional teacher-centered setting into a teacher facilitator environment. Teacher's professional development has become an important task to effectively integrate technology into their courses. But questions concerning the implementation and value of CMC technologies and their impact in higher education are not yet clear.

- **Conclusions based on Life Skills**

Various studies on *life skills* not only addressed but also solved problems of meaning and value in life with which we can place our actions and our lives in a wider, richer and meaning-giving context. It may be alcohol and drug abuse prevention, young adolescents, curriculum, leadership skills, employment opportunities, student achievement, career decision-making, mental problems or even food related skills. On the basis of these studies, we can say that the human capacity to ask ultimate questions about the meaning of life can be finalized to the one course of action or one life-path being applied in making choices and solving problems in everyday activities, events and relationships with a sense of responsibility.

- **Conclusions based on Learning Approaches**

While it is possible to structure *learning environments* that encourages learning, but to understand the way a student concentrates on the dimension of learning was focus of various studies based on Learning Approaches. The *Deep* and *Surface* distinction was a very popular one, much researched, using various study inventories. Although the original ideas were derived from the basic *Deep* and *Surface* dimensions, later work has announced on refining scales to produce the more dimensions of Learning Approaches.
JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Communication serves as a foundation for the exploration of messages. Transactional mode of communication is perhaps the most effective means of understanding interactions among people and for making clear when and why interactions are effective and when and why interactions break down. It is an approach that enables us to look at our own communication behaviour and understand the conflicting state in which we are. Perhaps most important is that transactional analysis helps to bring to consciousness our own life positions so that we may change them to more effective alternative.

For the students suffering from communication apprehension, apprehension about participating in communication always outweighs the students’ perception of gain from communicating in any given situation (Hurt et al, 1978). The communication – apprehensive students anticipates negative feelings, lack confidence, slow in decision making power, low in self-esteem etc. and thus either avoids communication, or suffered from variety of anxiety type feeling while dealing with day-to-day situations of life. The problem can become serious when teachers fail to recognize this, then their expectations from students may seriously disrupt effective teaching and communication in their classroom.

To make the best use of communication system is to take seriously the impulses, desires and goals of learners in terms of life skills. We cannot communicate with our students if we ignore those desires and goals, which are closely, related to the life skills that teachers might undertake them while pursuing for communication.

The intrinsic value of life skills lies not only in effective communication but also in enhancing the learning of students. Here, starts the task of a learner that is how to approach the learning so that it may be retained deep in the heart. Most of the studies above have also shown that it is the approach towards learning, which could influence learning outcomes of learners. Therefore, present study tried to organize a set of learning tasks in the form of instructional packages of Barnlund’s Transactional Model of Communication (BTMC) and studies its relative effect on Life Skills in relation to the Learning Approaches of students.
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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
IMPACT OF BARNLUND TRANSACTIONAL MODEL OF COMMUNICATION ON LIFE SKILLS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILDREN IN RELATION TO THEIR LEARNING APPROACHES

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
The scope of the study has been delimited with respect to details given below:
- Only the model schools were selected which are situated in the Union Territory of Chandigarh.
- The investigator for the present experimental study chose only one teaching subject, i.e. Economics only.
- Students of only Xth grade were selected for the study.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
- To study the impact of Barnlund’s Transactional Model of Communication (BTMC) on selected life skills of secondary school children, viz: skill of Acquiring Knowledge, skill of Critical Thinking, skill of Decision-Making and Communication Skill.
- To study the impact of learning approaches on selected life skills of secondary school children, viz: skill of Acquiring Knowledge, skill of Critical Thinking, skill of Decision-Making and Communication Skill.
- To study the impact of Barnlund’s Transactional Model of Communication (BTMC) and learning approaches on selected life skills of secondary school children, viz: skill of Acquiring Knowledge, skill of Critical Thinking, skill of Decision-Making and Communication Skill.

HYPOTHESES
The study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

\( \text{Ho.1:} \quad \text{BTMC and CGL will yield equal level of gain mean scores for skill of Acquiring Knowledge.} \)

\( \text{Ho.2:} \quad \text{Two learning approaches Deep and Surface (DA/SA) will result in equal levels of} \)
gain means for skill of Acquiring Knowledge.

**Ho.3:** Instructional modes (BTMC/CGL) and learning approaches (DA/SA) do not interact with each other to yield significantly different mean gain scores for skill of Acquiring Knowledge.

- **Ho.3 (a):** Through BTMC: Deep and Surface Learning Approach (DA/SA) will yield equal gain means of students for skill of Acquiring Knowledge.
- **Ho.3 (b):** Through CGL: The gain means of students with Deep and Surface Learning Approach (DA/SA) will not differ on scores for skill of Acquiring Knowledge.
- **Ho.3 (c):** For Deep Approach (DA): The gain means of students for skill of Acquiring Knowledge for BTMC and CGL will not be different.
- **Ho.3 (d):** For Surface Approach (SA): The gain means of students for skill of Acquiring Knowledge for BTMC and CGL will not be different.
- **Ho.3 (e):** The gain means on skill of Acquiring Knowledge will not be different for BTMC/DA and CGL/SA.
- **Ho.3 (f):** The gain means on skill of Acquiring Knowledge will not be different for BTMC/SA and CGL/DA.

**Ho.4:** BTMC and CGL will yield equal level of gain mean scores for skill of Critical Thinking.

**Ho.5:** Two learning approaches Deep and Surface (DA/SA) will result in equal levels of gain means for skill of Critical Thinking.

**Ho.6:** Instructional modes (BTMC/CGL) and learning approaches (DA/SA) do not interact with each other to yield significantly different mean gain scores for skill of Critical Thinking.

- **Ho.6 (a):** Through BTMC: Deep and Surface Learning Approach (DA/SA) will yield equal gain means of students for skill of Critical Thinking.
- **Ho.6 (b):** Through CGL: The gain means of students with Deep and Surface Learning Approach (DA/SA) will not differ on scores for skill of Critical Thinking.
- **Ho.6 (c):** For Deep Approach (DA): The gain means of students for skill of Critical Thinking for BTMC and CGL will not be different.
- **Ho.6 (d):** For Surface Approach (SA): The gain means of students for skill of Critical Thinking for BTMC and CGL will not be different.
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- **Ho.6 (e):** The gain means on skill of Critical Thinking will not be different for BTMC/DA and CGL/SA.
- **Ho.6 (f):** The gain means on skill of Critical Thinking will not be different for BTMC/SA and CGL/DA.

**Ho.7:** BTMC and CGL will yield equal level of gain mean scores for skill of Decision Making.

**Ho.8:** Two learning approaches Deep and Surface (DA/SA) will result in equal levels of gain means for skill of Decision Making.

**Ho.9:** Instructional modes (BTMC/CGL) and learning approaches (DA/SA) do not interact with each other to yield significantly different mean gain scores for skill of Decision Making.

- **Ho.9 (a):** Through BTMC: Deep and Surface Learning Approach (DA/SA) will yield equal gain means of students for skill of Decision Making.
- **Ho.9 (b):** Through CGL: The gain means of students with Deep and Surface Learning Approach (DA/SA) will not differ on scores for skill of Decision Making.
- **Ho.9 (c):** For Deep Approach (DA): The gain means of students for skill of Decision Making for BTMC and CGL will not be different.
- **Ho.9 (d):** For Surface Approach (SA): The gain means of students for skill of Decision Making for BTMC and CGL will not be different.
- **Ho.9 (e):** The gain means on skill of Decision Making will not be different for BTMC/DA and CGL.
- **Ho.9 (f):** The gain means on skill of Decision Making will not be different for BTMC/SA and CGL/DA.

**Ho.10:** BTMC and CGL will yield equal level of gain mean scores for Communication Skill.

**Ho.11:** Two learning approaches Deep and Surface (DA/SA) will result in equal levels of gain means for Communication Skill.

**Ho.12:** Instructional modes (BTMC/CGL) and learning approaches (DA/SA) do not interact with each other to yield significantly different mean gain scores for Communication Skill.

- **Ho.12 (a):** Through BTMC: Deep and Surface Learning Approach (DA/SA) will yield equal gain means of students for Communication Skill.
• **Ho.12 (b):** Through CGL: The gain means of students with Deep and Surface Learning Approach (DA/SA) will not differ on scores for Communication Skill.

• **Ho.12 (c):** For Deep Approach (DA): The gain means of students for Communication Skill for BTMC and CGL will not be different.

• **Ho.12 (d):** For Surface Approach (SA): The gain means of students for Communication Skill for BTMC and CGL will not be different.

• **Ho.12 (e):** The gain means on Communication Skill will not be different for BTMC/DA and CGL/SA.

• **Ho.12 (f):** The gain means on Communication Skill will not be different for BTMC/SA and CGL/DA.