CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
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2.1. TEACHING SKILLS

The term ‘skill’ is often associated with training and would seem to be its outcome.

Passi and Shah (1974) have analyzed teaching in terms of teacher-behaviour at three levels. At the first level, teaching has been analyzed into component teaching skills whereby teaching may be defined as a set of component skills for the realization of a specified set of instructional objectives. By implications, teaching itself becomes a complex skill comprising a set of component teaching skills. The component teaching skills can be further analyzed into respective sets of component teaching behaviours at the second level. Thus, component-teaching skills can be defined as a set of inter-related component teaching behaviours for the realization of specific instructional objectives.

Component teaching behaviours can be further analyzed into simpler atomistic teaching behaviours at the third level. The component teaching behaviours of a skill, therefore, can be defined as a set of interrelated atomistic teaching behaviours contributing to the realization of same aspect(s) of the instructional objective purported to be realized by the component teaching skill. For example, if structuring classroom questions is a skill, its components may be structuring questions at different levels, which are grammatically correct, precise and relevant to the content.

According to Webster’s Dictionary (1976), skill is the ability to use one’s knowledge effectively and readily in execution/performance: technical expertise: proficiency: technical competence without insight or understanding or the ability for further elaboration or development.

Teaching skills are set of inter-related teacher behaviours aiming at producing pre-decided desirable learning outcomes. These behaviours should be
definable, observable, measurable and trainable (Passi, 1981). The complex task of teaching is analysed into limited but well-defined components which are called teaching skills that can be taught, practiced, evaluated, predicted, controlled and understood.

Teaching skills can be identified in different ways:

- The observable procedures usually employed to identify skills are specimen description method, category system of observations (Flanders, ETC, RCS), sign system, rating system and event sampling.
- Interviews and discussions with teachers and supervisors can help to identify and enlist different teaching skills.
- Analysis of instructional objectives.

Different authors have reported different sets of teaching skills. Allen and Ryan (1969) have given a list of teaching skills that were identified at Stanford University viz.

1. Stimulus variation.
2. Set induction.
3. Closure.
4. Teacher silence and non verbal cues.
5. Fluency in questioning.
6. Probing questions.
7. Use of higher order questions.
8. Divergent questions.
10. Examples and illustrations.
11. Lecturing.
12. Planned repetition.
13. Completeness of communication.
14. Reinforcing student participation.
The Asian Institute of Teacher Education (1972) identified teaching skills in relation to areas of educational objectives. viz.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of objective</th>
<th>Skills</th>
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<td>Social development</td>
<td>Skill in social interactions.</td>
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<td>Skill in inculcating social values.</td>
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<td>Skill in organizing group activities.</td>
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<td>Emotional development</td>
<td>Skill in desirable attitude, values.</td>
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<td>Skill in adjustment to schools.</td>
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<td>Mental development</td>
<td>Skills in inculcating knowledge.</td>
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<td>Skill in intellectual abilities</td>
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<td>Aesthetic development</td>
<td>Skill in sense of rhythm.</td>
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<td>Skill in appreciation of arts</td>
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<td>Psychomotor</td>
<td>Skill in promoting healthful living</td>
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<td>Health development</td>
<td>Skill in muscle coordination</td>
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Flanders (1973) conceptualized following teaching skills based on his verbal model of classroom interaction.

**Skills used:** Immediately after student talk

Responsive skills: Skill in selecting students ideas
Skill of expanding students ideas
Skill of sustaining student participation
Skill of relating students ideas with teacher ideas

Initiative Skills: Skill of criticism.
Skill of lecturing.
Skill in objective analysis of ideas.

**Skills used:** Immediately preceding student talk

Responsive skills: Skill in asking questions.
Skill in asking narrow or open questions.
Skill in giving directions

Initiative skills: Skill in asking stimulating questions.
Skill in asking questions based on his own ideas.

Brown’s (1975) concept of teacher training programme consists of three aspects viz. planning, performance and perception and accordingly the following skills of teaching have been identified:

- **Planning**
  - Skill of analyzing topic into components
  - Skill of specifying objectives
  - Skill of choosing appropriate methods of teaching

- **Performance**
  - Skill of verbal teaching moves
  - Skill of non-verbal teaching moves

- **Perception**
  - Skill of evaluating his own teaching behaviour
  - Skill of evaluating their effects upon pupils
  - Skill of evaluating change in pupil behaviour

At the Centre of Advanced Study in Education (CASE), Baroda, some attempts have been made to identify and list teaching skills in the form of *Baroda General Teaching Competence Scale* (1975) having 21 teaching skills at the pre-instructional, instructional and post-instructional stages as follows:

**Pre-instructional Skills**
- Skill of writing objectives
- Skill of sequencing and organizing knowledge to be presented.
- Skill of locating situations where the learning of the unit finds applications
- Skill of planning for differential assignment etc.

**Instructional Skills**

- Skill of introducing a lesson
- Skill of fluency in questions
- Skill of developing critical awareness
- Skill of explaining
- Skill of using illustrations/media
- Skill of securing attention of students
- Skill of using non-verbal cues
- Skill of obtaining feedback from pupils
- Skill of diagnosing pupil difficulties
- Skill of increasing pupil participation
- Skill of reacting to pupil response and initiation etc.

**Post-Instructional Skills**

- Skill of preparing test items.
- Skill of making plausible interpretations.
- Skill of planning remedial measures for the diagnosed difficulty
- Skill of giving appropriate assignments
- Skill of recognizing attending /non-attending behaviour
- Skill of maintaining discipline in the class

*Passi* (1976) has listed 13 teaching skills at the Planning, Presentation and Closure, Evaluation and Managerial Skills stages as follows:

**Planning Skills**

- Skill of Writing Instructional Objectives

**Presentation Skills**

- Skill of Introducing Lesson
- Skill of Fluency in Questioning
- Skill of Probing Questions
- Skill of Explaining
- Skill of Illustrating with Examples
- Skill of Stimulus Variation
- Skill of Silence and Nonverbal Cues
- Skill of Reinforcement
- Skill of Increasing Pupil Participation
- Skill of Using Blackboard

Closure, Evaluation and Managerial Skills
- Skill of Achieving Closure
- Recognizing Attending Behaviour

In the present study the following instructional/presentation skills were taken up:

Skill of Introducing the Lesson: The skill of introducing the lesson may be defined as proficiency in the use of verbal and non-verbal behaviour, teaching aids and appropriate device of making the pupils realize the need of studying the lesson by establishing cognition and affective rapport with them.

The new learning is to be based or completed with the previous learning, knowledge or experience acquired through formal or informal education, direct or indirect experiences. An appropriate introduction of a new lesson has to be based on the previous knowledge and experiences of pupils. This is possible by using general awareness of the pupils with their physical and social environment and using devices and techniques of exploring the previous knowledge and applying the techniques of establishing link between the previous knowledge.

Skill of Fluency in Questioning: The skill of fluency in questioning means the rate of meaningful questions put per unit of time. The meaningful questions fit in with the issues to be considered under (i) structure (ii) process and (iii) product. The well-structured question is grammatically correct, concise, relevant to the topic and specific.
In the skill of fluency in questioning, the questions are asked in an audible voice, pleasing tone with an accurate speed neither too rapid nor too slow with adequate pause to enable the students to understand the question.

**Skill of Explaining:** Gage (1968) defines explaining as a skill of engendering comprehension of some process, concept or generalization. In the words of Lalitha (1976), “In classroom right from grade I through higher grades, the teacher explains ideas and concepts. It is the most commonly used skill and is the essence of instruction. When a pupil does not clearly understand the ideas what the teacher tries to convey he generally asks for an explanation.” Generally, a teacher is said to be explaining when he is described ‘How’, ‘Why’ and sometimes ‘What’ of a concept, phenomenon, event, action or condition. So explaining can also be defined as an activity to fill up a gap in knowledge or understanding by relating the new phenomenon to the past experience. So, explaining depends upon the past experience, the type of the new phenomenon, and the type of relationships between them.

Another way of looking at the activity or skill of explaining is that it is a process of relating an object, phenomenon, action or state of affairs to increase the understanding of the pupils. So, skill of explaining includes to bring out relationship between objects, actions, state of affairs etc. or to give reasons, or to explain causes or to generalize or to use deductive reasoning etc. In a classroom an explanation is a set of interrelated statements made by the teacher relating to a phenomenon, an idea etc. in order to bring about increased understanding in the pupils.

**Skill of Illustrating with Examples:** The skill of illustrating with examples helps the teacher in taking learners from known to unknown. In a prescribed curriculum there are many abstract ideas, which the learner has to learn and the teacher has to teach. In order to convey these abstract ideas, concepts and principles the teacher has to give shape to these ideas in such a way that interest and curiosity are aroused and at the same time the concept is clarified. So this skill involves describing an idea, concept or principles by using various types of examples. In other words,
illustrating is process of making clear the concept or concepts taught by linking with something already known and understood by pupils. The teacher having the mastery over the skill of illustrating with examples should be able to clarify an idea or principle to the extent that pupils understand. So the skill involves two processes (1) clarifying the idea or principle to the students and (2) verifying whether students have really followed the idea or not.

Skill of Silence and Non-Verbal Cues: The skill of silence and non-verbal cues is a skill in which first of all the teacher tries to observe relevancy in his verbal and non-verbal behaviour. The teacher uses short pauses to stimuli thinking. The facial cues are used to encourage pupil participation. The other body parts like head, body, hands and eye movements are used to encourage pupils.

Skill of Reinforcement: Reinforcement as a technique belongs to the area of psychology of learning and helps in influencing the responses or behaviours of the learners. There are two types of reinforcement – positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement. The use of the former (providing pleasant experiences) contributes towards strengthening the desirable responses or behaviours; the latter (providing unpleasant experiences) are used for weakening or eliminating the undesirable responses or behaviours. The positive reinforcement is increased and negative is decreased for better results.

Students are learning many different skills throughout their education according to the need of their study course. The priority area of skills of pupil teachers is to develop teaching abilities. Pupil teachers need to cultivate skill in teaching in order to effectively communicate messages to make them more accessible to students. In fact, teaching means effectively conveying message in creative and understandable terms so that students can gain from the information.

2.2. COMMUNICATION

Communication has taken place since before the time the Creator said, “Let there be light”.

16
Communication which is etymologically related to both “communion” and “community” comes from the Latin word ‘Communicare’ which means “to make common” (Weekley, 1967) or “to share”. Consequently, transfer of messages is possible only after the sender has established commonness with the receiver. DeVito (1986) expanded on this, writing that communication is “the process or act of transmitting a message from the sender to a receiver, through a channel and with the interference of noise”. Some would elaborate on this definition, saying that the message transmission is intentional and conveys meaning in order to bring about change. Communication is a vehicle that people can use to get knowledge, to get ideas, to be persuasive.

Communication is defined as the process of passing information and understanding from one person to another. It is essentially a bridge of meaning between people. It is the management of messages for the purpose of creating meaning. This definition regards communication as an premeditated activity, while not ruling out accidental outcomes. It gives equal weight to messages and meanings and opens the door for studying both content and relationships. The limits of the field are set sufficiently wide by this definition to include verbal and nonverbal symbols. In other words, the definition describes what communication scholars have really studied.

Communication is the process of exchanging information, usually via common system of symbols. It takes a wide variety of forms, from two people having a face-to-face conversation, to hand signals, to messages sent over global telecommunication networks. The process of communication is what allows one to interact with other people; without it, one would be unable to share knowledge or experiences with anything outside of oneself. Common forms of communication include speaking, writing, gestures, and broadcasting.

In its most basic meaning, communication is simply an exchange or sharing of information among entities (humans, animals, plants, computers, and so on). But in terms of effective communication among humans, and probably among other life forms as well, there is more going on than one can see. For example, there must be
a will and a desire to communicate. Among humans there must be language compatibility for basic communication, and for effective communication there should be a genuine desire for peaceful interaction. Listeners need to learn to develop a neutral attitude free of prejudice, aggressiveness, and rigid beliefs, and transmitters need to learn skills of conveying a message that can be clearly understood and accepted, and can inspire the listener to cooperate when necessary.

Individuals work to influence others every day, in a variety of situations – from resolving to small misunderstanding with a colleague to the monumental task of negotiating the terms of a deal with a new client. And although using assertive communication is the most effective approach, it requires a great amount of self-awareness and control.

Sigband (1969) views communication as the transmission and reception of ideas, feelings and attitudes both verbally and non-verbally eliciting a response. It is dynamic concept underlying kinds of living system.”

Simon (1979) defines communication as, “any process where by decisional premises are transmitted from one member of an organization to another”.

In the words of DeVito (1986), “Communication is referred to as a process to emphasize that it is always changing, always in motion”.

Anderson (1987) writes, ”The notion of process involves, at least, some time dimension which means that the characteristics, causes, and consequences of some communication act are subject to change over the life of the act”.

“Communication is a vehicle that people can use to get knowledge, to get ideas, to be persuasive,” says Grice (1988). “If we can equip students not only with knowledge in their area, but with ways to communicate that knowledge, we’re equipping them for success.”
Scott (1988) regards communication as a process involving the transmission and carried reapplication of ideas reinforced by feedback purporting to stimulate actions to accomplish organizational goals.

Valenzuela (1992) defines communication as “any act by which one person gives to or receives from another person information about that person’s needs, desires, perceptions, knowledge or affective states. Communication may be intentional or unintentional, may involve conventional or unconventional signals, may take linguistic or nonlinguistic forms, and may occur through spoken or other modes.”

According to Kolb (1994), “The human relation is a kind of communication which is transmission of ideas, information and attitude among people.”

As clarified by Bittel (2000), the term communication is defined as the process in human relation of passing information and understanding from one person to another.

Luthans (2000) defines communication as the transmission of commonly meaningful information.

So, it can be concluded that communication is the process of verbally and nonverbally sharing with another person or persons one’s knowledge, interests, attitudes, feelings and ideas.

Styles of Communication
There are two styles of communication: Assertive and non-assertive

Assertive people stand up for their rights, freely express their thoughts, feelings and beliefs directly and honestly without hurting others’ feelings. It tends to result in win – win situation.

Non-assertive behaviour allows others to force their wants and desires on others. This is acting passively and not expressing one’s own ideas or opinions. It
can also cause one to harbor negative feelings and opinions about oneself and others.

A person operating from the passive style tends to avoid conflict at all costs. This person internalizes discomfort rather than risk upsetting others. This style tends to result in a lose-win situation, and results in feelings of victimization, resentment, and a loss of a sense of control. A person who uses this style in many of his daily interactions has the underlying belief that other peoples' needs are more important than their own, and that if one speaks up, others will ignore or reject him. Such individuals usually have low sense of self-esteem, and have a difficult time recognizing their own needs and knowing how to get them met more appropriately.

Thus, when people allow their ideas or rights to be restricted by another individual or situation, they are behaving passively. Actions that indicate passive behavior are:

- Use excessive professional courtesy.
- Use ambiguous statements and beat around the bush.
- Express concerns in the form of a question, rather than making statement.
- Avoid conflict.
- Refrain from challenging questionable procedures used by another team member.
- Are labeled as, “along for the ride”.

When someone doesn't know how to express him or herself assertively, they tend to resort to passive modes of communication in an attempt to punish or undermine the other person without knowing the real cause of the behaviour. They may play games, use sarcasm, give in resentfully, or remain silent at their own cost.

Aggressive person attacks the other person rather than the problem. It is a destructive desire to dominate another person or to force a position or viewpoint on another person; it starts fights or quarrels.
The Aggressive person creates a win-lose situation. Such individual uses intimidation and control to get his/her needs met, and is disrespectful and hurtful to others in communications. Such person has the underlying beliefs that power and control are the only way to get needs met. Such person operates from a real sense of inadequacy and may have a lack of empathy for others.

The Passive-Aggressive person incorporates elements of both of the previous styles. One tends to use procrastination, forgetfulness, and intentional inefficiency rather than being direct in one’s communications with others.

2.3. ASSERTIVENESS

Assertiveness was initially described as a personality trait by Salter in 1949. It was thought that some people had it and some people didn’t, just like extroversion or stinginess.

Assertiveness is an attitude and a way of relating to the outside world, backed up by a set of skills for effective communication. To be truly assertive, one needs to see oneself as being of worth and as having a right to enjoy life. At the same time, one value others equally, respecting their right to have an opinion and to enjoy themselves. This view allows one to engage respectfully with other people, whilst also respecting one’s own needs. Assertiveness ensures that one is not hurt, used or violated.

Being assertive means respecting oneself and other people; seeing people as equal to oneself, not better than oneself or less important than oneself. The goal of assertive behavior is to stand up for one’s rights in such a way that one does not violate another person’s rights. It is achieved through open, direct and honest communication, valuing others, listening, respecting, problem solving and negotiating with other people.

Assertiveness is the ability to express one’s emotional feelings without hurting other’s feelings. It is also concerned with standing up for one’s rights
without violating the rights of others. It is appropriately direct, open and honest communication which is self enhancing and expressive.

Self-assertiveness is the ability to say “no”, even when the world wants to hear “yes” (Fromm, 1968), and not to resign oneself to circumstances which counteract ones own interests. Self-assertiveness can be defined as the ability to stand up for oneself, for own needs, interests and wishes.

Assertiveness refers to the ability to make, actively disagree; express personal rights and feelings; initiate, maintain or disengage from conversations; and to stand up for self (Fensterheim & Beer, 1975; Lazarus, 1973; Rathus, 1972; Rich & Schroeder, 1976).

According to Alberti and Emmons (1974), “Assertiveness enables people to act in their own best interests or stand up for themselves without undue anxiety”.

According to Lange and Jakubowski (1976), “Assertive people stand up for their rights, expressing freely thoughts, feelings and beliefs directly and honestly”.

Galassi and Galassi (1979) view assertion as direct expression of one’s feelings, preferences, needs, or opinions in a manner that is neither threatening nor punishing towards another person. In addition, assertion does not involve an excessive amount of anxiety or fear. Contrary to popular opinion, assertion is not primarily a way to get what one wants, and opinions without punishing, threatening or putting down the other person.

Assertiveness basically means the ability to express one’s thoughts and feelings in a way that clearly states one’s needs and keeps the lines of communication open with the other (Ryan & Travis, 1986).

According to Phelps & Austin (1987), “Assertiveness promotes positive, direct, courteous and goal-oriented behaviours while maximizing the reinforcement value of social interactions.”
According to Willis and Daisley (1995), “Assertiveness is a form of behavior which demonstrates your self-respect and respect for others. This means that assertiveness is concerned with dealing with your own feelings about yourself and other people, as much as with the end result.”

Self-assertiveness can be related not only to the own person, but can also include needs, interests and wishes of a group, the community or the society as a whole (Plattner, 1996).

Webster’s Dictionary (2002) views that the verb “asserts” is to state or affirm, positive, assuredly, plainly or strongly. Responsible assertion does not provoke unwanted feelings or aggression on the part of the listeners.

**Components of Assertiveness**

Assertive behaviour includes:

- Starting, changing or ending conversations.
- Sharing feelings, opinions and experiences with others.
- Refusing others’ requests if they are too demanding.
- Questioning rules or traditions that don’t make sense or don’t seem fair.
- Addressing problems or things that bother you.
- Being firm so that your rights are respected.
- Expressing negative emotions.
- Expressing positive emotions.
- Asking task-related questions.
- Suggesting alternative solutions/courses of action.
- Stating opinions of decisions/procedures that have been suggested.
- Maintaining their position when challenged, until convinced by facts.
- Confronting ambiguities and conflicts.
- Asking for assistance when overloaded or having difficulty with a task.

An assertive person, thus, is confident about handling conflicts, is clear about what he feels, needs and how it can be achieved. He communicates calmly
He says “yes” when he wants to, and says “no” when he means it. He understands how to negotiate if two people want different things. He talks openly about himself as well as listens to others. Also, he gives and receives positive and negative feedback with positive and optimistic outlook.

Thus, assertion involves direct expression of one’s feelings, preferences, needs or opinions in a manner that is neither threatening nor punishing towards another person.

**Benefits of Assertive Behaviour**

The aim of assertiveness is to find the best possible solution for all people. It’s about finding ‘win: win’ solutions. Assertiveness sees everyone as equal with equal rights and equal responsibilities.

Assertive behaviour is said to promote conflict resolution and positive self-concepts (Kern, 1982; Lawrence, Cutts, Tisdale, Hansen & Irish, 1985 Parcell, Berwick & Beigel, 1974; Rich & Schroeder, 1976.), Self-actualization (Crandall, McCown & Robb, 1988).

Assertiveness increases the chances of one’s needs being met. If one is able to tell people what one wants without becoming aggressive, they will be more likely to help him. Also, if they can’t help him and one is able to accept that without becoming aggressive they will remain friends.

Assertive style of communication greatly enhances our effectiveness with others and produces the most positive outcomes. Assertiveness improves interpersonal relationships, reduces conflicts/anxiety, enhances self esteem, retains self respect, minimizes stress, treats others respectfully, reduces feelings of helplessness/depression and gives a sense of control.

Acting assertively allows one to feel self-confident and generally help in gaining the respect of one’s peers and friends. It can increase the chances of honest relationships, and help in decision-making ability and possibly the chances of getting what one really wants from life, feel better about oneself and one’s self-
control in everyday situations. It allows one to communicate better and command respect.

2.4. ASSERTIVE COMMUNICATION

Assertive communication might be defined as the appropriate and honest expression of one’s views or feelings to another person, while respecting that person's rights as well. Being assertive does not mean stamping on another's turf or toes i.e. aggression. It does mean that one says and does what one needs to, but not to gain revenge or hurt another person.

Assertive communication does not mean being abrasive or insensitive. Assertive communication is the ability to express positive and negative ideas and feelings in an open, honest, direct and tactful way. It recognizes one’s rights whilst still respecting the rights of others. It allows one to take responsibility for oneself and one’s actions without judging or blaming other people. It allows constructively confront and find a mutually satisfying solution where conflict exists. It is a skill that can be learned and developed with practice.

Assertive communication involves good eye contact, congruent body language, appropriate gestures, well-modulated tone of voice, good judgement and appropriateness of comment.

Much of one’s communication is non-verbal. A person with an assertive communication style has a body language that conveys openness and receptiveness. Posture is upright, movements are fluid and relaxed, tone of voice is clear and with inflection. An assertive person makes good eye contact, and is aware of personal space. When giving opinions, an assertive person is willing to express his opinions and also is open to hearing other’s points of view. Assertive person is direct, but not argumentative or threatening. Assertive person does not use sarcasm or gossip as a way to communicate, does not silently sit back out of fear of not being liked and person does not react to criticism by counter-attacking, denying, or feeling anxious or inadequate.
Techniques for Assertive Communication

1. **Behaviour Rehearsal**: It is literally practicing how one wants to look and sound. It is a very useful technique when one first wants to use "I" statements, as it helps dissipate any emotion associated with an experience and allows one to accurately identify the behaviour one wish to confront.

2. **Repeated Assertion** (the 'broken record'): This technique allows one to feel comfortable by ignoring manipulative verbal side traps, argumentative baiting and irrelevant logic while sticking to one’s point.

3. **Fogging**: This technique allows one to receive criticism comfortably, without getting anxious or defensive and without rewarding manipulative criticism.

4. **Negative Enquiry**: This technique seeks out criticism about oneself in close relationships by prompting the expression of honest and negative feelings to improve communication.

5. **Negative Assertion**: This technique lets one to look more comfortably at negatives in one’s own behaviour or personality without feeling defensive or anxious; this also reduces one’s critics' hostility. One should accept one’s errors or faults, but not apologies.

6. **Workable Compromise**: When one feels that one’s self-respect is not in question, one considers a workable compromise with the other person.

   Assertiveness is a useful communication tool. Its application is contextual and it's not appropriate to be assertive in all situations. Others may perceive sudden use of assertiveness as an act of aggression. There's also no guarantee of success, even when one uses assertive communication styles appropriately.

2.5. **SELF ESTEEM**

   Teaching behaviour of a teacher depends upon certain personal qualities. It is overt manifestation of the individual’s inner teaching attitude, which has close
affinity with his/her self-esteem. In other words, the teacher’s teaching behaviour is directly related to his/her self-esteem.

Self-esteem is created through the blending of expectations for success, actual levels of success and the kinds of attributions made for why success or failure occurred. Once positive or negative self-esteem has developed, it will perpetuate itself in a cycle. If a person believes that he is a failure, he may put himself into situations in which he is destined to fail, if he does not think he can succeed, he may not put forth the amount of effort that success would require. Similarly if a person believes that he is a success; he will not let one little failure cause him to change his entire opinion of his self.

Self-esteem is a concept that a person has regarding his own self which consists of any evaluation that he makes of himself or whatever feelings he has about himself. In fact, what a person thinks about himself comprises the attitudes and feelings that he has about himself. Self-esteem means the value ascribed by the individual to himself and the quality of the way he views himself.

Self-esteem is an experience. It is a particular way of experiencing self. It is good deal more than a mere feeling. It involves emotional, evaluative and cognitive components. It also entails certain action dispositions to move forward life and consciousness rather than away from it, to treat facts with respect rather than denial, to operate self-responsibility rather than the opposite.

In the seventeen century, the philosopher Rene Descartes discussed the “cognite” (awareness of one’s own being) as the core of human existence. Long before Mill (1865) wrote about the self as an experiencing agent.

Some Psychologists like James (1890) called the core of personality pattern, the “self” which provides it a unity. James regards the self, as the sum total of all that a man can call owns - his body, traits and abilities. Freud’s (1927) “ego” refers to self in the sense of conscious awareness, organized aspects of personality. For some, it has been taken to mean the “knower”. Mead (1934) defines the self as that
which is meant by the pronouns “I”, “me” or mine”. Others like Hobler (1939) have thought of self as the central point of an abstract scheme, between up and down and between right and left. From this perspective, the self is all those feelings that individual has about himself. These feelings arise and develop from social interactions with others from the individual’s concern about how others react to him.

Dimock & Hendry (1939) believe that during the process of self-description, the evaluative positive or negative statement about oneself is referred to as self-esteem.

Sullivan (1953) interprets it as the “self-system”.

According to Fiedler, Hutchins and Dodge (1959), self-esteem is the rating a person gives about himself on a set of items descriptive of personal attributes.

Cohen (1959) and Coopersmith (1967) describe self-esteem as an individual evaluation of his own worth, attributes and an individual’s self-esteem affects the evaluation he places on his performance in a particular situation and proposed that individual with high self-esteem may reach with exceptions of success while those with low self-esteem may have exception of failure.

Miller (1963) refers to three components of esteem i.e. “self esteem” (a person’s evaluation of his own attributes), “subjective public esteem” (a person’s evaluation of others’ evaluation of him) and “objective public esteem” (a person’s evaluation actually held by others).

Rosenberg (1965) defines self-esteem as a favorable, unfavorable attitude towards the self.

Coopersmith (1967) explains self-esteem in terms of evaluative attitude towards the self. In his viewpoint, self-esteem refers to the evaluation, which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself; it expresses an
attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful and worthy.

Brisett (1972) considers self-esteem as encompassing two different socio-psychological processes: self-evaluation and self-worth. ‘Self-evaluation’ is the process of making a conscious judgement-judgement regarding the social importance or significance of the self, whereas ‘self-worth’ refers to a sense of personal competencies and security.

Morval and Hogenraad (1972) examine the concept of self-esteem from psycho-analytical, social psychological and existential phenomenological view points. They view self-esteem as the value that an individual attributes to himself.

Carmines (1978) states that self-esteem simply refers to the feeling of being satisfied with oneself and the firm belief of one’s worth. Persons with low self-esteem manifest a variety of adverse personality traits. They tend to be guilt ridden, anxiety prone, afraid of failure as psychologically vulnerable in contrast to persons with high self-esteem who are well integrated and willing to take risks.

Elkind and Weiner (1978) view self-esteem as the value people place on themselves and the extent to which they anticipate success in what they do.

German (1978) considers self-esteem as the esteem attached to the self as it is known to the individual.

According to Harter (1978), self-esteem is essentially self-judgement of one’s own abilities, influences and popularities by limiting or extending the range of the things one attempts in academic, sports or non-academic tasks.

Martin (1982) considers self-esteem as one’s self based on fair appraisal of one’s assets and liabilities and opines self-esteem as a global evaluation the child makes of his worth and competence. Modern theories believe that children can and do differentiate among different aspects of themselves (cognitive, social, physical) as well as general self-esteem in making self-evaluation.
Reidel, Taylor & Melnyk (1983) refers to self-esteem as an attitude toward the self with positive or negative dimension of evaluation.

Bridle (1985) states that self-esteem is the product of the evaluation process that involves judgment about the self.

According to Hewett (1988), “Self-esteem is a self-referential emotion… (and) also involves neurological, muscular, visceral, in short, bodily responses and sensations”.

According to Corey (1994), self-esteem is a multi-dimensional concept, as it exists in degree. It is totally important component of one’s self-concept as it refers to the aspects of both the personal self-concept and social self-concept.

According to Voss and Mulligan (1994), self-esteem is a sense of one’s own values i.e. the qualities one uses to judge oneself and others.

Zervas and Sherman (1994) refer to self-esteem as the affective or valuative component of self-perception and positive self esteem is considered crucial for psychological and emotional well-being.

According to Baumeister, Boden & Smart (1996), “By self-esteem we mean simply a favorable global evaluation of oneself”.

According to Nunn & Thomas (1999), “Self-esteem is an individual’s sense of his or her value or worth to which a person values, approves or appreciates, prizes or likes him or herself”.

According to Banos and Guillen (2000), “Self-esteem is the general attitude a person has about his own self-value”.

According to Branden (2001), “Self-esteem is the disposition to experience oneself as being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and being worth of happiness”.

30
Stratton & Burnett (2002) describe self esteem as the personal evaluation which an individual makes of herself or himself; the sense of their own worth or capabilities.

Hence, self-esteem is the disposition to experience oneself as being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and of being worthy of happiness. It is an experience that success, achievement, fulfillment happiness are right and natural for us. It is confidence in our ability to learn and make appropriate choices and decisions and respond effectively to change. Self-esteem is not the euphoria or buoyancy that may be temporarily induced by a drug...

2.6. LOCUS OF CONTROL

Locus of control is a personality construct. It refers to how far individuals see themselves as in control of and responsible for the course of occurrences (desirable & undesirable) which they experience (Rotter, 1966; Lefcourt, 1976).

Rotter’s theory (1954) suggests that people are distributed along an “Internal-External” continuum. People along the internal end of continuum feel that their abilities, skills, personal effort, competence and similar variables control their destiny. In other words, “Internal” people feel that the outcome of events is generally under the control of the person. An “Internal” understands that effort and reward are correlated.

On the other hand, there are some people who feel whatever happens is “in the cards” – controlled by chances, fate. Such people called “External” by Rotter tend to feel that events in the environment are beyond the control of the individual and they blame their failure on events out side themselves e.g., the teacher’s hostility, the difficulty of books or bad luck. Such people externalize the reasons for their public failure.

According to Rotter (1966) first people have to believe that they have the capacity to perform the necessary behaviour to earn the reinforcement, and also to regard the reward as worth the effort before they will act. Second, and even more
important, they have to expect that when they behave appropriately they will actually receive the desired reward. Therefore, whether or not behaviour occurs depends upon three conditions: a person must have the capacity to produce the behaviour; regard the reward as desirable; and expect that the reward will be received, if the appropriate behaviour is produced.

Much of the conceptualization and research in this area stems from the social-learning theory of Rotter (1966), which provides the general theoretical background for the conception of the nature and effects of reinforcement as also his work on levels of expectancies. The theory states that the occurrence of behaviour of a person is determined not only by the nature or importance of goals or reinforcement but also by the person’s anticipation or expectancy that these goals will occur.

However, an event regarded by some persons as a reward or reinforcement may be differently perceived and reacted to by others. One of the determinants of the reaction is the degree to which the individual perceives that the reward is contingent on his own behaviour or the degree to which he feels the reward is controlled by forces outside of himself and which occur independently of his own actions. The effect of reinforcement following some behaviour on the part of a human subject depends on whether or not the person perceives a causal relationship between his own behaviour and the reward. Rotter (1966) points out that when reinforcement is perceived by subject as not being contingent on his action, then it is perceived as a result of luck, chance, fate and under the control of powerful others. When an individual interprets the event in this way, it is labeled as a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent on his behaviour or his own relatively permanent characteristics it is labeled as belief in internal control.

There are some consistent patterns exhibited by internals as opposed to externals. Internals typically perceive themselves to be effective, assertive and independent. They spend more time in intellectual activities and academic pursuits (Crandall et al., 1965). A common argument for the expected relationship between
internality and academic achievement stems from the assumption that if a person believes that one’s own successes or failures are due to result of one’s behavior, the person will be more likely to exhibit initiative and persistence in seeking achievement goals (Rotter, 1966). The individual would thereby acquire more information and greater problem solving skill (Davis and Phares, 1967). Such people tend to better utilize information that has been equivalently acquired and retained by internals and externals (Phares, 1968).

Lefcourt (1966) states that locus of control is not to be regarded as an omnibus trait similar to “competence” and intelligence which pertains to each and every fact of human endeavour. Rather, it can more fruitfully be defined as a circumscribed self-appraisal pertaining to the degree, to which individuals view themselves as being some casual role in determining specific events. Locus of control refers to the extent to which a person believes that he has control over the reinforcement he experienced.

According to Rotter (1966), “Locus of control is a concept describing whether people feel that control of their lives rests in their own hands (internal locus of control) or in the hands of others (external locus of control).”

Rotter (1966) further remarks that locus of control refers to one’s belief in his or her abilities to control life events.

Rotter’s (1966) definition states that the locus of control represents an individual’s perception of being able or unable to control what happens to him. This formulation of the locus of control interprets the notion in terms of control, over events. As such it reflects an aspect depicted by Palenzuela (1984) as “perceived behavioral outcome contingency”. In the same way, it also seems reasonable to think that internal control is manifested as an individual’s tendency to perceive him as the cause of what happens to him and external control as a tendency to attribute this causality to external forces.
According to DuCette and Wolk (1972) an internal person perceives that he is in control of his fate and that effort and reward will be correlated. But an external person perceives that powerful others or the systems determine how well he can do and that rewards are distributed by such powerful others in a random fashion.

According to the International Dictionary of Education (1977), locus of control is a personality construct referring to an individual’s perception of the place of events as determined internally by his/her own behavior against luck, fate or external forces.

Graybill (1977) has shown that personal control is not synonymous with internal control. A person may believe in a relationship contingency and yet, be lacking in personal control. Bandura (1977) opines that the term locus of control is often used interchangeably with self-efficacy. However, the terms are not equivalent. While self-efficacy focuses on the perception of ability to act competently and effectively, locus of control focuses on the perception of control.

Weiner (1979) separated locus of control into locus and control, which were considered as two independent attributional dimensions. Locus or locus – of – causality refers to whether the cause of reinforcement is internal or external and control of controllability refers to whether the cause is controllable or uncontrollable.

Zimbardo (1985) states that locus of control orientation is a belief about whether the outcomes of our actions depend on what we do (internal control orientation) or on events outside our personal control (external control orientation). Locus of control has a major influence on our motivation, expectations, self-esteem, risk-taking behavior and even on the actual outcome of our actions.

Petersen (1987) defines internal locus of control as the perception that, an individual has of being able to influence the occurrence of reinforcements around him by his behavior. In the same way, the external locus of control expresses the
perception of an individual who believes that influencing reinforcement around him is not within his control. In other words, it is the perception of change, the possibility that reinforcement might occur.

Some research suggests that what underlines the internal locus of control is the concept “self as agent” (Mc Combs, 1991). This means that one’s thoughts control one’s actions and that when one realizes this executive function of thinking one can positively affect one’s beliefs, motivation and academic performance. The self as agent can consciously or unconsciously direct, select and regulate the use of all knowledge, structures and intellectual processes in support of personal goals, intentions, and choices. Mc Combs states that the degree to which one chooses to be self-determining is a function of one’s realization of the source of agency and personal control. In other words, one can say to oneself, “I choose to direct my thoughts and energies toward accomplishment. I choose not to be daunted by feelings of inadequacy”.

Locus of control is thus, the perceived source of control over one’s behaviour. People with internal locus of control believe that they control their own destiny. They tend to be convinced that their own skill, ability and efforts determine the bulk of their life experiences. In contrast, people with external locus of control believe that their lives are determined mainly by sources outside themselves – fate, chance, luck or powerful others. One’s life is profoundly influenced by whether one perceives control over life as predominantly internal or external. Locus of control influences the way one view’s one self and one’s opportunities. If one regards a test in driving primarily as dependent on one’s own effort and ability, then one can see the locus of control in the situation (control over whether one passes or fails) as being with oneself. However, if a person regards passing or failing as being predominantly out of his/her hands, then one see the locus of control depending upon chance or fate (e.g. how heavy the traffic is on that day) or upon powerful others beyond one’s influence (the driving test examiner). The former point of view would be typical of someone with internal locus of control, the latter of someone with external locus of control.