Introduction
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Education, in the present scenario, is undergoing a transformation. The learning needs of the young students are growing due to the information overload. However the community of teachers in every discipline can only teach the way they were taught, and go into the classroom assuming that all they need to bring there is their content expertise, the long years of having taught the discipline, and the dedication to do the best. Ideas, questions, and individual discoveries are not restricted to the contact time of the standard classroom. However, student’s discussion opportunities state that the purpose of education for teachers is restricted to scheduled class meeting times and teachers’ teaching hours. Recent interactive implementations of the World Wide Web and other instructional strategies like Self Learning Modules and Computer based learning system offer opportunities for sharing ideas, posing questions, and presenting individual discoveries at the time of convenience, and better, at the time of thought. Interactivity here develops outside official teaching hours and learning programs. It challenges students and makes them more independent, to help the students achieve meaningful learning, to be able to find logical interrelationships among data, to respect different points of view, to be flexible and rethink their opinions when reason leads them to do so. The basic purpose of this is to develop critical thinking – an intellectual process of actively conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating information gathered from observation, experience, reflection, or communication. Students should also talk about and not just listen to what the teachers are teaching. One should be open to new ideas and technology to facilitate learning. Educators in India need to exploit this powerful tool that is ‘student-friendly’ for disseminating information to facilitate English Language learning. It provides a refreshing change from the usual routine of lectures and discussions, followed in most schools and colleges (Arora and Singh, 2007).
The feeling of dissatisfaction with the present system of education has been expressed time and again by educationists as well as by general public. They feel that the opportunities of experiencing success should be provided to the children. They must be encouraged to perceive themselves as good learners, to set high standards, believe in themselves, and to adopt learning strategies to help them overcome difficulties. It is important that successful opportunities are provided for all students. Educators must also look at what factors students attribute to their success or failure. Success enhances a child's belief in him/her self. This success leads to a child accepting responsibility for success. And, for all this to become a reality, school systems must recognize that traditional methods of teaching and learning are unsuccessful for many students. They need to evaluate and adapt alternatives like self learning modules to fulfill the promises they make and to discharge the duties they undertake. Thus, if we are to really help learners to become academically successful, we would have to first examine them more closely and then develop alternative self learning modules suiting to their individual cognitive styles (Ahuja & Singla, 2005).

Robinson (1992) states that students' characteristics as well as societal expectations have changed, while traditional methods and modes of instruction are still employed by a large number of educators. Expectations for schooling have also grown. Schools are expected to meet world-class standards, create model citizens and meet calls for public accountability. It is not acceptable for only an elite few, with high educational ambitions, to benefit from the new knowledge for achieving these goals. Achieving national goal will require that all schools provide stimulating, substantively rigorous opportunities for all students to learn and achieve higher.

According to Mehlinger (1996) our primary goals should be to help schools to become places where students learn more effectively.

With the impact of modern technology along with rapid strides of development in modern instructional techniques, there is a strong urge to refine and improve our teaching strategies and instructional techniques with a view to realize the fullest potentialities of the individual learner. Moreover pupils differ in their abilities and capacities to realize the specific objectives
with the stipulated period. Here it is worth to be mentioned that the conventional method of teaching is group based in nature which does not care the individual difference at all and consequently the slow learners differ in their learning which generate a good deal of frustration among the slow learners. To encounter such type of problems of individual differences of slow learners, technologies of instructional techniques have come out with some innovations with the help of which teaching learning process has got revolutionized. The whole instructional technology work on two aspects i.e. individual difference and mastery of desired content.

Modern instructional techniques like programmed instruction, the model approach, learning packages, personalized system of instruction, modular approach emphasized the aspects of self learning as they maximize the learning. These instructional strategies provide self teaching study materials to students so that they can learn and progress at their individual speed. Studies on the effective use of learning packages, personalized system of instruction and self-instructional strategies have attracted the attention of some researchers.

Panda (1990); Arockaim (1990); and Nath (2000) found that students taught by method of learning performed better than the control group taught by the conventional method.

Dasgupta (1987); Kumar (1995); and Kapoor (1990) have tested the impact of personalized system of instruction and it was found positive and effective in nature. Rabindradas (1984) observed that self instructional teaching desire was significantly more effective strategy as compared to conventional classroom teaching.

So in modern times individualized technique is modular strategy, which is more recent development than either personalized system of instruction learning package or audio tutorial. Module represents a self-contained instructional package covering a single conceptual unit of subject matter. The idea of module did not have its inception in any one individual or group but was generated spontaneously by many people interested in improving education and instructional design. The use of modules grew through the
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1960's and 1970's and currently the modular strategy is well interchanged as a means of tutoring instruction to individual needs.

Modular strategy enables a teacher to organize numerous sequences of experience to reflect special interests of a teacher in the student, focus on student deficiencies in subject matter, assess the students progress in learning and the teacher is free to engage in personal contact with the students, update study material without major revision, the strategy serve the modules for individual teachers to reduce the chances of failure and exchange Self Instructional units among instructions.

In the same way the modular approach offers avenues for individualized study on the part of the student as the instructional strategy provides the facility to involve the students in learning process, permit students to explore portions of subjects of particular interest, progress at their own pace, leave already familiarized material and some time, master each module completely before proceeding to the next, and develop a sense of responsibility for his or her own learning (Husen & Postlethwaite, 1985).

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY

"A Instructional strategy is ... a plan for someone else's learning, and it encompasses the presentations which the teacher might make, the exercises and activities designed for students, materials which will be supplied or suggested for students to work with, and ways in which evidence of their growing understanding and capability will be collected." (Toohey, 1999).

This definition emphasizes that a teaching strategy is fundamentally about supporting our student's learning. In giving consideration to how, as academics, we can teach in order to ensure that our students are engaging with the learning process, it is necessary to focus on the type of teaching strategies we can employ to achieve this end.

So, Instruction is the organized system of activities, which works towards the realization of certain specific objectives. The system involves different component-terms, concepts, facts, theory, generalization, rules, principles although distinct in their nature and operation, function in a coordinated manner contributing to the achievement of goals. In an
Instructional situation, the components of the system are input of learning material and various techniques and maxims such as lecture, discussion, programmed instruction, practical work, library work and other teaching aids are used for presentation.

Instruction deals with the manipulation of conditions of the learning situation with commanding attention, with presenting essential stimuli and with the nature and sequence of direction given to the learner.

An Instructional Strategy means the organization of suitable instructional components with functions specified in relation to the specific goals to be achieved. These components in any system appear in the final form of the instructional strategy in an integrated fashion. It has four phases:

1. To identify specific objectives;
2. To develop suitable learning material for the objectives;
3. To validate the workability of the strategy; and
4. To integrate different components to form the instructional strategy.

According to Husen & Postlethwaite (1990), instructional strategies are subsets of methods of instructional Strategies are more global and encompassing. Teachers concern about the selection of instructional strategies will influence the effectiveness, efficacy and appeal of instruction.

Reigeluth (1983) prescribes that three most-important concerns of instruction strategies are outcomes, conditions and methods.

- The outcomes are the effects or the methods of instruction, their effectiveness, efficiency and appeal.
- The conditions influence the effects of the methods and therefore influence the selection of methods. They include the nature of the content, the learners, the learning environment, and the constraints of the development process.

Davies (1971) describes the concept of managing teaching learning as instructional procedure which involves four steps” (1) Planning, (2) Organizing
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(3) Leading and (4) Controlling. In these steps the main emphasis has been given on objectives, strategies of teaching and evaluation techniques. But a teacher concerns with teaching concepts, principles, skills and problem solving. These are the means to achieve objectives and to evaluate the student's performance. The knowledge of concepts and understanding is very essential to a teacher for developing effective instructional strategy.

From Carroll (1963) Bloom derived a critical and quantitative ingredient of instruction - the time. Carroll (1963) in his Mode of School Learning proposed that degree to which a student could be expected to learn is a function of the ratio of the time actually spent in learning to time needed.

\[
\text{Degree of Learning} = f \left( \frac{\text{Time actually spent}}{\text{Time needed}} \right)
\]

The model proposed that, under typical school learning conditions, the time spent and the time needed were functions of certain characteristics of the individual and his instruction.

1.1 SELF-LEARNING MODULE

Modules are relatively a new means of instructions. A module is Self-contained, Self-pacing and Self-learning by nature but a teacher has a positive role to play in its use. According to Husen (1985) "A module is a set of experiences designed to facilitate the learner demonstration of specified objectives". A module is a self-contained and independent unit of instruction with the primary focus on a few well-defined objectives. The substance of a module consists of materials and instructions needed to accomplish predetermined objectives. The boundaries of a module are definable only in terms of stated objectives (Creager & Murray, 1971).

A self-learning module is one type of instructional material with which a learner can acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes in the absence of a teacher. It differs from other types of instructional materials. It is self-contained and independent of live instructions (Abedor, 1978).
Individualized instruction enables each child to study at his own pace and according to his interests and abilities. "The main goal of individualized instruction is that each child's learning becomes self initiated and self directed" (Sharma, 1990).

"The present practice of mechanically applying the same methods to average as well as bright children is responsible for much of the ineffectiveness of the instruction given in school. If these various groups of children are allowed to proceed at their own appropriate pace and the method, as well as the curricula load are properly adjusted, it will be good for all children, and it will save the dull children from discouragement and the bright children from a sense of frustration." The Secondary Education Commission (1964-66).

Sharma (2001) believes that the instructional module is a unit of learning, which includes a set of activities intended to facilitate the learner's achievement of specific objectives. It is a relatively self-contained unit, designed for a specific purpose and is a part of a broader, more comprehensive instructional system. For him, following are the components of a module:

- the rationale
- the objectives
- the pre-assessment tests
- the enabling activities
- the post assessment
- the feedback mechanism

Shore (1973) directs our attention to the term 'module' as an alternative way to plan for instruction and is concern with the module as 'unit of instruction' usually self contained. He describes four different kinds of modules:
1. Modules based on complete existing courses.
2. Modules based on parts of existing courses.
3. Supplementary course modules often laboratory, enrichment, or remedial work tied to content of existing course but not actually a part of the course itself.
4. Modules on general topics – not designed for any one course and hence might be called independent modules.

Dewal (1997) while explaining the relevance of self learning modules in collaborative projects undertaken by NCTE and commonwealth of learning vocabulary emphasized that teacher is a crucial input for quality education and professional input provided to teacher will have tangible impact on teacher’s activities, which, in turn, would contribute to students improved performance. Self learning modules will update a teacher’s professional competencies, in an effort towards empowerment of the teacher. Self instructional modules are developed and designed in such manner that the modules undertake the function of a teacher. The material contain in the module will interact with student, evaluate and monitor progress of students and provide them feedback comments. Each module undertakes some of the activities that a teacher is expected to take up in a classroom, viz.

- Informing students about the instructional objectives;
- Securing and gaining students attention;
- Stimulating recall of prerequisite concepts;
- Inviting participation;
- Eliciting performance;
- Providing feedback; and
- Enhancing retention by frequent repetitions.
According to Creager & Murray (1971), "A module consists of the following components:

(a) statement of purpose;
(b) desirable pre-requisite skills;
(c) instructional objectives;
(d) diagnostic pre-test;
(e) implementer for the module;
(f) the modular program;
(g) related experiences;
(h) evaluative post-test;
(i) assessment of module."

Above-mentioned definitions highlight some of the specific characteristics, such as a specific and small self-instructional unit, self-paced, employing different types of media, having specific steps ranging from objectives to evaluation, etc. modules can be a part of more comprehensive strategy of instruction. These can well be used by different types of target groups.

1.1.1 Essential Characteristics of Self-Learning Module

Researcches on instructional processes have shown that the existence of certain characteristics in instructional material greatly improves learning.

In a self-learning module some of the important and essential characteristics that should be present for effective learning are listed as follows:

1. **Essentially Self-Contained**: Most modules contain within themselves all the material needed to achieve the objectives of the module. Frequently the term "package" is used in connection with self-instructional materials such as modules and this reflects the idea of a "closed" self-contained unit.

2. **Self-Instructional**: The student using module is given the opportunity to conduct self-paced study with inbuilt "instant-replay". Furthermore
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modular packages can be sequenced in a variety of patterns to build unique courses of study catering for students with different interests and needs.

A basic assumption made in the development of any self-paced learning package is that learning is a process, which must be undertaken by the learner. Responsibility for learning shift from the teacher to the student. Self-instructional systems such as module are student-centered.

3. **Concern for Individual Differences:** Self-instructional modules allow the rate of learning to be adjusted to suit the needs of each individual student. The slow learner is able to repeat any part of the package, which was found difficult. Fast learners can move more quickly provided they could demonstrate achievement of the objectives set for that module. In many cases students using modules can work alone and this frees them from keeping to the average pace of a group.

4. **Statement of Objectives in behavioural terms:** It almost goes without saying that students learn more efficiently when they have a clear directive about what is it they should learn. Clearly stated objectives have a key role for those who write modules, for the teacher who uses them and for the student studying them. At the developmental level statements of objectives give direction and focus. Well-stated objectives give the developer criteria for the selection of subject matter, learning activities and test items. He or she knows exactly what the learner is expected to achieve and so can design all aspects of the module to meet each objective. The teacher gains insight into the suitability of the module for his or her students and can closely monitor progress towards the achievement of the objectives. For the student, objectives exactly describe what is expected and provide goals to be mastered. Each student's learning activities become goal oriented. Modular packages therefore take full advantage of the benefits of a clear statement of objectives.

5. **Optimal Association, Sequence and Structure of Content:** In construction of a module close attention is given to the most
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appropriate sequencing of meaningful material. Basic ideas upon which subsequent information is dependent are presented first. This is in line with views by educators such as Robert Gagne who claim that instruction is most effective when information is sequenced as a hierarchy of ideas. Simpler concepts lead to more complex ideas. In a module each terminal objective requires its own hierarchy.

Gagne would cater for individual differences in the backgrounds of learners by letting each student start at an appropriate point in the hierarchy. Other educators such as Robert Mager would prefer to respond to individual differences by allowing each student to generate his or her own learning sequence, relating what needs to be known to what is already known. According to this view if the sequence of learning events does not suit a student, then with appropriately designed self-instruction he or she is free to alter the sequence to suit specific needs.

It is easy to see how modular instruction can accommodate both the Gagne and Mager points of view. By inspection of published objectives students can choose only those learning sequences within a module that are relevant to their needs (Gagne) and can also select and sequence modules according to their individual requirements (Mager).

6. Utilization of a Variety of Media and Methods: It is well established that students differ in their responsiveness to different media of instruction. Modules have the further characteristic of providing opportunities for a wide variety of methods of instruction, varying say, from straight out reading, through problem solving and discussion sessions, to practical work and the exploration of media. In this way, they avoid monotony and maintain interest and motivation.

7. Gaining and Maintaining Attention: Gaining and maintaining learner attention is very important in self-learning but is one of the most difficult jobs in instructional design. Research has shown that the most successful method of gaining and maintaining attention is through skill of stimulus variation. Frequent variation in instructions is given to the learners. Various techniques suggested by different educationists for
gaining and sustaining attention are:

- Use of Diagrams, sketches, charts, photos, cartoons
- Use of in text question
- Use of humour
- Introduction to variety of activities
- Use of techniques of emphasizing underlining, capitals, or use of boxes etc

8. Information provided on Progress (i.e. Feedback): An important characteristic of modules is that they provide continuous feedback to students on their performance and especially to their progress towards achieving objectives. They do this by building frequent interval in-text questions, checklists and quizzes and by immediately providing answers to these so that students can themselves check up on their levels of knowledge, understanding and skill. Modules generally require students to make regular written responses and the correct or model answer is then provided on the next page. Students who fail to answer correctly quickly see where they went wrong and can return to appropriate learning sequence to improve their knowledge and understanding. This is one of the most important characteristics of modules.

9. Immediate Reinforcement of Response: Closely related to the previous point is the question of reinforcement. By reinforcement in this context is meant consolidation of learning through reward for success. Self-instructional modules use reinforcement of correct responses to shape behavior. As we have seen above, students are more in control of the size of each learning step. Students can see immediately if they are right or wrong. If they have been conscientious in studying the material they are usually correct. The satisfaction gained from success provides rewards, which are the basis of reinforcement. As in the case of feedback, reinforcement is most effective if it is immediate and modules provide this immediacy.
10. **Active Participation by the Learner:** Modules characteristically encourage students to actively participate in the lesson. Since students are usually in control of the lesson, they decide when to move ahead, when to study a particular specimen, when to answer questions, and whether or not to repeat a section, which has not been well understood. Modules also encourage maximum participation by their very design. They continually pose questions; instruct in activities and challenge learners to achieve specified objectives. Active participation is guaranteed.

11. **Mastery Evaluation Strategy:** The most effective modules utilize a system of student assessment, which requires mastery of the objectives. By mastery is meant achievement of a preset standard as judged by a prescribed criterion or level of performance. It is assumed that students will "master" one module before proceeding to the next in a sequence.

    Modules, and sometimes units within modules, usually conclude with a carefully structured mastery test with items corresponding one-to-one, with the objectives. Students can check off which objectives have been attained and which have not been attained.

    Thus, while developing a self-learning module the above mentioned characteristics should be taken care of, so as to make the self-learning module more effective.

    No single definition of a module has been acceptable to everyone, and as a consequence, the term has been applied variously to include all sorts of units, materials, and the combinations. A self-learning module is so designed that it does not require the presence of a teacher. It is capable of standing alone and acts itself as a teacher.

    ➢ A module contains three co-coordinated basic elements of
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instruction viz.
(a) Objectives
(b) Learning activities and
(c) Evaluation.

It is in these characteristics that the modules differ from other instructional materials. Other forms of instructional materials either do not have all the 3 elements i.e. objective, learning activities and evaluation or if they do have then the elements themselves are not coordinated. The philosophy behind Instructional Modules is based on the generally accepted fact that each learner is unique and is different from others in background, experience, inherent qualities, habits and learning styles, and as such should be allowed to grow and develop to the fullest potential. Modular approach is an attempt to make the instruction individualized so that the student learns at his own pace according to the interests, capabilities and capacities. Modular approach appears to be an effective and economical way of developing specific knowledge and skills with the minimum of teacher's direction and supervision.

The modules can be prepared in different forms. One of the unique characteristics of the modules is that they can be sub-divided into smaller modules units to meet the needs of each individual student or group of students. In other words, they can be designed for individual or group study or both. Since a module often consists of self-contained modular units, component can be used singly or in combination with others in accordance with the varied needs and interests of the students. One of the important characteristics of a module is that a student or a group of students meets them for self-study and self-evaluation.

A learning module, therefore, is a package of selected information which focuses on a specified subject that has been appropriately designed to
provide the learner an educational opportunity in a self-directed learning format.

1.1.2 Comparison between Conventional Learning and Self-Learning Module

With normal or "conventional" instruction, learners meet together regularly in classes & much of their learning is done face to face with a teacher. Although they may spend a considerable amount of time learning on their own, this will usually involve them in using materials that already exists e.g. books & journals. That is their private study materials will not have been created especially for them, with their particular course needs in mind.

Another hindrance to traditional learning, especially in grades KG through 12, is the "one size fits all" mentality it embraces. Many students just do not learn well in a traditional learning environment, but thrive in a more flexible setting.

Self-instruction, on the other hand, depends on materials specially written-or at least specially selected & modified-with particular course objectives in mind. Furthermore, they will be structured in such a way that learners do most, if not all, their learning from the materials alone. The materials must carry out all the functions a teacher would carry out in the conventional situation - guiding, motivating, intriguing, expounding, explaining, provoking, reminding asking questions, discussing alternative answers, appraising each learner's progress, giving appropriate remedial or enrichment help & so on. Table 1.1 summarizes the differences between Conventional learning and Self-Instructional Modules.
Table 1.1 Comparison of conventional learning with self-instructional modules.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. No.</th>
<th>Condition of learning</th>
<th>Conventional learning</th>
<th>Self-Learning Module</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Proximity in time and place of all elements to be learned enhances learning.</td>
<td>Students may not get all the information to achieve the objectives but may later have to follow up with other activities in different places and at different times.</td>
<td>It is essentially self-contained and so all information necessary is available at the same time and place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Learning is more effective if individual differences are catered for</td>
<td>Students are forced to go through the course in a lockstep manner. They begin at the same time and are expected to finish at the same time.</td>
<td>Each student can proceed at his or her own pace and free skip any portion or package as long as mastery can be demonstrated. Each student is also free to repeat any portion as often as necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Learning is more effective if the learners are told precisely what they should be able to do after instruction.</td>
<td>Frequently objectives are not written down and teachers are free to interpret content as they wish. Students are not told precisely the objectives of instruction.</td>
<td>Objectives are written down in clear, unambiguous terms.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Structuring a learning sequence into logical steps enhances learning. Conventional materials are typically characterized by lectures, reading the text, group discussions and sometimes an isolated laboratory experience. Many a-time these experiences are not sequentially integrated. Packages provide a combination of laboratory experience in an integrated sequence so that each learning activity can enhance and complement others.

5. Active participation in learning enhances its effectiveness. The student's role is usually passive—reading the text, following instruction or just listening to the teacher. Packages provide active participation. Students learn by doing.

6. Learning is more effective if learners receive information quickly on their rate of progress. In traditional courses students are reinforced and corrected only after major examinations. The package offers immediate reinforcement and correction at every step of the learning.

7. Learning as a member of a group enhances the learning of an individual. This is catered for in conventional classes although the size of the class is often too large to reap full benefit. Most learning packages are individualized, but group experiences can add.
1.1.3 Framework towards Designing Modules for Learning

In Fig. 1.1 A Framework for Module Design and Development is outlined. This provides an overview of the process, highlighting the important variables in module design and illustrating the relationships between them; however it is important to stress that it is not a linear process.

Fig. 1.1: Framework for Module Design and Development
By Roisin Donnelly and Marian Fitzmaurice (2005)
1.1.4 Components of a Module

The following are the main components of the module:

1. **Title:** The title of the module should be clear and concise.

2. **Introduction:** The introduction should give the background and rationale of the module as well as the target population for whom the module has been developed.

3. **Overview:** The overview introduces the learner to the theme of the module - its purpose, structure, organization and uses. It should give an overall impression of the module and its content.

4. **Instruction to the Users:** This component should include clear instructions to the learner as to how this should proceed, and what he has to do after each step or stage. This is an important component of the module as it would help the learner in self-learning. Most of the instructions are related to the different components of the module such as how to take pretest, formative test, summative test and how to undertake learning activities etc., can be given in this section. Some of the specific instructions related to evaluation and learning activities can also be given at the appropriate stage.

5. **Entry Behaviour Test:** Sometimes it is necessary to include a test specially designed to check whether the students have necessary background to understand the module. The pre-test is taken by the learner at the beginning. This helps to find out the level of knowledge and skills that the learner already has. This helps the learner to find for himself the entry points in the module. If they fail this test than they should be advised on how to catch-up by means of reading, solving problems or completing specified practical task.

6. **Objectives:** The instructional objectives of the module should be clearly stated. They should specify the expected learning outcomes in terms of behaviour. A behavioural objective should be stated clearly and precisely so that the learner would know what the learning
outcome of a given activity would be.

7. **Learning activities:** Learning activities should be provided in a planned and sequenced manner. These activities enable the learner to develop behaviour in a pre-determined direction.

8. **Formative tests:** Formative tests are given at the end of each learning unit or learning activity. The formative tests help the learner to know whether he has achieved the expected behavioural outcomes. If he has not reached the expected mastery level, he should go through the learning activities again in consultation with the teacher.

9. **Summative Evaluation.** The summative evaluation is done with the help of a post-test. The post-test helps in knowing how well the learner has attained learning outcomes. In some modules the pre-tests and the post-tests are the same but it is advisable to have two parallel versions of the same test.

1.1.5 **Developing of a Module**

The following are the steps, which can be used for developing a module:

1. Identify the target group,
2. Identify learning needs of the group,
3. Decide terminal behavior,
4. Identify entry behavior,
5. Assessment of entry behavior through pre-test,
6. Teaching frames including objectives, learning activities, formative evaluation and summative evaluation,
7. Try-out of the module,
8. Revision and finalization of the module.
1.1.6 Advantages of Self-Learning Modules

A list of some of possibilities inherent in scheme of study of modules for the students:

(1) The student must be involved in the learning process so his or her commitment to the task is likely to be enhanced.

(2) A large pool of modules will permit students to explore portions of subjects of particular interest.

(3) The students have full control of the rate of study, thus they can progress at their own pace.

(4) Students are not forced to cover materials, which are already known to them.

(5) The consequences of failure are reduced; each student can master each module completely before proceeding to the next.

(6) Each student has the opportunity to develop a sense of responsibility for his or her own learning.

(7) Modules cover theory, practice, action research and professional development.

(8) All modules in this focus on the young learner up to 16 years of age.

(9) Flexibility of study – students study when they want to, not to a classroom-based timetable, causing less professional and personal disruption.

(10) Supervision is carried out by the most suitable means for each student, in a warm, friendly and supportive atmosphere.

(11) There is more opportunity to ‘trial’ ideas immediately in the classroom after study.

(12) Teaching and supervision is given by leading academics in the field.

(13) There is a very high success rate for students in the programme.
1.1.7 Specific Benefits of Self Learning Modules for students

There are several distinct benefits of Self Learning Modules for the students. Among them are:

1. SLM is compatible with any and all learning styles and strategies

The assumption is the students will approach their learning in a way that is most compatible with their own learning style and strategy. In approaching pre-designed, structured training modules, students can seek out those most congruent with their learning styles. Where the student designs his/her own learning experience, they would opt for those with which they are most comfortable.

2. SLM is compatible with any and all instructional methodologies

SLM is not an instructional methodology, but rather an approach to learning. The core notion of SLM is responsibility and accountability for learning, not instructional methodologies. As such, SLM is compatible with all instructional methodologies. What does not exist now but would flourish in an ideal SLM world would be the proliferation of new, alternative learning modalities, e.g., shadowing, task force membership, etc.

3. SLM is not time dependent

Students can engage in their own learning whenever it is practical for them to do so and work at their own pace not unlike current situations involving e-learning or written, self-study modules. No waiting for schedule classroom sessions. The more pressing and urgent the learning problem, the quicker the learning can be initiated but within a time frame that is meaningful and appropriate to the students.

In self-learning module (SLM), the individual takes the initiative and the responsibility for what occurs. Individuals select, manage, and assess their own learning activities, which can be pursued at any time, in any place, through any means, at any age. In schools, teachers can work toward SLM a stage at a time. Teaching emphasizes SLM skills, processes, and systems rather than content coverage and tests. For the individual, SLM involves initiating personal challenge activities and developing the personal qualities to
pursue them successfully. It supports home-schooling, experiential education, open schooling and life-long learning. Keeping a journal, setting goals, planning and taking action are key tools. Self-improvement, personal development and the development of character are central themes of SLM.

As we have seen that the main driving forces behind the introduction of modules lies in the fact that they have roles that can help solve key educational problems. This is largely because they satisfy the basic conditions to promote efficient learning and are extremely flexible in execution. In addition they have several possible advantages in administration also as Modules are economical to use. Modules can be exportable from one campus to another so that the expense of preparation can be shared among institutions. A major disadvantage to self-learning module is the self-discipline it requires. While being able to work at your own pace can be an advantage, it can also be a disadvantage. This is especially true for students who have difficulty with time management and procrastination. These students tend to be more successful with the structure of traditional learning. Lack of interaction between teacher and student is another drawback to self-learning modules. Some students need the immediate feedback that interaction provides. Still many can benefit from the modules prepared at any one institution. Thus, despite the fact that initial cost of design and development of modules are high they are ultimately extremely cost effective.

1.2 LEARNING OUTCOMES

The term learning outcome refers to the acquisition of behaviour being developed by the new S-R connections. It is a relatively permanent behaviour change tendency and is the result of reinforced practice (Kimble & Garmezy, 1963; Melvin, 1969; 1970). Learning may be defined as a relatively enduring change in behaviour, which is a function of prior behaviour usually called practice (Melvin, 1970). It is not simply an event that happens naturally but an event that happens under certain conditions (Gagne, 1977). These conditions can be altered and controlled leading to the possibility of examining the occurrence of learning by means of the methods of science.
Gagne’s viewpoint on learning is that it occurs when certain observable changes in human behaviour take place that justify the inference of learning (Gagne, 1977). The inference of learning is made by comparing what behaviour was possible before the individual was placed in a learning situation and behaviour can be exhibited after a situation (Gagne, 1977). Thus learning includes the ability to recall various parts of the learned material (Tolman, 1932). Many of the basic principles of learning have been developed in the laboratory are applicable to the school situation.

Learning is not limited to schools. It occurs when experience causes a relatively permanent change in an individual’s knowledge or behaviour (Guilford, 1955; Hilly, 1990; Schwartz & Reisberg, 1991). The change may be deliberate or intentional for better or for worse (Guilford, 1955; Schwartz & Reisberg, 1991).

Usually changes resulting from learning are in the individuals’ knowledge or behaviour (Guilford, 1955) Psychologists differ on the type of changes that can cause learning. Some emphasize the change knowledge were as other emphasize on the cognitive psychologists who focus on the change in knowledge believe that knowledge is an internal mental activity that cannot be observed directly (Schwartz & Reisberg, 1991; Woolfolk, 1993). Behavioural psychologists assume that learning outcomes is a change in behaviour. They therefore emphasize on the effects of external events on the individuals. Some early behaviorists like Walson, J.B. look the radical position that since thinks intentions and other internal mental events could not be seen or studied rigorously in the explanation of learning (Restle, 1975; Woolfolk, 1993; Hill, 1990).

When the learner is subjected to a learning situation, he undergoes certain experiences, which include some perception, manipulation of ideas, feelings and some motor activity (Wingo & Morse, 1970).

Gagne (1977) found a hierarchical principle useful for moving from learning principles to the other sequencing of instruction by making hierarchy
the basis of approach to a theory of instruction through a desirable sequence characteristics associated with fine type of the outcomes (Gagne, 1977; Gagne & Biggs, 1974). The occurrence of learning is inferred from the difference in human beings performance before and after being placed in a learning situation (Gagne, 1977). The type of learning outcomes which Gagne, called varieties of learning capabilities must be observed as human performance behaviour characteristics with varying specific details (Gagne & Biggs, 1974).

A learning outcome is the specification of what a student should learn as the result of a period of specified and supported study.

However, learning outcomes and objectives are more difficult to distinguish as objectives can be written in terms that are very similar to that used in learning outcomes. Indeed, in the UK polytechnic sector in the 1970s, objectives were written that identified what students should be able to do; this was well before they were known as learning outcomes.

Learning outcomes and ‘aims and objectives’ are often used synonymously, although they are not the same. Adam (2004) notes that ‘Aims are concerned with teaching and the teacher’s intentions whilst learning outcomes are concerned with learning’ and Moon (2002) suggests that one way to distinguish aims from learning outcomes is that aims indicate the general content, direction and intentions behind the module from the designer/teacher viewpoint.

UMIST (2001) defines a learning outcome as: Learning Outcome: the acquisition of the knowledge, skill or understanding that is the desired outcome of a learning process.

CHEA (2003) provides a definition, with riders: Student learning outcomes are properly defined in terms of the knowledge, skills, and abilities that a student has attained at the end (or as a result) of his or her engagement in a particular set of higher education experiences. Not all of the outcomes of college are confined to learning. Additional behavioral outcomes or experiences that may result from attending an institution or program include employment and increased career mobility, enhanced incomes and lifestyles,
the opportunity to enroll for additional education, or simply a more fulfilled and reflective life. Hopefully, these are related to learning. Indeed, evidence that students have obtained such benefits is often used by institutions and programs as a proxy for instructional effectiveness. But such subsequent experiences, however successful, should not be confused with actual mastery of what has been taught. Similarly, student and graduate satisfaction is important, especially as it is related to persistence and the continuing opportunity to learn. But it should not be confused with student learning it.

Student learning outcomes describe what students should know, be able to do, and value by the end of their educational program. Within undergraduate education, four general dimensions of learning outcomes are commonly identified:

- **Knowledge outcomes** pertain to grasp of fundamental cognitive content, core concepts or questions, basic principles of inquiry, a broad history, and/or varied disciplinary techniques.

- **Skills outcomes** focus on capacity for applying basic knowledge, analyzing and synthesizing information, assessing the value of information, communicating effectively, and collaborating.

- **Attitudes and values outcomes** encompass affective states, personal/professional/social values, and ethical principles.

- **Behavioral outcomes** reflect a manifestation of knowledge, skills, and attitudes as evidenced by performance, contributions, etc. While all of these dimensions represent important aspects of undergraduate student learning, some types of outcomes (e.g., knowledge, skills, and behavioral) tend to more readily lend themselves to evaluation based on “direct” evidence than do others, such as attitudes and values outcomes. This does not mean that attitudes and values outcomes should be viewed as inherently less important than other types of learning outcomes. Rather, this is simply a consideration to keep in mind when developing your program’s assessment plan. Certainly, indirect evidence pertaining to all types of learning outcomes can be used to augment analysis of direct evidence and to enrich program faculty’s understanding of student learning within the major and related implications for educational practice.
European Union (EU), (2004) view is that learning outcomes are statements of what a learner is expected to know, understand and/or be able to demonstrate after a completion of a process of learning.

Government of British Colombia Ministry of Education (BC) (2004) view is that learning outcome statements are content standards for the provincial education system. Learning outcomes are statements of what students are expected to know and to do at an indicated grade, they comprise the prescribed curriculum.

American Association of Law Libraries (AALL) (2004) adds a normative element to the definition: Learning outcomes are statements that specify what learners will know or be able to do as a result of a learning activity. Outcomes are usually expressed as knowledge, skills, or attitudes. Learning outcomes should flow from a needs assessment. The needs assessment should determine the gap between an existing condition and a desired condition. Learning outcomes are statements that describe a desired condition—that is, the knowledge, skills, or attitudes required to fulfil the need. They represent the solution to the identified need or issue. Learning outcomes provide direction in the planning of a learning activity.

University of Exeter (2007) Learning Outcome is an expression of what a student will demonstrate on the successful completion of a module. Learning outcomes:

- are related to the level of the learning;
- indicate the intended gain in knowledge and skills that a typical student will achieve;
- should be capable of being assessed.

The university distinguished the module outcomes from those for the programme, which is defined as follows:

Programme Outcome: An expression contained within a programme specification of what a typical learner will have achieved at the end of the programme. Programme outcomes are related to the qualification level and will relate to the sum of the experience of learners on a particular programme (University of Exeter, 2007).
Overview of Learning Outcomes Structure is as follows:

**GLOBAL INFLUENCES**  
WORKPLACE REQUIREMENTS

**DEVELOPMENT OF PROGRAM LEARNING OUTCOMES**  
Essential knowledge, skills and attitudes required

**OVERALL CURRICULUM DESIGN**  
Mapping of content and course sequence to provide required vocational, general education and generic skill outcomes

**COURSE LEARNING OUTCOMES**  
Faculty developed learning outcomes for individual courses within a program

**INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES**  
Essential knowledge, skills and attitudes required for each unit of instruction within a course

*Fig 1.2: Learning Outcomes Structure*

Thus, human organisms learn many different things during his life time and learned capabilities differ in human performances (Gagne, 1977). They also differ in the conditions, which are most favourable for their learning implications for identification of learning conditions involve the following (Gagne 1977).
• **Planning:** The conditions for planning must be carefully observed before the student enters into the learning situations. Planning involves student's capabilities before and after any learning enterprise. The teacher must know where to begin, where he is going, goals specific pre-requisites stills of the learner, the objectives and the learning achievements.

• **Managing learning:** Managing learning involves how the student can be motivated to continue learning by directly and guiding his interests and assessing the learning customs (Gagne, 1977).

• **Instruction:** This involves the requirement of the learner to retain the learning capabilities acquired during instructional state. Gagne argues that instruction is intended to promote and the situations need to be arranged to activate support and to maintain the internal processing that constitutes each learning event.

Thus in order for instructional learning and outcomes to be the end product predictions to learn must be taken into consideration. The learner should structure the body of knowledge and sequencing the material must be quite effective for better learning outcomes.

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**Fig. 1.3: Learning Tasks**


*Introduction*

University of Warwick (2011) defines learning outcomes as: The skills and knowledge a student will possess upon successful completion of a course. Learning outcomes as set out in Warwick course specifications are divided into four categories:

1. Subject knowledge and understanding;
2. Subject-specific skills are practical skills, practice of which is integral to the course, e.g. laboratory skills, language skills, counselling skills;
3. Cognitive skills, intellectual skills such as an understanding of methodologies, synthesis, evaluation or ability in critical analysis;
4. Key skills are skills that are readily transferable to employment in other contexts, such as written and oral communication, working within a team, problem solving, numeracy and IT skills.

1.2.1 Importance of Learning Outcomes

Apart from their rather utilitarian value within assessment contexts, learning outcomes are increasingly embraced within the higher education community for a variety of reasons:

- When students know what is expected of them, they tend to focus their studying time and energy better, thus improving learning.
- Student learning outcomes support a “learner-centered” approach to instructional activity; emphasis is on the types of experiences students must have to be able to achieve expected outcomes rather than “coverage of topics” within the curriculum.
- Once published (e.g., on the department/program website, in program literature, in the UCLA general catalog), student learning outcomes communicate to prospective students, their parents, and the public what is valuable about academic program.
- Assessing student learning outcomes can provide information to students on their strengths and weaknesses in relationship to specific learning dimensions.
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- Assessing student learning outcomes can provide faculty with information that can be used to improve educational programs and demonstrate their effectiveness. Beyond pedagogical value, UCLA’s accreditation agency, WASC, expects that all educational programs (i.e., majors and the general education program) will establish their own student learning outcomes, develop plans for assessing their learning outcomes, and use the results for the improvement of student learning.

In the present study the Learning Outcomes of IX graders will be studied in terms of:

❖ Achievement
❖ Attitude towards English and
❖ Self-Concept

❖ Achievement

No matter what else schools find themselves doing, promoting academic achievement is among their primary functions (Ladson & Billings, 1999). Achievement is one of the most important goals of education. In the process of educating the young ones the stress and focus have come to the measurement and evaluation of the students’ achievement in school and college subjects, the outcomes of education are usually characterized as the achievement of those who have been educated. These may be expressed in terms of whether or not the aims of education were fulfilled in relation to those individuals and to that degree. In order to find out what has been achieved, one requires some form of assessment (Winch & Gingell, 1999).

Unfortunately, the term academic achievement is not much more concretely defined. It is used with some frequency in the literature on public schools and is often employed interchangeably with the term achievement alone. In general, the biggest dispute is about how best to measure academic
Introduce achievement; little debate occurs about the characteristics of its definition. According to Crow & Crow (1963) achievement means the extent to which the learner is profiting from instructions in a given area of learning.

Page & Thomas (1979) in International Dictionary of Education defined achievement as, performance in school or college in a standardized series of educational tests. The term is used more generally to describe performance in the subjects of the curriculum.

![Diagram of Measures to Improve Achievement](http://blogs.edweek.org/edweek/LeaderTalk/upload/2009/06/focus.gangwitches.org)

Fig. 1.4: Measures to Improve Achievement


Hawes & Hawes (1982) defined achievement as success accomplishment or performance in particular subject, area or courses, usu
by reasons of skills, hard work and interest, typically summarized in various types of grades, marks, scores, or descriptive commentary.

From the definitions given above, it may be concluded that achievement in the school may be taken to mean any desirable learning that is observed in the students. Since the word desirable implies a value judgement, it is obvious that a particular piece of learning may be referred to as achievement or otherwise depending on whether it is considered desirable or not. Achievement is used in this broad sense. It is customary for schools and colleges to be concerned to a greater extent with the development of knowledge, understanding and acquisition of skills.

In short, academic achievement is a measure of understanding or skills in a specified subject or group of subjects. The academic achievement may be for a particular subject or a total score of several subjects combined. Hence academic achievement is concerned with the quantity and quality of learning attained in a subject of study, or group of subjects, after a period of instruction.

Factors Affecting Achievement

Academic achievement is considered to be the unique responsibility of educational institutions. Knowledge of level of correlation between different factors and academic achievement is, therefore, necessary for a teacher in ascertaining what contributes too high and low achievement of students. This is also of great concern to the parents, institution and the society. Truly speaking the future of any institution depends upon the academic achievement of its students.

Academic achievement is a multidimensional, multifaceted phenomenon. Dave (1975) reviewed 17 studies on factors affecting achievement. They vary from intelligence to physical health through socio-economic status of the family, sex, caste, distance of school from home and leisure time activities.
Factors affecting Achievement in English

There are innumerable factors which affect academic achievement viz. intelligence, personality, motivation, school environment, heredity, home environment, learning experiences of school and class in particular etc. The factors like interests, aptitudes, family background and socio-economic status of the parent also influence the academic achievement.

In a comprehensive study, Sinha (1970) asked high and low achievers to check factors that they considered important in order of achievement significance. These were hard work, intelligence, and memory, and good health, availability of books, methods of study, financial difficulties, and interest in social and practical work.

According to McCombs & 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 alone may not ensure success if the skill is lacking.

There are several factors that are responsible for high and low achievements of the students and these factors can be grouped into two broad classes: Subjective Factors and Objectives factors.

Fig. 1.5: Factors affecting Achievement in English
FIGURE 1.6: Showing factors affecting achievement
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Subjective and Psychological Factors

These are related to individual himself while influencing one's achievement e.g. intelligence, learning ability, motivation, Self-efficacy, learning style, study habits etc.

Objective and Environmental Factors

These factors conforming to the environment of the individual include socio-economic status, educational system, family environment, evaluation system, value system, teacher's efficiency, school situation and environment etc.

Factors affecting achievement listed on the basis of different research findings have been presented in the Fig. 1.6

The factors have been classified into the following categories of their sources:

- Cognitive factors like intelligence, creativity, ability, learning rate, reasoning ability etc.
- Affective factors like values, interests, self-efficacy, perseverance, stress etc.
- Home related factors like Socio-economic status, Family size, Birth order, gender bias parental involvement, parental expectation, and working status of parents.
- School related factors like Teacher's personality, Teacher's behavior and competency, type of school, school climate, Teacher's expectation and attitude, teaching strategies, Teacher's experience, medium of instruction, Home work and Alienation
- Time factors: like time spent, time allowed, time required
- Miscellaneous factors: like culture, locality, age, gender, cast, and friends.

Assessment of Academic Achievement

Perhaps, no one would deny the importance of academic achievement in child's life. The success or failure of a student is measured in terms of
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academic achievement. It is the common observation that success in the academic field serves as an emotional tonic and any damage done to a child in the home or neighbourhood may be partially repaired by the success in the school. High achievement in school builds self-esteem, self-confidence and strengthens Self-efficacy beliefs that lead to better adjustment with the groups. Good academic record to certain extent predicts future of the child. Today, at the time of admission, for entrance in job, for scholarship, for future studies, good academic record is the only yardstick. Whatever one’s interest, attitude or aptitude may be, one can’t underestimate the importance of academic record. It also helps the teacher to know whether teaching methods are effective or not and helps them in bringing improvement accordingly. Thus, assessment of academic achievement helps both the students and teacher to know where they stand.

The assessment of academic achievement has long been a routine part of all educational processes. It has two purposes:

• Specifying and verifying problems and
• Making decisions about students

It aims to assist professionals in making decisions about referral, screening, classification, instructional planning and student progress.

The research review, conducted by Great Lakes East, revealed the following six key principles for high student achievement (see Fig. 1.7):

• A clear vision focused on student achievement.
• Instructional leadership centered on student and teacher learning.
• Data that is useful and reliable and that guides and monitors instruction and progress.
• Curriculum, instruction, and assessment that align with high standards.
• Professional development that promotes and extends effective curriculum and learning.
• Parents, families, and communities who are actively involved in supporting children's learning.
Fig.: 1.7 Presents the six critical elements as central to high student achievement.

Source: [http://www.learningpt.org/greatlakeseast/about/recordSpring08.php](http://www.learningpt.org/greatlakeseast/about/recordSpring08.php)

Curriculum—Instruction—Assessment often emerge as one overarching principle in the research and, therefore, are considered as one of the six principles. Surrounding student achievement are the two factors or principles that most affect student learning: (1) the curriculum, instruction, and assessments and (2) the use of data (through formative assessments) to determine and adjust the curriculum and instruction as needed. These two principles were the focus of the district improvement workshops and will serve as the central themes of the districts' improvement plans.

Methods of Assessing Academic Achievement

Typically, the most common method of testing academic achievement is through teacher-designed tests. These informal metrics identify specific objectives that have previously been taught has evaluate the degree to which students have mastered these objectives.
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Beyond these routine, everyday classroom-based assessment procedures, schools have commonly relied on larger scale evaluation of student achievement. Evaluation procedures can be focused on specific individuals or entire groups of students. When focused on individuals, the assessment methods are designed to make decisions about an individual student’s achievement, typically determining the actual acquisition, retention and progress of skill developed against expected levels of achievement. When focused on groups, the decisions are more related to the outcomes of programme evaluation, examining the degree to which schools or schools districts whole are meeting wide-scale, district, and defined objectives.

Methods of assessing academic achievement can be categorized into one of four types:

- Standardized Norm-Referenced Tests,
- Criterion-Referenced Tests,
- Performance-Based Assessment and
- Curriculum-Based Assessment.

**Standardized norm-referenced tests**

Norm-referenced tests are designed to determine a student’s standing relative to similar age/grade peers. The results of the measure are usually reported in some form of standard scores and can be helpful in establishing a student’s achievement against a sample drawn from a target population.

**Criterion-referenced tests**

Criterion-referenced tests are designed to determine the acquisition of specific skills against a pre-established standard. Teacher-made tests are some of the best examples of these types of measures. Scores on these measures are usually reported in the percentage of skills mastered.

**Performance-based assessment**

Performance-based assessment measures are designed to provide indications of a student’s learned skills as demonstrated through material that is produced under conditions that simulate events occurring in the
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environment where the skills needs to be produced. Included among these measures would be lab demonstrations, artistic performances, writing samples, job, evaluation systems and other types of skills that demonstrate learning through the integration and application of the knowledge.

Curriculum-based assessment

Curriculum-based assessment represents attempts to assess a student's performance using expected curriculum objectives as the data for evaluation. There are multiple models of curriculum-based assessment, but all models are focused on evaluating student progress in an ongoing manner directly from a curriculum.

❖ Attitude towards English

Human beings by changing the inner attitudes of their minds can change the outer aspects of their lives.

William James (1842-1910)

Attitude is a hypothetical construct that represents an individual's like or dislike for an item. Attitudes are positive, negative or neutral views of an "attitude object": i.e. a person, behavior or event. People can also be "ambivalent" towards a target, meaning that they simultaneously possess a positive and a negative bias towards the attitude in question. Attitude is viewed as some internal affective orientation that would explain the actions of person.

Attitudes are composed from various forms of judgments. Attitudes develop on the ABC model (affect, behavioral change and cognition). The affective response is a physiological response that expresses an individual's preference for an entity. The behavioral intention is a verbal indication of the intention of an individual. The cognitive response is a cognitive evaluation of the entity to form an attitude. Most attitudes in individuals are a result of observational learning from their environment.

Attitude is one of Jung's 57 definitions in Chapter XI of Psychological Types. Jung's definition of attitude is a "readiness of the psyche to act or
react in a certain way" (Jung, 1971). Attitudes very often come in pairs, one conscious and the other unconscious. Within this broad definition Jung defines several attitudes.

The main (but not only) attitude dualities that Jung defines are the following:

- **Consciousness and the unconscious.** The "presence of two attitudes is extremely frequent, one conscious and the other unconscious. This means that consciousness has a constellation of contents different from that of the unconscious, a duality particularly evident in neurosis" (Jung, 1971)

- **Extroversion and introversion.** This pair is so elementary to Jung's theory of types that he labeled them the "attitude-types".

- **Rational and irrational attitudes.** "I conceive reason as an attitude" (Jung, 1971) the rational attitude subdivides into the thinking and feeling psychological functions, each with its attitude. The irrational attitude subdivides into the sensing and intuition psychological functions, each with its attitude. "There is thus a typical thinking, feeling, sensation, and intuitive attitude" (Jung, 1971)

- **Individual and social attitudes.** Many of the latter are "isms".

So the concept of attitude is an old one in psychology, and while we tend to associate it more directly with the area of social psychology, it was an important concept in general in Germany at the time of 20 century. It was first used in America by Franklin H. Giddings, the sociologist, and was introduced into social psychology by Thomas (1918). The first American psychologist to use the concept in a general text book was Howard C. Warren in his Human Psychology because this text widely used in 1920s the concept of attitude no doubt gained more general acceptance by American psychologist than it would have had as a consequence of the influence of Giddings H. Thomas both of whom were professional psychologist.
Both psychologist and sociologist consider attitude inseparable from values either personal or social. Consequently one cannot intelligently discuss the psychology of attitudes without also examining the nature of human values. In as much as both attitude and values originate and express them in a social context, it is also necessary to examine briefly the social frame of reference in which they have their being.

So, attitude is described as the internal state that influences or moderates the individual’s personal action. It is a complex state of human organism, which affects his behaviour towards others, things and events. It is a system of belief, a state arising from a conflict or disparity in beliefs (Festinger, 1957). Festinger’s views tend to point out the cognitive aspects of attitude while Krathwohl, Bloom & Maria (1964) have given the learning outcomes of attitude in the effective domain.

International Encyclopaedia of Psychology (2000) describes attitude as more or stable predisposition to react in either a positive or a negative manner to given categories of persons or objects. An attitude is usually said to have three attributes cognitive, emotional and behaviour. Cognitive refers to the conscious beliefs that the individual has towards the object of attitude. Emotional attitude refers to the pleasant or unpleasant feelings induced. When the attitude is activated the behavioural attribute refers to actual action taken in response to the attitude. Students attitude are important in influencing their success and effectiveness of teaching and learning approach. For example students who study for interest or who have more academic motivation tend to find the course more helpful than students who are motivated by the need to polish of a degree. This is bone out by early work on orientations to study which suggest that students with certain learning orientation may be more likely to relish choice in their study than others.
International Encyclopedia of Psychology (2000) defines attitude as a positive or negative evaluation of a person, place of thing. Attitude may be based on direct personal experience with the object or person in question or an indirect second hand experiences.

Shaw & Wright (2000) believe that attitude is the end product of the socialization process which significantly influences man’s responses to cultural products to other persons and to group of persons. If the attitude of a person towards a given object of class of objects is known it can be used in conjunction with situational and other deposition variables to predict and explain reaction of the person to the class of objects.

**Attitude Differentiated From Other Concepts**

- Distinction between beliefs and attitude

The conception of an attitude as an organization of beliefs is consistent with Krech & Crutchfield's (1948) view that all attitudes incorporate beliefs, but not all belief are necessarily a part of attitudes. Attitudes can be designated as either pro or anti while beliefs are conceived of as neutral. We speak of a pro-British attitude or an anti Russian attitude, but we do not speak of pro or con when we are describing a man's belief about me spherical nature of earth. Krech & Crutchfield define an attitude simply as an organization of interrelated beliefs around a common object, with certain aspects of the object being at the focus of attention for some persons and other aspects for other persons. The attitude has cognitive and affective properties by virtue of the fact that the several beliefs comprising it have cognitive and affective properties that interact and reinforce one another. Newcomb, Turner and Converse (1965) write the attitude concept seems to reflect quite faithfully the primary form in which past experience is summed, stored and organized in the individual as he approaches any new situation.

There are a number of structural dimensions frequently employed to describe the organization of several interdependent parts within a whole.
Introduction

These dimensions can with more or less equal ease be employed to describe the organization of

(1) The several beliefs contained within an attitude,

(2) Several attitudes within a more inclusive attitude system or,

(3) All of man’s beliefs attitudes and values within his total cognitive system.

It should perhaps be stressed that a change in one part produces cognitive strain or inconsistency within the system, thus giving rise to forces leading to reorganizations in the whole system. Organization in terms of time perspective refers to the extent to which the whole or the part is viewed in terms of the historical past, present, or nature and the interrelations among past, present, and future. A time perspective may be broad or narrow. An attitude may have a narrow time perspective in the sense that the beliefs comprising it are oriented primarily in terms of the historical past, or present or future.

Specificity or generality refers to the extent to which one can predict from the knowledge of one belief to another within an attitude organization, from one attitude to another or from the verbal expression of a belief or attitude to non-verbal behaviour. It is assumed that specificity-generality of behaviour is a function of the degree of differentiation integration and isolation of one belief from another and of one attitude from another.

Allport (1935) points out that "attitude has a wide range of application, from the momentary mental set... to the most inclusive... dispositions, such as a philosophy of life. This broad usage can neither be denied nor remedied". A belief system represents the total universe of a person's beliefs about the physical world, the social world, and the self. It is conceived as being organized along several dimensions. (Rokeach, 1960), and additional dimensions can be added as required by further analysis or empirical research. An attitude is one type of subsystem of beliefs, organized around
an object or situation which is, in turn, embedded within a large sub-system, and so on.

An ideology is an organization of beliefs and attitudes - religious, political or philosophical in nature - that is more or less institutionalized or shared with others, deriving from external authority. To Campbell (1963), Jones & Gerard (1967), and too many others a value seems to be synonymous with attitude because the attitude object has valence or cathexis. In this conception, a person has as many values as there are valence or cathected attitude objects. A value seems to be a disposition of a Person just like an attitude, but more basic than an attitude, often underlying it.

- **Attitudes and Behaviour**

A preferential response toward an attitude object cannot occur in a vacuum. It must necessarily be elicited within the context of some social situation about which we also have attitudes. It is perhaps helpful to conceive of any particular attitude object as the figure and the situation in which it is encountered as the ground.

Campbell (1963), attitudes are acquired behavioural dispositions differing from other behavioral dispositions, like habit, motive, trace, and cell assembly, in also representing a person's knowledge or view of the world.

Cook & Selltiz (1964) recognized the affective, cognitive and behavioral-intention aspects of attitude to be its central aspect. They define attitude as an underlying disposition that enters along with many other influences, into the determination of a variety of behavior towards the attitude object or class of objects, including statement of beliefs and feelings about the attitude object and approach-avoidance actions with respect to it. When behavior or behavioral intentions are included in the definition of "attitude" they are of the type from which one could infer favorable or unfavorable feelings.

The pioneers in attitude measurement tended to define the term "attitude" narrowly (Lemon, 1973) in terms of intensity of effect for or against
a psychological object (Thurstone, 1928). Attitudes cannot be observed but 
must always be inferred from behavior. The process of measuring attitude 
therefore can be conceptualized as consisting of three stages.

- Identification of the types of behavior samples that is acceptable as a 
basis for making inferences.

- Collection of the samples of behaviour.

- Treatment of the behaviour samples so as to convert findings about 
them into a quantitative variable (Summers, 1970).

How a person will behave with respect to an object-within-a-situation will 
therefore depend on the one hand, on the particular beliefs or predispositions 
activated by the attitude object and, on the other hand, by the beliefs or 
predispositions activated by the situation. We thus postulate that a person's 
social behaviour must always be mediated by at least two types of attitudes 
one activated by the object, the other activated by the situation.

- Attitude and Sentiments

Many attitudes have properties, which they share with other personality 
attributes, notably sentiments. The term sentiment designates an attitude, 
which holds a place of central importance to the individual. Sentiments differ 
from attitudes in being much more complex. They correspond on the 
psychological level to needs like hunger or sex on the physical level. They 
differ from these physical needs in that they arise in social interaction; they 
are learned rather than innate. Unlike attitudes, which are subject to change 
despite, their relatively enduring quality sentiments are powerful foci of 
concern for the individual, and may last for lifetime. The devotion of an artist 
to his craft or of a lover to his be loved are examples. For each his respective 
need is unquenchable, and so each pursues his interest, not only because it 
is a goal to be attained, but also because it is a need that requires 
satisfaction. For each, practically every event is related to the central need, 
the dominant sentiment in his life.
A sentiment is like an attitude in that it is a pattern of cognitive, motivational, and perceptual characteristics. It differs from an attitude by the presence of a strong affective or emotional component.

Most writers (for example, Murray & Morgan, 1945) agree that sentiment is more or less synonymous with attitude. Asch (1952), however, talks of sentiments as if they are closer to what we have here called values. Insofar as operational definition and measurement are concerned, sentiment and attitude seem indistinguishable.

- **Criteria distinguishing attitudes from other internal factors**

  Definite criteria are needed to differentiate attitudes from temporary set or expectations, dispositions and from temporary sets or expectations, dispositions and organic states or motives, unless the concept is to become a catchall for explaining any and all non-random modes of behaviour. The following criteria will serve to make this distinction:

1. **Attitudes are not innate**: Attitudes belong to the domain of human motivation the initial appearance of which depends upon learning. They are acquired during the individual's life history and are not carried genetically by the organism or in any kind of inherited substation or unconscious.

2. **Attitudes are not temporary states of the organism but more or less in during once, they are formed**: Because attitudes are formed, they are immutable. However once formed they are not subject to change from moment to moment with the ups and downs of homeostatic regulation of the body or with every change in stimulus conditions.

3. **Attitudes stabilize a relationship between the person and objects**: Thus every attitude is a subject-object relationship. Attitudes are not formed in thin air, or they self generated. They are formed or learned in relation to identifiable referents whether these factors are persons, objects, groups, values, institutions, social issues or ideologies- A very
important source from which attitudes are derived is the set of values or norms prevailing in the person's group, social class, institutions and his culture.

4. **The subject-object relationship has motivational - affective properties:** When a person forms an attitude, he is no longer neutral towards the domain of objects in question. He is for something's and against others.

5. **Attitude formation involves the formation of categories encompassing a small or large number of specific items:** The referent of an attitude constitutes a set of objects that may range from one to a large number of objects. Formation of a positive or negative stand toward one object typically implies differential attachment to others in the same domain. For example a strong attraction to one person involves a comparison with other persons who are similar and different, whether the person is conscious of the fact or not. Therefore attitude formation involves the stabilization of a set of categories varying from two to many.

6. **Principles application to attitude formation** in general is applicable to the formation of social attitudes. Attitudes directed toward social objects, values, social issues, groups and institutions are social attitudes.

7. **An attitude is organized around an object or a situation**

   In the first case we refer to an attitude object, a static object of regard, concrete of regard, concrete or abstract, such as a person, a group, an institution or an issue. In the second case we have in mind a specific situation, a dynamic event or activity, around which a person organizes a set of interrelated beliefs about how to behave.

**Functions of an Attitude**

Katz's (1960) formulations of the four functions of an attitude were:

1. **The instrumental, adjective, or utilitarian function** upon which Jeremy Bentham and the utilitarian constructed their model of man. A
modern expression of this approach can be found in behaviorists learning theory.

2. **The ego-defensive function** in which the person protects himself from acknowledging the basic truths about himself or the harsh realities in his external world. Freudian psychology and neo-Freudian thinking have been preoccupied with this type of motivation and its outcomes.

3. **The value-expressive function** in which the individual derives satisfactions from expressing attitudes appropriate to his personal values and to his concept of himself. This function is central to doctrines of ego psychology which stress the importance of self-expression, self-development, and self-realization.

4. **The knowledge function** based upon the individual's need to give adequate structure to his universe. The search for meaning, the need to understand, the trend towards better organization of perceptions and beliefs to provide clarity and consistency for the individual, are other descriptions of this function. The development of principles about perceptual and cognitive structure has been the contribution of Gestalt psychology.

These four functions are not regarded as operating in isolation from one another. A particular attitude may simultaneously serve several or all of these functions. In describing the function of belief systems, **Rokeach (1960)** speaks of the need to "understand the world insofar as possible, and to defend against it insofar as necessary." **Maslow (1963)** speaks of the simultaneous functions - the need to know and the fear of knowing.

There is no reason to assume, however, that **Katz's** four functions are unique to attitudes. These are also the functions of single beliefs (for example, belief in the existence of a Creator), and of organization of beliefs broader than attitudes - variously referred to by such terms as ideology.

An attitude can be likened to a miniature theory in science, having similar functions and similar virtues and vices. An attitude, like a theory, is a
frame of reference, saves time because it provides use a basis for induction and deduction, organizes knowledge, has implications for the real world, and changes in the face of new evidence.

**Determinants of Attitudes**

The two main determinants of attitude formation and attitude change are psychological and cultural.

- **Psychological Determinants**

By psychological determinants we mean such factors as:

- motivation,
- emotion,
- need,
- mental set,
- dominance, and submission which play a part in originating or changing a person's attitude.

A number of studies have demonstrated that the whole personality structures, as well as personality traits like introversion and extraversion and dominance and submission play a role in attitude formation and change. For example, politically radical individuals tend to be more submissive and introverted and to possess more inferiority feelings than conservatives. These individuals are less bound to convention despite their submissive tendencies, probably as a reaction to their sense of inferiority, and are freer to deviate from the established norms.

Attitudes are inferred from verbal or nonverbal behaviour, preferably both. An attitude is the individual set of categories for evaluating a domain of social stimuli (objects, persons, values, groups, ideas etc.) Which he established as he learns about that domain (in interaction with other persons, as a general rule) and which relate him to subsets within the domain with
varying degrees of positive or negative effect (motivation - emotion) (Sherif & Sherif, 1969).

The occurrence of attitude may be seen in the way in which the individual invigorates the emotions. An attitude influences the individual’s choice of action and the cause of action chosen by the individual in any particular situation will be largely determined by the specifics of that situation. Thus attitude are the internal state of the individual which affect the choice of action towards some object, persons or events (Britannica Concise Encyclopedia, 2002).

However, correlations of personality and attitudes can be misleading, since they are subject to distortion and misinterpretation. Thus it may be mistakenly inferred that all introverted and submissive people have radical ideas, and conversely, that all ascendant and extroverted individuals are conservative or reactionary. In the area of attitudes and values, as in the whole area of human behaviour, relationships are almost invariably complex, so that it is dangerous to posit the existence of a direct relationship between two variables. It is particularly dangerous for a political scientist to describe every political radical as a neurotic introversion. Simple correlation investigations seldom give us true knowledge of complex human behaviour. In other words, the fact that a certain psychological make-up, such as introversion, is frequently associated with a specific set of attitudes, such as political radicalism, does not necessarily confirm the hypothesis that the two are essentially related. We can say only that the two are associated, not that they are causally connected.

- **Cultural Determinants**

By Cultural determinants we mean such factors as:

- Home influence / Atmosphere,
- Information,
- Education,
❖ Generation change

Cultural factors are significant determinants of human attitudes. The force of cultural norms is often effective, and is rarely disregarded by people in a group. Not only the origin, but also the persistence, of attitudes arises from cultural values and norms. We hold to our attitudes and beliefs because other members of our social group also hold them. We get powerful support for and justification of our beliefs by the fact that they are confirmed by others. There is safety in familiarity, as in numbers.

The relationship between culture and attitudes, like that between attitudes and personality, is never simple. Attitudes are always the result of the combined and interactive effect of both personality and cultural variables.

Thus we hold our beliefs not only because we are conditioned to do so by our family, class membership, education, and religion, but also because we are persons who unconsciously adhere to those attitudes, which are congruent with our perception of what is right or true, which fit into the cognitive structure or preconceptions which we already possess. And because we reject whatever does not fit into our system of beliefs. Attitudes and values are influenced by configurations of factors, seldom by single or isolated variables. Psychological and cultural variables always interact in producing, retaining, or changing attitudes.

Parental Influences: From birth to puberty primarily his or her parents shape a child's attitudes. Studies that compare the attitudes of children and their parents always show a sizable correlation, especially in political and religious attitudes. Hence children's attitudes show long lasting effects of parental influence. Parental influences wane as children grow older and other social influences become increasingly important with the beginning of adolescence. During the period from 12 to 30, most of a person's attitudes take final form and thereafter change little. This has been called the critical period (Sears, 1969) - the period during which attitude crystallize. During the
critical period three main factors are at work: peer influences, information from news media and other sources, and education.

**Peer Influence:** Peers are the people of the same general age and educational level with whom a person associates. What peers think begins to have an effect on attitudes during adolescence, when boys and girls begin to spend less time at home, less time with parents and more time with friends and acquaintances. Peers become powerful influences because we most readily accept as authorities the people whom we like and find it easy to talk to.

**Information:** A factor in modern life that has weakened parental influences is the greater availability of information especially in the form of television.

**Education:** Of all the factors involved in attitude formation education consistently stands out. It has as strong an influence on the individual as parental political orientation and religious affiliations.

**Commitment:** As people move into their twenties, they begin to commit themselves in various ways. These commitments, made on the basis of the attitudes they hold at the time, tend to freeze the attitudes so that they do not change much afterwards. The crystallization of attitudes that occurs in the period of young adulthood is through the concept of cognitive dissonance. As people learn more and more they have more information that affects their attitudes. Some of this information is inconsistent. As people commit themselves, they arrive at final attitudes that are in keeping with their decisions. Thus they reduce their cognitive dissonance.

**Generation Changes:** There are differences in the attitudes of the two generations, especially in two general areas. One is that of prejudice: young people are less prejudiced than their parents (Harding et al, 1969).

The second general area is in political attitudes: young people are more liberal than their parents. (Middleton & Putney, 1964).
Introduction

Effects of Attitude towards English

India has two national languages for central administrative purposes: Hindi and English. Hindi is the national, official, and main link language of India. English is an associate official language. The Indian Constitution also officially approves twenty-two regional languages for official purposes.

Dozens of distinctly different regional languages are spoken in India, which share many characteristics such as grammatical structure and vocabulary. Apart from these languages, Hindi is used for communication in India. The homeland of Hindi is mainly in the north of India, but it is spoken and widely understood in all urban centers of India. In the southern states of India, where people speak many different languages that are not much related to Hindi, there is more resistance to Hindi, which has allowed English to remain a lingua franca to a greater degree.

Since the early 1600s, the English language has had a toehold on the Indian subcontinent, when the East India Company established settlements in Chennai, Kolkata, and Mumbai, formerly Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay respectively. The historical background of India is never far away from everyday usage of English. India has had a longer exposure to English than any other country which uses it as a second language, its distinctive words, idioms, grammar and rhetoric spreading gradually to affect all places, habits and culture.

In India, English serves two purposes. First, it provides a linguistic tool for the administrative cohesiveness of the country, causing people who speak different languages to become united. Secondly, it serves as a language of wider communication, including a large variety of different people covering a vast area. It overlaps with local languages in certain spheres of influence and in public domains (Lamba, Joshi and Singh; 2008).

Generally, English is used among Indians as a ‘link’ language and it is the first language for many well-educated Indians. It is also the second language for many who speak more than one language in India. The English language is a tie that helps bind the many segments of our society together.
Introduction

Also, it is a linguistic bridge between the major countries of the world and India.

English has special national status in India. It has a special place in the parliament, judiciary, broadcasting, journalism, and in the education system. One can see a Hindi-speaking teacher giving their students instructions during an educational tour about where to meet and when their bus would leave, but all in English. It means that the language permeates daily life. It is unavoidable and is always expected, especially in the cities.

The importance of the ability to speak or write English has recently increased significantly because English has become the de facto standard. Learning English language has become popular for business, commerce and cultural reasons and especially for internet communications throughout the world. English is a language that has become a standard not because it has been approved by any ‘standards’ organization but because it is widely used by many information and technology industries and recognized as being standard. The call centre phenomenon has stimulated a huge expansion of internet-related activity, establishing the future of India as a cyber-technological super-power. Modern communications, videos, journals and newspapers on the internet use English and have made ‘knowing English’ indispensable (Lamba, Joshi and Singh; 2008).

The prevailing view seems to be that unless students learn English, they can only work in limited jobs. Those who do not have basic knowledge of English cannot obtain good quality jobs. They cannot communicate efficiently with others, and cannot have the benefit of India’s rich social and cultural life. Men and women, who cannot comprehend and interpret instructions in English, even if educated, are unemployable. They cannot help with their children’s school homework everyday or decide their revenue options of the future.

A positive attitude to English as a national language is essential to the integration of people into Indian society. There would appear to be virtually no disagreement in the community about the importance of English language skills. Using English we will become a citizen of the world almost naturally.
Introduction

English plays a dominant role in the media. It has been used as a medium for inter-state communication and broadcasting both before and since India’s independence. India is, without a doubt, committed to English as a national language.

So in order to maximize the learning results of our English students, certain issues have often focused on issues including language teaching, learning theories, teaching materials, teaching approaches and methodologies, syllabus design, etc. Though research is being undertaken everyday, much of it has been powerfully constrained by Western cultural assumptions. Little research has been directed to the topic of how the local educational/teaching environment has influenced students’ learning when the students are not English majors, but studying English as non-majors due to educational requirements and professional needs. This fact may at least lead to the result that local English learning problems remain unsolved for long periods of time. Students’ perspectives about English learning and the fears of learning English may have grown out of previous experiences a better understanding of language learners can have a beneficial effect on the process of attempting to help language learners in learning English as a foreign language (Lamba, Joshi and Singh; 2008).

Only those who have actually taught English in India can visualize the scene of forty, fifty, sixty, seventy even eighty students learning together in a single classroom. English teaching/learning theories, approaches or methodologies established in the past do not often take the reality of large class sizes into consideration. Little credit can be given to their practicality in terms of actual application in such classroom settings. For example, it seems to be the case that whenever big class size is encountered, a much more common language-learning environment in Asian than in Western countries (Wu, 1991), we are hopeless in attempting to adopt the newest established theory, approach or methodology. This example is strongly related to both social/cultural/economic differences as well as local teaching/learning problems that appear to be insoluble. If the local situation remains unchanged, even after years of local researchers and practitioners advocating of sound teaching and learning theories and methodologies that seem so well
established in the West, there must be some facts that require reexamination at a more fundamental level than previously thought.

Chen's (1985) found actual hostility and fear towards learning English in her research, with some students responding that they hate English and are afraid of it. Where did these fears arise? Most language teachers in Taiwan today, were previously students in Taiwan. Part of that experience included physical punishment dished out by teachers and insulting comments from classmates or friends, and maybe even parents, due to poor performance on examinations. While the situation has been improved somewhat, physical punishment due to poor performance in English examinations is still being practiced in some schools. Such a profile of junior and high school education is not at all unique to Taiwan in the Asian context; it certainly is very different from the situation in Europe and North America, Wu (1991). Wu found that even adults, who studied English, without grade pressure, did not dare speak English in front of other people due to the fear of making errors. Additionally, fear of making errors and losing face was among seven factors that influenced university students' willingness in participating in classroom oral communication.

The continued use of English as a language of instruction from primary to tertiary education, as well as the vehicle of professional communication, closely parallels trends in other countries where the English language is assuming increased presence and importance. In Hong Kong, for example, more students than ever are exposed to English in the school system, in spite of the fact that Chinese languages have been gaining status (Pennington & Yue, 1994). As was the case in Papua New Guinea, this increasing dominance of English was the direct result of government directives which officially promoted English language education for the local population (Yu, 1987; Bickley, 1990). Similarly in Singapore (Kwan-Terry, 1993), Malaysia (Gill, 1993), and Japan (Tsuruta, 1996) the economic, social, and political changes which resulted from increasing Westernisation have caused accelerated demands by both the public and private sectors for graduates with appropriate English skills.
Therefore, while it is unlikely that the use of English will diminish in the school system, the government has commenced far-reaching educational reforms which will result in children being taught initial literacy in their own languages, with a vernacular, being used as the sole medium of instruction up to grade 5th during grade 6th, the teaching of English literacy will be formally introduced, and English will gradually increase as a language of instruction (Nekitel, 1995). It is the intention of the government that as the reforms are systematically implemented on a year-by-year basis, English will become and remain the main, but not the sole, language of instruction (The education reform, 1996).

The historical and educational context briefly described above does have an effect on students' attitudes towards English, and some development does occur during the transition period from high school to university. Certainly, by the time the students reach year 12 at high school, competence in English as a factor of professional success would obviously be recognized. This recognition, one would surmise, would gain clarity and urgency at university as students prepare to enter the high-status professions. However, it would be a mistake to analyse students' attitudes towards English purely in utilitarian terms. In the psycho-social domain, questions need to be asked such as: To what extent does competence in English contribute to the enhancement of interpersonal relationships? Do students feel that knowledge of English enables them to have access to a greater range of forms of entertainment or types of media? How great is English a factor in students' self-esteem? How do students relate to English in terms of their attitudes towards the other languages they know, especially towards the almost universally-spoken official language? Questions such as these need to be addressed and while anecdotal evidence seems to indicate that attitudes towards English by both high school and university students are generally positive, a clear indication of students' perceptions towards a variety of English language usage contexts would clearly be of use for language and education planners.

In the general perception of educators that attitudes are largely responsible for the intensity of students' responses in the classroom and are
both predictors of, and contributors towards, students’ achievement in language learning. While improved instructional materials, syllabus design, and teaching approaches all play a role in improving learner achievement, such achievement is not maximized if the students do not exhibit a positive orientation towards their subject. Furthermore, studies have shown (Gardner, 1985) that there is a direct correlation between motivation and attitude; that is, motivation constitutes a positive attitude combined with effort and desire. In the language learning context, motivation (to learn the language) refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language (Gardner, 1985).

**Attitude towards English, Achievement and Self Concept**

The Pupil, Quality Attitudes, and English Learners need to develop an adequate self-concept. The feeling needs to be that each one can do well in English. How the pupil feels about his/her self with regard to achieving objectives is important. The pupil needs to feel positively about himself/herself engaged in daily work in English learning activities. Being able to lean upon the self and ask for assistance when needed are necessary ingredients for success in English. Confidence in one’s thinking and doing helps to insure success. The teacher can help here by providing a developmentally appropriate curriculum.

The English teacher must ascertain the preset achievement level of each pupil. Teacher observations with the use of quality criteria may assist in ascertaining the starting point of instruction. The pupils not only need to be successful in doing in these initial experiences, but must also feel challenge. There should be reasonable expectations for a challenging English curriculum. If an objective appears to be too difficult, then the teacher must guide the learner to fill the gaps between where the pupil is presently in achievement and the objective to be acquired. This needs to be done with sequential learning activities.
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Good evaluation techniques used in assessing pupil achievement should result in procedures available to assist pupils in developing a good self-concept. Thus, the teacher needs to provide developmentally appropriate lessons so that the learner makes continuous progress in English. With success in learning, the pupil has opportunities in developing a positive self-concept.

Motivation in English learning must be fostered. Through teacher observation, she/he may notice which types of activities engage learners. Selected pupils require experiences, which emphasize the concrete phase of learning, such as objects and items used in teaching. Others prefer the semi-concrete such as the use of pictures, computer programs, study prints, drawings, diagrams, graphs, and charts. Still others may prefer the abstract phase of instruction, as in reading, writing, listening, and speaking experiences. Generally, instruction should follow the concrete, semi-concrete and abstract phases in sequence. However, pupils do possess different styles of learning and provisions need to be made to accommodate learners as much as possible.

Learners should not interrupt each other when responding. Politeness and acceptance of each other should be in evidence. Attitudinal development is positive when pupils are energized in suggesting possible solutions and learn from each other in a high quality-learning environment. Thus enhance their achievement in general and self-concept in particular.

Attitude towards English and Anxiety

Anxiety toward English comes about when the following are in evidence:

- An extremely difficult and complex curriculum
- Peers and teachers are critical of answers given by a student
- A lack of acceptance by other pupils as well as of the teacher.

There needs to be a healthy level of anxiety in order to do well in life,
but the tendency is for pupils to be overly anxious to avoid failure. Anxiety can be reduced by emphasizing a positive school climate for learning. Stressing competition excessively in a "dogs eat dog" environment leaves too many learners out of the mainstream in which they cannot compete against the more gifted and talented. Each pupil generally has talents to contribute, but they may not be equal to the competition involved. Regardless of ability levels, pupils, individually, must achieve as much as possible and in an optimal manner. Individual differences might be provided for thorough using developmentally appropriate materials of instruction.

**Attitude towards English and Self Esteem**

Negative attitudes restrict learner achievement and progress and lead to low self esteem, whereas positive attitudes assist in pupils liking. English and being enthused in achieving ensuing objectives and high self esteem. English teachers tend to find teaching more enjoyable when pupils attend to the task at hand and are fully immersed in achieving. Pupils having good attitudes toward learning should include

- fewer distractions in learning
- reduction in discipline problems
- lower rate of pupil failures in English and other curriculum areas
- life being more enjoyable and adequate pupil progress provides for increased teacher satisfaction as a professional.

Further Rewards should be given

- judiciously and not overdone
- for quality effort and work done, not as lavish flattery
- to assist pupils to achieve well, and not for the sake of doing so
- to encourage learning and to make sequential progress
- for rewarding good behavior (*Simpllico*, 2002).
Introduction

So, having proper attitudes toward English is important in achieving objectives of instruction. The attitudinal dimension needs strong emphasis in ongoing lessons and units of study. Generally, cognitive objectives receive the most attention by English teachers. This is salient; however, having good attitudes also, help to increase achievement in securing relevant facts, concepts, and generalizations in English.

❖ Self Concept

'Self' as a noun came into the English language around AD 1400 and was initially defined by negative connotations, such as selfishness (Ross, 1992). The negative connotations reflect the historical context as seen in the following pledge; "Our own self we shall deny, and follow our Lord Almighty".

This trend continued into the 16th century when hyphenations of the self became popularized, such as self-pity, self-praise and self-concept. From the 17th century onwards, the self took on a more positive light with the development of terms such as self-interest, self-efficacy and self-determination (Ross, 1992). The importance and purpose behind the self also shifted in direction as portrayed by the following 18th century Nathaniel Cotton poem excerpt; "The world has nothing to bestow; from our own selves our joys must flow" (Cotton, 2003).

Self-concept refers to the ordered set of attitudes and perceptions that an individual holds about him/ her (Wolffe, 2000; Woolfolk 2001 and Tuttel & Tuttel, 2004). Self-concept is defined as the value that an individual places on his or her own characteristics, qualities, abilities, and actions (Woolfolk 2001). The self-concept comprises three main elements: the identity of the subject or self-image, referred to as the perceptions of him/herself; self-esteem, which is related to the value individuals attach to the particular manner in which they see themselves; a behavior component reflecting how self concept influences and formulates the individual's behaviour (Machargo, 1997; Zagol 2001 and Tuttel & Tuttel 2004).

The term self-concept emanates from the previously mentioned derivatives of the self, for example, it incorporates aspects of self-interest.
self-praise and self-efficacy. Specifically, self-concept can be understood as one's conception of themselves as a distinct individual; mental representations of who one is and who they wish to become in the context of their environment Reeve (2009) asserts that the self-concept develops from personal experiences, reflections on these experiences and feedback from the social environment. Thus, the process of self-concept development and consolidation involves a reciprocal, cyclic process as depicted in the following Fig. 1.8.

Fig. 1.8: Cyclic process of Self Concept

The self-concept is organized into a semantic hierarchy of self-schemas; cognitive generalizations which are domain specific (Reeve, 2009). Self-schemas can include appraisals in social (peers, significant others), academic (general or specific intelligence), emotional (specific emotions), or physical (abilities, appearance) domains (Ross, 1992). Within the self-schema hierarchy, individuals can also possess high or low levels of differentiation and integration (Lipka & Brinthaupt, 1992).

Self-concept development is influenced by numerous factors including biological, brain structure, neurotransmitter, socio-cultural and psychological elements. Each element has a differential quantity and quality of impact on an individual and combined they create a unique self-concept. Consequently, individuals demonstrate differences in motivated attitudes, emotions and behaviour which produce varying levels of self-concept change, management and stability (Deckers, 2004).
According to Good (1959), self-concept refers to those parts of the phenomenal field which the individual has differentiated as relatively stable and definite parts or characteristics of himself.

Madison (1969) defined that self refers to the aspects of “Me” that the individual is conscious of the more limited portions of this conscious self that person can describe in verbal terms constitute the self-concept, which is quality of self-feeling associated with satisfactory sense of identity.

Hershey & Lugo (1978) mentioned, how one characteristically feels about himself (the self-concept) is believed by many psychologist to be the focus around which our personality is formed, maintained and through which it changes.

Coleman (1971) mentioned that the individual’s self-concept includes not only a sense of personal identity and of worth but also associations for accomplishment and growth.

James (1981) in Harvard University Press mentioned, a man’s self is the sum total of all that he can call his, not only his body and his psychic powers, but his clothes and his house, his wife and children, his ancestors and friends, his reputation and works, his land and horses and yacht and bank account.

McDavid (1985) in International Encyclopedia of Education stated that self-concept is an organized cognitive structure comprised of a set of attitudes, beliefs, and values that scribes all facets of experience and action, organizing and tying together the variety of specific habits, abilities, outlooks, ideas and feelings that a person displays.

Deo (1998) pointed out that self-concept consists of all the perception, feelings, attitudes, aspirations and values of oneself concerning oneself.

Self-concept is what an individual think of his actual self. It is conscious reflection of one’s own being or identity as an object separate from others. A person's perception of himself or herself is often defined by self-description of oneself. Self-concept becomes the means by which we create our image and
identity. Self-concept is how we feel about our self. Our opinion of ourselves critically influences work, our relationship, and our role for accomplishment in life. Self-concept is a major component in determining success or failure. A high self-concept leads to happy, gratifying and purposeful life. Unless you perceive yourself worthwhile you cannot have a high self-concept. Self-concept gives you internal drive. All great leaders through our history have concluded that we must be internally driven in order to succeed.

This model of teaching is not related with content but it is a psychological based model, which creates a suitable and congenial atmosphere and enhances the learning in the classroom. Whenever a teacher selects any topic for teaching in the classroom, the teacher before hand plan out which method she will adopt? What teaching aids she will use etc. But if the teacher uses different psychological tactics, “which” could enhance the self esteem of the child apart from planning teaching in the classroom, the results could be quite profitable. This is presented by self-concept attainment model as following:

Fig. 1.9: Syntax of Self Concept Attainment Model

Source: A ladder for self Concept Attainment by Khan Zeenath Muzaffar (2008)
Introduction

• **Create a Desire**

"A man without desire is a dead specimen" Before starting a teaching it is very much essential for a teacher to create a desire in the students, a wish, among the children for learning. In this step the teacher can ask the students questions based on their previous knowledge, by telling story, by dramatization, etc. It is said that if there is no desire of learning on the part of learner then it is of no use having your mastery, planning etc, how much efforts the teacher will take or how much efforts the student will take it is of no use.

• **Make it a Need**

There is a lot of difference between need and desire. After desire is created it is very much essential on the part of the teacher to make the child realize its importance and application in life and this can be possible by correlating teaching with its day today life situations. Need is something which makes you restless and without it you would feel impatient and keep you on edge.

So developing a need is very much essential and for that the teacher should present the content in such a way that the students should feel it necessary to acquire it and this necessity will make him curious, inquisitive, inquiring, snooping, restless and craved till he achieves that knowledge.

• **Motivate the Child**

Motivation is an art of stimulating interest in the pupil where there is no interest or where it is unfelt by the pupil. It is a base of learning; it is a crux of learning. Motivation is a process of pushing little child towards learning. In this process the teacher can make use of different tools of motivation (both external and internal). The main objective of using this tool is to make him physically and mentally ready for learning. Learning without motivation is just like driving a vehicle with no destination point.

The task of excellent teacher is to stimulate "apparently ordinary people to unusual effort". The tough problem is not in identifying winners, it is in making winners out of ordinary people.
• Realize their Potentials

Make the child to realize their potentials. This you can do by asking questions to the children according to the nature of the question and according to capabilities and abilities of the child. If one is very skillful make him to handle apparatus, read the temperature of the thermometer or locate map etc. according to the content. If they answer well the students can realize their potentials and they get exposition and appreciation from teachers and friends. Every child is born with some potential in one or the other field. The teacher should find out their potentials, in which field they are having potentials and expose these potentials before others so that the child feels I am worthy and can contribute from my side to this world.

• Praise the Child

Praising the child keeps him abreast, active, enthusiastic, alert, energetic, etc. Whenever needed the teacher should praise the child for some or other positive response. The teacher should make use of verbal praising and non-verbal praising as per its requirement. Verbal praising like good, very good, excellent, keep it up etc. Non verbal praising like smiling, nodding, patting back, etc should be boosted upon child from time to time during teaching. The teacher should also make it a habit of catching people doing right and praise them, but sincerely when you praise them in public, in front of others, team mates, they feel very much better and worthwhile.

• Reward the Child

Reward says the child to repeat what he has done so the teacher should make apparent use of reward in the classroom during teaching. Giving reward to the child is also one of the ways to motivate the child. The reward should also be given sometimes in the form of verbal and sometimes in the form of money. Monetary reward is much lucrative and helpful for the child.
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• Make him feel important

"One of the deepest desires of human being is the desire to be appreciated. The feeling of unwanted is very hurtful".

Make the child feel he is important is very much essential. The biggest disease today is not leprosy or tuberculosis but the feeling of being unwanted. No matter how good the teacher is having mastery over the content and the method she is adopting in transmitting knowledge, she will fail if the child feels unwanted by the teacher in the classroom. It is the duty of the teacher in the classroom to make him feel that he is important to this class, friends, and school because of teacher’s contribution to the teaching learning process. This inculcation of feeling among the students is very much essential.

• Need of Approval

In every Individual there is a craving for recognition or approval. The individual ego gets satisfied when he succeeds in getting the approval during the period of childhood and adolescence. The craving for recognition is very high. They resort to different techniques to secure social approval, if they fail to get recognition they may engage in anti social activities. In fact many of our social problems in our schools are the result of frustrated desire for recognition. When properly directed the need of approval can be motivating factor. It is the duty of the teacher to find out in which field the pupil can succeed and set admiration and recognition from others.

• Giving a good label to a Child

Giving a good label is very important in teaching. The teacher should always keep in mind that she should never give a negative label to a child. Giving a negative label means spoiling the child.

"Labels do not get stick for an individual or his whole life but it affects the whole generation." When the kids grow up they are sure to prove his parent right. A good example is that - caste system in India. This caste system of SC, ST, etc. affects the generations and generations. They are not with any
lacking or with any deficiency or they are not made by God inferior compare to other human beings. But they made inferior by giving them labels of socially backward people by our society and this stigma cannot be wiped out completely. So always give a good label to a child; good, excellent, sincere boy, and hardworking boy, in that way the teacher can encourage the child and enhance and boost his personality. Parents do often give the child a label and compare him with other siblings.

- **Focusing on the Target**

  Knowledge helps you to reach your destination provided you know what the destination is. Make the child to focus on target - The child should focus on the target when the focus is there, the target will be easy to achieve. It is utmost duty of the teacher after desire is created, need is felt. Focusing on the topics is very important, without focusing one cannot achieve goal. Make the child to focus on studies; this can be done in Recapitulation step. Make him to revise the things learnt in the classroom in that way if the child keeps any goal in his life he can achieve the desired goal easily by focusing.

- **Attainment of the Goal**

  The last is the attainment of the goal i.e. achievement of the target, if the target is achieved, the need is satisfied and learning becomes maximum. After achieving the target, the child will feel relieved and satisfied and he will feel encouraged to do future activities by positive attitude.

*Classroom application of Self-Concept Attainment Model*

1. Once the teacher is successful in creating desire in the child for learning, the less effort is required on the part of the teacher to make the child learn the things in the classroom.

2. Make the child feel that learning is need and if the teacher is successful in making the child feel that learning is need then the child will actively involve in teaching learning process.

3. Always a teacher should give a good tag to the child in classroom.
(4) Raise his self esteem by giving him reward, recognition, approval etc.

(5) Time to time an appropriate dose of motivation should be given to child to keep the child on proper track.

(6) During teaching learning process the teacher should cash their positive points and shower praise on them.

(7) Reward should be given in the form of verbal as well as non verbal.

(8) Teacher should find out in which field the pupil can succeed and get admiration and recognition from others.

(9) Make the child learn, how to focus on the target.

So, Self-concept refers to the global understanding a sentient being has of him or herself. It presupposes but can be distinguished from self consciousness, which is simply an awareness of one's self. It is also more general than self-esteem, which is the purely evaluative element of the self concept (Fleming & Courtney, 1984). The self-concept is composed of relatively permanent self-assessments, such as personality attribute knowledge of one's skills and abilities, one's occupation and hobbies, or awareness of one's physical attributes. For example, the statement, "I am lazy" is a self-assessment that contributes to the self-concept. In contrast, the statement "I am tired" would not normally be considered part of someone self-concept, since being tired is a temporary state. Nevertheless, a person's self-concept may change with time, possibly going through turbulent period of identity crisis and reassessment. The self-concept is not restricted to the present. It includes past selves and future selves. Future selves or "possible selves" represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming. They correspond to hopes, fears, standards, goals, and threats. Possible selves may function as incentives for future behavior and they also provide an evaluative and interpretive context for the current view of self (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

The self-concept is the accumulation of knowledge about the self, such as beliefs regarding personality traits, physical characteristics, abilities,
values, goals, and roles. Beginning in infancy, children acquire and organize information about them as a way to enable them to understand the relationship between the self and their social world. This developmental process is a direct consequence of children’s emerging cognitive skills and their social relationships with both family and peers. During early childhood, children’s self-concepts are less differentiated and are centered on concrete characteristics, such as physical attributes, possessions, and skills. During middle childhood, the self-concept becomes more integrated and differentiated as the child engages in social comparison and more clearly perceives the self as consisting of internal, psychological characteristics. Throughout later childhood and adolescence, the self-concept becomes more abstract, complex, and hierarchically organized into cognitive mental representations or self-schemas, which direct the processing of self-relevant information (Susan, 1998). Self-concept is inherently phenomenological, that is, it refers to the person’s own view of him- or herself.

Fig. 1.10: Factors Affecting Self Concept

SOURCE: http://likealake.blogspot.in/2009/02/self-concept.html

A fundamental characteristic of our ordinary of “normal” state of consciousness is the sense of being an individual who has an independent existence, who is distinct and separate from other individual and things in the universe. In its basic connotation, the term “ego” (derived from the Latin word
"I") is applied to this core of our being as we experience it's our ordinary consciousness and which we refer to as "I". The ego is what we regard as the agent of our thoughts, feelings and sections (Dalai, 2001).

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**Fig. 1.11: Self Concept and Lifestyle**

Source: Hawkins et al., 1998 and consumerresearchsite.com

- Aspects of Self-Concept
  - Social-Self

  James (1981) as quoted by Harvard University Press states that a man’s social self is the recognition which he gets from his mates. We are not
only gregarious animals, liking to be insight of our fellows, but we have an innate prosperity to get ourselves noticed, and noticed favorably by our kind. **Deo (1998)** mentioned how the person thinks other people perceive him is one’s social-self.

Social-self reflects some aspects of the interface between society and self (i) those aspects of self that are largely determined by social values and social influences; (ii) The (usually limited) aspects of one’s self or personality which are readily perceived by other person are social interactions; (iii) Those components of personality that an individual regards as important in social interactions and (iv) The general characterization of one’s self that an individual perceives as being perceived by others.

- **Perceived –Self (Cognized-Self)**

**Deo (1998)** states that the perceived self which relates what the person thinks he is, **Sigelman (1999)** pointed out that when you describe yourself, you may not be describing your actual personality so much as you are revealing your self-concept your perceptions; positive or negative, of your unique attributes and traits. So perceived self is the self of which one is aware.

- **Material – Self (Bodily-Self)**

**Fadman & Frager (1976)** mentioned that the material layer of the self includes those things which we identify with ourselves. The material self includes not only our body but also our homes, possessions, friends, and family. To the extent that a person identifies with an external person or objective, it is part of his or her identify.

- **Real-Self (Actual-Self)**

**Encyclopaedic Dictionary of Psychology by Raj (2001)** pointed out that Real-Self is a term applied by Horney to the individual’s potential for...
farther growth and development. The *Penguin Dictionary of Psychology* (2001) stated that real-self is shorthand expression for referring to everything psychological about a person at a moment in time, including unconscious elements.

- **Spiritual-Self**

  *Shafii (1985)* mentioned following descriptions about the spiritual self: (i) A feeling of being light as though all burdens of the world had been lifted; (ii) Quiescence of the mind; (iii) Quiet elation and profound joy; (iv) Increased sensitivity; (v) Receptivity of internal and external clues (vi) Increased perceptiveness; (viii) Awareness of invisible rhythms within and around; (viii) Perceptions of future events; (ix) Awareness of the whole as well as the parts; (x) Decreased internal conflicts; (xi) Increased feelings of security, certainty, integration, and oneness with all.

  *Nuernberger (2001)* summarized that when we realize our spiritual self, we understand that all living creatures are a part of the whole. We experience a sense of community that destroys all vest gates of mistrust, isolation, loneliness, and fear. In their place is the natural awe and humanity that spiritual realization brings. *Singh (2002)* argues that entry into the Wah (spiritual) consciousness demands an alert and same mind. This can be attained by abandoning the false and acuter self centrisms, and resorting the saponaceous and organic flow of one’s personality in the spiritual of Wahguru. To deviate from this part is to enter into darkness, anxiety and confusion.

- **Ideal-Self**

  *Jersild (1963)* mentioned that the sum total of a person’s view of what he wishes he was or thinks he ought to be, as distinguished from what he is, is generally called the “Ideal-Self”, *Madison (1969)* mentioned ideal self is the self that one really would most like to be.

  *Hershey & Lugo (1970)* referred to an ideal self is the part of the self-concept based on the expectations of other people important to him.
Coleman (1971) mentioned that an individual’s image of the person he would like to be and thinks he should be is called his ideal self.

Self-concept is very much essential in the development of personality of an individual. It is high time the teachers and parents realize the importance of self concept and make the child realize his potentials and make him believe that he is very much important and has a specific role to play on the stage of this world. Self concept enhances the personality of an individual and lends him to high self esteem. Every child is a “tare zameen par” and the only need is that the teacher should identify his hidden potential. Thus education has a great role to play in polishing the talents of children through self-concept. Self-concept is not an inherited one; it is learnt and developed through interaction with the different components of the environment. So the education should create a congenial and conducive environment, which promotes self-concept among the children.

1.3 ANXIETY

"Anxiety is a negative emotional state characterized by nervousness, worry, and apprehension and associated with activation or arousal of the body" (Weinberg & Gould, 2007).

Anxiety, as perceived intuitively by many language learners, negatively influences language learning and has been found to be one of the most highly examined variables in all of psychology and education (Horwitz, 2001).

Anxiety can be defined as an emotion based on an appraisal of a threat; a state of uneasiness, apprehension or an intense fear resulting from the anticipation of a threatening event (Houghton Mifflin Company, 2001) and an exaggerated, internal feeling of fear that a person experiences with dread or tension despite no real tangible threat existing. Anxiety is a physiological and psychological state characterized by cognitive, somatic, emotional, and behavioral components. These components combine to create the painful feelings that we typically recognize as uneasiness, apprehension, or worry. When anxiety becomes excessive, it may fall under the classification...
of an anxiety disorder. Anxiety occurs unconnected to a specific identifiable external stimulus; as such it is distinguished from fear, which occurs in the presence of an identifiable threat. With anxiety the danger appears unavoidable and uncontrolable, whereas with fear the behaviors of escape or avoidance give relief. Anxiety is a feeling of nervousness, apprehension, fear, or worry. Some fears and worries are justified, such as worry about a loved one or in anticipation of taking a quiz, test, or other examination. Problem anxiety interferes with the sufferer’s ability to sleep or otherwise function. It is noteworthy that teenagers are particularly susceptible to having irritability as a symptom of a number of emotional problems, including anxiety. Anxiety may occur without a cause, or it may occur based on a real situation but may be out of proportion to what would normally be expected. Severe anxiety can have a serious impact on daily life.

According to Columbia Encyclopedia Sixth Edition (2001) Anxiety is anticipatory tension or vague dread persisting in the absence of specific threat.

According to Dacey & Lisa (2001), when the word anxiety is used to discuss a group of mental illnesses (anxiety disorders), it refers to an unpleasant and overriding inner emotional tension that has not apparent identifiable cause. These disorders are severe enough to interfere with social or occupational functioning.

Anxiety research is conducted within two separate traditions: (a) as an acute emotion and as a personality construct, and (b) as a mental disorder or an illness. The first line of research is mainly done by psychologists based on psychometric tools with a major focus on individual differences. The second line of research is mainly done by psychiatrists based on qualitative categories (such as given by the DSM) with a focus on case studies. The leading periodical in the first tradition is "Anxiety, Stress, and Coping: An International Journal ", whereas the leading periodical in the second tradition is the "Journal of Anxiety Disorders". The statements by the present author are biased in favour of the psychological approach.
1.3.1 Concept of Anxiety

Anxiety and anxiety disorders have existed long before recorded in history. In fact, anxiety is not unique to human beings and is often considered in the context of comparative biology. Nonetheless, human anxiety certainly seems the most complex and is certainly the most important to people. The earliest interpretations of anxiety disorders appear to be mostly spiritual. To a notable degree, early spiritual treatments bare some intriguing resemblance to modern psychotherapies. Likewise, the ancient preparation and use of natural substances have surprising similarities to modern pharmaceuticals. Medical interpretations of anxiety disorders are not entirely new either and reach as far back as classical Greek civilization. All these fundamental perspectives are not new, but they have been greatly refined over many centuries. Anxiety and anxiety disorders have played substantial roles in human history. Such roles are most prominent in times of hardship, war or social change. In more pleasant times, however, societies tend to embrace the illusion that anxiety is a minor issue which deserves little attention or respect and are easily ignored. Frequent disinterest in the fundamental nature of anxiety has often left societies ill-prepared for unforeseen challenges.

1.3.2 Components of Anxiety

The three components of anxiety are listed below:

- **Behavioural Component:** As already mentioned, the strictly behavioural component is activated with the aim of reacting to a situation and re-establishing optimum conditions of wellbeing. Here there are two possibilities: coping with the problem directly or simply avoiding it. In the first case, if we are confronted by an unexpected situation we are not prepared for, we will probably react by analyzing the problem and preparing an adequate solution. In the case of avoidance however, we will tend to put off contending with the problem, thereby attaining a sense of immediate relief, but this can give rise to feelings of guilt and may damage our self-esteem. This will then increase the risk that such situations will occur again in the future as if by habit.
• **Cognitive Component:** The cognitive component is represented by a series of mental processes that have the purpose of evaluating oneself and the situation we are in. These processes include:

  ✓ **concentrating** exclusively on aspects perceived as being the most threatening;

  ✓ **evaluating** reality in an unrealistic and irrational manner: e.g., considering a judgement regarding the success or lack of success in a particular task as a global and absolute judgement of oneself ("If I can’t do this, I’m a failure.");

  ✓ **self-efficacy** and the belittling of one’s potential or capacity: e.g., believing we cannot perform a certain task, that we do not have what it takes, that we simply can’t manage it;

  ✓ **catastrophizing** in other words, overestimating the external situation to the point of becoming convinced it is something we cannot control, and feeling so overwhelmed by events as if we were facing a major disaster;

  ✓ **perfectionism:** the tendency to continuously put off addressing an issue, problem or evaluation on the part of others until some future moment when we feel we are perfectly prepared.

• **Physiological Component:** A physiological basis that prepares the organism (the person) for action. The main physiological modifications are:

  ✓ **an increase in muscular tension**, with a consequent increase in blood flow to the muscles (so as to be able to react promptly with a flight or fight response if necessary);

  ✓ **tachycardia** (rapid heartbeat, with perceptible acceleration of the heart rate), which has the purpose of pumping a greater quantity of blood to parts of the body that have been activated, and an increase in blood pressure;

  ✓ **hyperventilation:** an increase in respiratory frequency beyond our control. This may lead to dizziness and, in serious cases, to cloudy
vision and a progressive decrease in one's capacity to comprehend the situation we are in;

✓ an increase in the organism's sensibility towards external agents: e.g., increased dilation of the pupils and sensitivity to pain.

1.3.3 Types of Anxiety
1.3.3.1 Existential Anxiety

Existential anxiety refers to a healthy, constructive form of anxiety that corresponds with an awareness of personal freedom and the consequences and responsibilities that accompany decisions. Existential therapists view existential anxiety as a catalyst for growth.

According to Corey (2008), existential anxiety is the natural by product of dealing with the "givens of existence." Because human beings possess free will, they must make decisions. As stated by James Bugental, this creates the "potentiality of tragedy." Existential anxiety is the apprehension of choosing without clear guidelines and the acknowledgment that those choices may result in failure. The concept of existential anxiety is a necessary evil that provides both stress and growth.

Existential anxiety refers to a sense of worry, dread or panic that may arise from the contemplation of life's biggest questions, such as "Who am I?" or "Why am I here?" Existential perspectives in philosophy and psychology contend that this contemplation leads inevitably to the realization that everyone has the freedom and responsibility to find meaning in life. Although this realization is inherently distressing, many existential thinkers view this form of anxiety as healthy and productive (Ken, 2010).

Features of Existential Anxiety

The root of existential anxiety rests in four main fears: death, guilt, meaningless and isolation. People grow afraid that the decisions they make in life might perpetuate or cause feelings of emptiness and loneliness. They also dread the guilt that accompanies choosing the wrong path. Finally, death, the inevitable end to every beginning, is a topic of pressing psychological distress for most individuals. Existential counseling, especially in a group setting, often focuses on the act of dying and how best to accept this biological fate.
Introduction

Five Dimensions of Existential Anxiety:

1. Free-floating ‘terror’.
2. No intelligible cause or source; we don't know why we are 'afraid'; 'comes from' everywhere and nowhere.
3. Permanent—ever-renewed inner state-of-being; does not pass away.
4. Pervades our whole being; unlimited menace; touches everything.
5. Nothing we do will overcome anxiety; psychological techniques are useless. (Park, 2010)

How Existential Anxiety Shows Itself

Our anxiety usually hides behind ordinary fears and worries. And we can detect anxiety by the ways it distorts and exaggerates what would otherwise be psychological problems we could deal with: Whatever reasonable fears and worries we might have can be exaggerated by our existential anxiety. Whenever we are terrified beyond what is explained by actual dangers, we might be projecting our angst onto external threats.

Our existential anxiety can also create phantom fears: Are we pursued in the dark by impossible monsters? Or do we have dreams of horror, danger, menace, threat? Even in our waking hours, we might sometimes dream up unlikely dangers to explain our anxiety to ourselves. Our existential anxiety might also appear as fear of the future. Perhaps we do not focus on any particular danger in the future, but the very openness of the future might feel threatening.

Attempting to Cope with Existential Anxiety

Because anxiety is such a common way to experience our Malaise, we have many ways of attempting to cope with it. We attempt to transform it into fear by finding a 'cause'. We develop complex psychological models to account for our anxiety. We turn away from freedom and spirit; we desensitize ourselves.
Introduction

We weave security blankets and construct dams against anxiety. We claim that existential anxiety is a mistake or an illusion. We create and enjoy order and beauty to cover our underlying anxiety. We harness our existential anxiety as the driving force for our lives.

1.3.3.2 Test Anxiety

Test anxiety is the uneasiness, apprehension, or nervousness felt by students who have a fear of failing an exam. Students suffering from test anxiety may experience any of the following: the association of grades with personal worth, fear of embarrassment by a teacher, fear of alienation from parents or friends, time pressures, or feeling a loss of control. Sweating, dizziness, headaches, racing heartbeats, nausea, fidgeting, and drumming on a desk are all common. An optimal level of arousal is necessary to best complete a task such as an exam; however, when the anxiety or level of arousal exceeds that optimum, it results in a decline in performance. Because test anxiety hinges on fear of negative evaluation, debate exists as to whether test anxiety is itself a unique anxiety disorder or whether it is a specific type of social phobia. In 2006, approximately 49% of high school students were reportedly experiencing this condition. While the term “test anxiety” refers specifically to students, many adults share the same experience with regard to their career or profession. The fear of failing a task and being negatively evaluated for it can have a similarly negative effect on the adult.

Test anxiety is one of the most debilitating factors in schools and other settings where testing is performed. Indeed, among high school and college students, it is a common and potentially serious problem. Twenty percent of test anxious students quit school before graduating because of repeated academic failure (Wachelka & Katz, 1999). High test anxiety has been found to be associated with low self-esteem, poor reading and math achievement, failing grades, disruptive classroom behavior, negative attitudes toward school, and feelings of nervousness and dread that stem from an intense fear of failure. Further, co morbidity is frequent between test anxiety and other types of emotional difficulties. Evidence suggests that high degrees of test anxiety correlate with lower self-esteem (Wachelka & Katz, 1999).
While test anxiety can be very stressful for students who suffer from it, many people do not realize that it is actually quite common. Nervousness and anxiety are perfectly normal reactions to stress. For some people, however, this fear can become so intense that it actually interferes with their ability to perform well on a test.

Causes of Test Anxiety

So what causes test anxiety? For many students, it can be a combination of things. Bad study habits, poor past test performance and an underlying anxiety problem can all contribute to test anxiety.

Biological Causes of Test Anxiety

In stressful situations, such as before and during an exam, the body releases a hormone called adrenaline. This helps prepare the body to deal with what is about to happen and is commonly referred to as the "fight-or-flight" response. Essentially, this response prepares you to either stay and deal with the stress or escape the situation entirely. In a lot of cases, this adrenaline rush is actually a good thing. It helps prepare you to deal effectively with stressful situations, ensuring that you are alert and ready.

For some people, however, the symptoms of anxiety they feel can become so excessive that it makes it difficult or even impossible to focus on the test. Symptoms such as nausea, sweating and shaking hands can actually make people feel even more nervous, especially if they become preoccupied with test anxiety symptoms.

Mental Causes of Test Anxiety

In addition to the underlying biological causes on anxiety, there are many mental factors that can play a role in test anxiety. Student expectations are one major mental factor. For example, if a student believes that she will perform poorly on an exam, she is far more likely to become anxious before and during a test. Test anxiety can also become a vicious cycle. After experiencing anxiety during one exam, students may become so fearful about it happening again that they actually become even more anxious during the next exam.
1.3.3.3 Stranger or Social Anxiety

It is a term often used for Social Phobia, which has been defined by psychologists, psychiatrists and other mental health professionals through DSM-IV (and soon to be DSM-V) criteria in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of the American Psychiatric Association.

Social Anxiety Disorder or Social Phobia often first develops in mid teens or early adulthood, though sometimes children may develop the disorder. Children or adolescents who become the subject of vicious teasing in middle school understandably can come to fear social situations with peers. Critical parenting and other psychosocial factors may also predispose to the disorder. Females tend to develop the disorder somewhat more than males.

"Stranger anxiety" in small children is not a phobia. Rather it is a developmentally appropriate fear by toddlers and preschool children of those who are not parents or family members. In adults, an excessive fear of other people is not a developmentally common stage; it is called social anxiety.

Social Anxiety Disorder (Social Phobia) may have broad range impact or be more limited in terms of impact and focus of the phobia. Fear of public speaking is probably a common social phobia. Others may have more specific fears such as not feeling comfortable eating in front of others, changing at the gym, using public restrooms, may have a fear of talking to the opposite sex, or possibly speaking to authority figures. For others, fears may be multiple or occur in many situations. Fears may extend to how one sits, avoiding other’s eyes, and social interaction or events may cause anticipatory anxiety for days or even weeks.

Social phobia is a surprisingly common disorder being the second most common anxiety disorder with a lifetime prevalence of 12.1% outranked only by specific phobia at 12.5% (Kessler et. al., 2005). Moreover social phobia ranks as the fourth most common psychiatric disorder surpassed only by major depression at 16.6%, alcohol abuse at 13.2%, and specific phobia at 12.5% (Kessler et. al., 2005).
Hofmann & Bogels (2006) pointed out that without treatment; social phobia follows a "chronic, unremitting course, leading to substantial impairments in vocational and social functioning". This same conclusion of a dismal prognosis for untreated social phobia was also made by Burstein et. al., 2011. Hence there is an urgent need for individuals suffering from social phobia to obtain treatment.

People who suffer social anxiety may experience overwhelming anxiety, a sense of panic, and/or excessive self-consciousness in many social situations. They may believe or fear that people are thinking negatively about them, that they are being judged or criticized, and often fear being embarrassed or humiliated. They may find speaking in front of groups difficult, fear intimate relationships or dating, and may even find speaking to unfamiliar individuals or in small groups difficult. They often fear being embarrassed or even humiliated. The discomfort anxiety often leads to avoidance of social situations. Often people with social anxiety or social phobia have some awareness of their difficult, and this may cause some co-existing dysphasia or depression.

According to the US National Comorbidity Survey, American Psychiatric Association (1994) social anxiety is the number one most common anxiety disorder and is also the third most common mental disorder in the U.S. An estimated 19.2 million Americans suffer from social anxiety disorder and it can occur at any time but most often it on-sets in adolescence, early adulthood, or even early childhood. Statistically it is also more common in women than in men.

It is much easier to spot social anxiety in adults because they tend to shy away from any social situation and keep to themselves. Common adult forms of social anxiety include shyness, performance anxiety, public speaking anxiety, stage fright, timidness, etc. All of these may also assume clinical forms, i.e., become anxiety disorders Adelman (2007).
Introduction

Causes of Social Anxiety

The exact causes of social anxiety are still contested. But in view of few researchers it may be because of following reasons.

- **Social Anxiety and Inheritance:** Ongoing research on the genetic roots of physical and mental health suggests that the tendency toward feelings of anxiety, in social situations in particular, has a moderate probability of inheritance. In other words, if one parent has a mental health disorder such as social phobia, the child has a slightly higher chance of having an anxiety disorder.

- **Social Anxiety and Nervous System:** Another possible cause of social anxiety is the nervous system. Medications that are prescribed to treat social anxiety affect the levels of neurotransmitters, chemical messengers that are responsible for transmitting signals in the brain. However, researchers are still unsure if the differences in these chemicals cause social anxiety. Several studies have found that certain areas of the brain, such as a small, almond-shaped area called the amygdala, can be more active in individuals with social phobia.

- **Social Anxiety and Life Experiences:** Another possible cause of social anxiety is life experiences. Negative experiences in life, and the way one handles and reacts to them, can also lead to the development of social anxiety. If one is consistently put in situations that make him or her feel inferior or fear the judgment of other people, he or she can begin to develop negative beliefs about himself or herself and the world that can cause social anxiety. If negative experiences continue, one may also begin to develop confirmation bias and tend to pay attention only to the actions and events that will reinforce negative beliefs, creating a snowball effect. For example, a public speaker who is worried about his or her presentation being boring may selectively focus on the few people in an audience who appear bored while completely disregarding the majority of others who are watching with great interest. As the confirmation bias strengthens pejorative beliefs, one tends to start exhibiting socially anxious behaviors such as anxious sensations, like blushing, or anxious thoughts. After a while, these beliefs lead one
to make negative assumptions and read too much into neutral situations. If one sees another person glance at him or her as he or she walks by, one may automatically assume that such is on account of strange appearance or an odd manner of walking without considering other possibilities such as that the person's outfit attracts attention or that the person looking prefers to make eye contact with anyone he or she passes.

If one believes that most social situations are going to be uncomfortable, he or she is naturally going to try to avoid them. This causes one to miss the chance to find out that one may be completely wrong about automatic negative assumptions. If one enjoys singing but fears the judgment of others, he or she may never be able to discover the quality of his or her voice due to constant avoidance and, as a result, often gets ignored or neglected by others due to their social awkwardness as a result of not being able to emotionally carry themselves normally in social situations (Nosal, 2011).

Avoiding more and more situations for fear of others' judgments will strengthen negative beliefs and prevent one from going into situations where he or she might actually enjoy himself or herself. As this pattern starts to interfere with overall functioning, the warning signs of social anxiety can become more apparent.

1.3.3.4 State Anxiety

State anxiety reflects a "transitory emotional state or condition of the human organism that is characterized by subjective, consciously perceived feelings of tension and apprehension, and heightened autonomic nervous system activity." Spielberger (1972 – 1983).

This form of anxiety is low in non-stressful situations or when a circumstance is perceived as none threatening. Most people with State anxiety only exhibit it in specific situations. It means that 'state' anxiety is the anxiety state we experience when something causes us to feel appropriately and temporarily anxious and this anxiety then retreats until we feel 'normal' again.
State anxiety manifests itself as an interruption of an individual’s emotional state, leading to a sudden subversion of one’s emotional equilibrium. A person experiencing ‘state’ anxiety will feel tension or worry or might enter a state of restlessness. In such moments, the individual may feel very tense and easily react or over-react to external stimuli. State anxiety involves activation of the autonomous nervous system and the consequent triggering of a series of physiological reactions and conditions. High levels of state anxiety are particularly unpleasant, disturbing and can even be painful to the point of inducing the person to engage in adaptive behaviour aimed at ending these sensations. However, these adaptive reactions may not be successful in attaining their goal and other behaviour patterns may become manifest - this time of the maladaptive type - which can result in the opposite effect: a further increase of anxiety, which can trigger a pathological vicious circle.

**Causes of State Anxiety:**

State anxiety can develop for a number of reasons.

- A fear of, blanking out on tests or the inability to perform in testing situations can develop anticipatory anxiety.

- Lack of preparation is another factor that can contribute to state/test anxiety.

- Poor time management, poor study habits, and lack of organization can lead to a student feeling overwhelmed.

- Students who are forced to cram at the last minute will feel less confident about the material covered than those who have been able to follow a structured plan for studying.

- State anxiety can also develop genetically.

- Lack of confidence, fear of failure, and other negative thought processes may also contribute to State anxiety.

- The pressure to perform well on exams is a great motivator unless it is so extreme that it becomes irrational.
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- Perfectionism, feelings of unworthiness and unreasonable goals to achieve through testing situations affect student's self-esteem, the results can be devastating. So students spend more time focusing on the negative consequences of failure, than preparing to succeed (Stober & Pekrun, 2004).

So, state anxiety is what we experience when a dog runs out in front of the car; an intense anxiety reaction that produces a number of strong anxiety symptoms associated with the respiratory, digestive and circulatory systems.

After the 'threat' has subsided, the anxiety state retreats and we feel 'normal' again. This is how most people feel most of the time.

1.3.3.5 Trait Anxiety:

"Trait anxiety denotes relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness and refers to a general tendency to respond with anxiety to perceived threats in the environment." Spielberger (1972 – 1983).

Anxiety can be either a short term "state" or a long term "trait." Trait anxiety reflects a stable tendency to respond with state anxiety in the anticipation of threatening situations. It is closely related to the personality trait of neuroticism. Individuals with high trait anxiety are predisposed to perceive a wide range of situations as dangerous or threatening, and to respond to those situations with increased state anxiety.

Trait anxiety is the 'preset' level of anxiety experienced by an individual who has a tendency to be more anxious; to react less appropriately to anxiety provoking stimuli.

Much of the research on trait anxiety comes out of a psychology tradition that focuses on how experience alters the appraisal or interpretation process. The effect of individual differences in experience is that some people have a greater inclination to perceive situations as potentially threatening, and they consequently tend to experience more anxiety. Some researchers have focused on stable personality traits, such as "neuroticism" that incline a person toward high trait anxiety.
Introduction

Trait anxiety is a relatively stable aspect of the personality. In their behaviour, individuals who present an anxiety trait will tend to have an attitude reflecting their perception of certain environmental stimuli and situations as dangerous or threatening. In practice, the anxious perceptive style of these persons will eventually become pervasive, extending to and influencing other areas of experience, and in effect finally becoming a characteristic of the personality.

Those who show a more developed anxiety trait are much more prone to reacting to a large number of stimuli and will tend to worry also in situations which for most individuals would not represent a source of threat. These individuals are more likely to present state anxiety in circumstances with low anxiety-generating potential, such as normal day-to-day activities, and will probably experience higher levels of state anxiety in the presence of anxiety-generating stimuli.

**Trait anxiety is contrasted to state anxiety**

Trait anxiety is contrasted to state anxiety, as trait anxiety is the temporary, uncomfortable experience that occurs when a person feels threatened by a situation. Trait anxiety is the potential, or tendency to experience state anxiety. A person can be either high or low in trait anxiety depending on how often they tend to experience state anxiety. A person high in trait anxiety experiences state anxiety more often.

**Trait anxiety is a quality of personality** which that indicates a tendency to feel anxiety and restlessness; and state anxiety, is an emotional reaction which is raised in response to a stressful situation or context. Therefore, the later it is of a more immediate and ephemeral nature.

Further **State anxiety is a transitory emotional response** involving feelings of tension and apprehension, and Trait anxiety refers to an enduring characteristic of a person that can be used to explain a person’s behavioral consistencies, and determines the likelihood a person will experience anxiety in stressful situations. For example, some people spend considerable time on
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a particular action or behavior such as continuously checking to see if the door is locked.

It has also been suggested that people can be generally categorized into two groups: sensitizers and repressors (Franken, 1994). Sensitizers tend to dwell on potential consequences of a threat and thus experience more anxiety, whereas repressors avoid thinking about consequences and may experience less anxiety and stress at that particular moment. Neither response is considered an adaptive one. A recommended solution, according to the cognitive perspective, is to recognize that one has a problem and think of a way to handle it.

However, the difference between trait and state anxiety has not been identified or established for decades, on the grounds that both types of anxiety make individuals more receptive to negative information, to the detriment of positive or neutral information.

What can be done to eliminate state and trait anxiety?

Anxiety disorders are behavioural conditions, which are stored in the subconscious mind as 'anxious, habitual memory'. By undoing the process of learning which caused them to develop in the first place, you can permanently eliminate inappropriate anxiety and replace it with appropriate levels of state anxiety caused by any genetic or learned trait anxiety.

1.3.4 Triggers for Anxiety among Students

There’s nothing abnormal about a child being shy, but children with anxiety experience extreme distress over everyday activities and situations such as playing with other kids, reading in class, speaking to adults, taking tests, or performing in front of others.
1.3.5 Stressful Conditions which Lead to Students Anxiety

The following situations are often stressful for students which lead to anxiety:

- Meeting new people
- Being the center of attention
- Being watched while doing something
- Making small talk
- Public speaking
- Performing on stage
- Being teased or criticized
- Talking with "important" people or authority figures
- Being called on in class
- Going on a date
- Making phone calls
- Using public bathrooms
- Taking exams
- Eating or drinking in public
- Speaking up in a meeting
- Attending parties or other social gatherings
1.3.6 Symptoms of Anxiety among Students:

- Emotional symptoms of anxiety
  - Excessive self-consciousness and anxiety in everyday social situations
  - Intense worry for days, weeks, or even months before an upcoming situation
  - Extreme fear of being watched or judged by others, especially people you don’t know
  - Fear that you’ll act in ways that will embarrass or humiliate yourself
  - Fear that others will notice that you’re nervous

- Physical symptoms of anxiety
  - Red face, or blushing
  - Shortness of breath
  - Upset stomach, nausea (i.e. butterflies)
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- Trembling or shaking (including shaky voice)
- Racing heart or tightness in chest
- Sweating or hot flashes
- Feeling dizzy or faint

- Behavioral symptoms of anxiety
  - Avoiding social situations to a degree that limits your activities or disrupts your life
  - Staying quiet or hiding in the background in order to escape notice and embarrassment
  - A need to always bring a buddy along with you wherever you go
  - Drinking before social situations in order to soothe your nerves

Anxiety-Provoking Situation

Physiological
- Increased heart rate
- Muscle tension
- Sweating, blushing
- Dizziness
- Nausea or stomach ache

Cognitive
- “What ifs?”
- Worries about physiological symptoms
- Worries about anxiety-provoking situation

Emotional
- Fear, dread, panic
- Frustration, anger, disappointment, sadness

Behavioural
- Reduced performance due to anxiety
- Avoidance

Fig. 1.14: Anxiety Provoking Situation

Source: www.gregdorter.com/toronto-therapist-blog/vicious-cycle-of-anxiety
1.3.7 Ways to Overcome These Symptoms

- **Don’t try to face your biggest fear right away.** It’s never a good idea to move too fast, take on too much, or force things. This will backfire and reinforce your anxiety.

- **Be patient.** Overcoming anxiety takes time and practice. It’s a gradual step-by-step progress.

- **Use the skills you’ve learned to stay calm,** such as focusing on your breathing and challenging negative assumptions.

1.3.8 Treatments for Anxiety

Five types of therapy have been used successfully to treat the symptoms of anxiety disorders and include:

1) **Behavior therapy** uses relaxation techniques and exposure to the feared object(s) or situation(s) in a carefully planned, gradual manner so that the individual can learn to control the anxious responses.

2) **Cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT)** helps a person understand their patterns of thinking so they can react differently to situations that cause their anxiety. Cognitive-behavioral therapy teaches a person to anticipate and prepare for the situations and bodily sensations that may trigger their anxiety.

3) **Psychodynamic psychotherapy** is based on the concept that symptoms result from unconscious mental conflict a person is experiencing. For the person to experience relief from the anxiety symptoms, the meanings of the unconscious mental conflicts must be uncovered, preferably by consulting with a qualified mental health professional in a clinical setting on a regular basis.
4) **Drug therapy** can be a convenient, effective method in treating the symptoms of anxiety. The goal of drug therapy is to resolve the symptoms by restoring chemical imbalances in the brain that lead to symptoms.

5) **Biofeedback therapy (training)** teaches individuals to bring biological events, such as increased heart rate, muscle tension, blood flow, and respiration under voluntary control through the provision of biological feedback. The goal of biofeedback training is to reduce the biological responses to anxiety by training the adolescent through feedback.

1.3.9 **Need for Treatment for Anxiety:**

1. A person may continue to have panic attacks for years.

2. The disorder can seriously interfere with a person’s relationship with their family, friends, and co-workers.

3. Life may become severely restricted because the person may start to avoid certain situations where their fear will cause them to experience a panic attack.

4. In extreme cases, people with untreated panic disorder grow afraid to leave the house, a condition known as agoraphobia.

5. The person may become severely depressed and find it difficult to be productive at school and work.

6. A person may begin to have thoughts about suicide (*Love, 1987*).

1.3.10 **Reducing Anxiety among Anxious Adolescents**

School (classroom), small group, and one-on-one settings can serve as helpful environments for the recognition and management of anxiety.

1. **Teachers** are in the position to promote positive emotional health and possibly reduce the occurrence of anxiety among adolescents within the classroom, in several ways. The attitude teachers demonstrate during daily interaction with students affect the emotional environment of the classroom. The teacher is responsible for treating each student as a unique individual.
Introduction

Teachers need to give praise and encouragement through learning experiences that challenge and provide successful reinforcement of students' feelings of competency and mastery to help prevent and reduce anxiety. Teachers need to help students learn how to accept responsibility for their own behavior. A crucial element of emotional development is the ability to accept responsibility and live with mistakes. The rapport a teacher and student establish can influence student's perceptions about acceptance, trust, support, self-esteem, competency, and independence. Further, a teacher needs to be an active and effective listener and patient observer and provide students opportunities to express their feelings and thoughts openly (Love, 1987).

2. Health Practitioners and educators can provide an anxiety reducing atmosphere in a one-on-one or small group setting within community centers or office practice. Similar to the suggestions for teachers, health practitioners need to focus on building confidence and rewarding accomplishment when working with anxious adolescents.

Gardner (1984) identified seven areas that need to be activated and extended for a balanced education. These seven areas promote that inner life skills work: Can be taught as a life skill for emotional well-being Teaches stress management and relaxation skills Can act as a pre-lesson focusing device Contributes directly to personal development through discovery Contributes to spiritual growth and the arousing of philosophical questions Helps adolescents and children tap into their imagination and the creativity of their unconscious, especially in artwork and creative writing.

To summarize the above-mentioned suggestions for reducing anxiety among adolescents, some tips for teachers and practitioners to consider when dealing with adolescent anxiety are below:

1. Show empathy towards adolescents displaying anxiety over performing given tasks.

2. Offer to talk to anxiety-afflicted adolescents about their specific anxiety in a one-on-one setting (i.e. after class, session, or group meeting).

3. Practice giving daily words of praise to adolescents to build confidence.
4. Incorporate inner life skills into an activity each day you work with adolescents (i.e. relaxation exercise, active imagination, guided visualization, energy releasing exercise, etc.).

5. Relay a message of understanding to adolescents that it is okay to be nervous, anxious or even scared before performing difficult tasks. Some anxiety and nervousness is normal.

6. Tell adolescents about treatment options that are available (described in this article) and provide them (and possibly their parents) with professional contacts for help.

So, Anxiety disorder is a debilitating condition that will afflict at least 1 out of every 75 people in this country and worldwide during their lifetime (Andrew & Engler, 1995). The age groups showing the greatest prevalence of anxiety disorders include those between the ages of 15 and 24 (Love, 1987).

1.4 SELF ESTEEM

By self, we generally mean the conscious reflection of one’s own being or identity, as an object separate from other or from the environment. The term self-esteem comes from a Greek word meaning "reverence for self." The "self" part of self-esteem pertains to the values, beliefs and attitudes that we hold about ourselves. The "esteem" part of self-esteem describes the value and worth that one gives oneself. Simplistically self-esteem is the acceptance of ourselves for who and what we are at any given time in our lives.

“Self-esteem is how much a person likes, accepts and respects himself overall as a person”

1.4.1 Concept of Self-Esteem

Summarized below are the six major contributors to the development of the concept of self-esteem as outlined by Mruk (1995).

1890 William James
- American psychologist
Introduction

• Studies of self-esteem based on introspection

• Self-esteem was not a major issue for James and his writings were limited to a few pages.

• Self-esteem is an affective phenomenon i.e.: it is lived as a feeling or an emotion.

• Self-esteem is a dynamic process affected by successes and failures and thus opens to enhancement.

• James saw a connection between self-esteem, values, success and competence.

1965 Morris Rosenberg

• A socio cultural approach

• Self-esteem is defined as an attitude (either positive or negative) that we have about ourselves

• Self-esteem is a product of the influences of culture, society, family and interpersonal relationships

• The amount of self-esteem an individual has is proportional to the degree to which they positively measure up to a core set of self values

• Rosenberg links self-esteem to anxiety and depression

• This theory is based on the analysis of data taken from large sample group of 5000 subjects

• Feelings/beliefs about worthiness are central to this approach.

1967 Stanley Coopersmith

• A behavioural perspective

• Similar to Rosenberg in that self-esteem is an attitude and expression of worthiness. It is also linked to anxiety and depression

• Coopersmith includes success as well as self-worth as an indicator of self-esteem

• Self-esteem as a construct or an acquired trait, that is, an individual learns how worthy they are initially from parents. This is reinforced by
Introduction

others. The children model the respect and worthiness of self that they see in their parents.

• Findings drawn from observational techniques in controlled situations as well as case studies and interviews

• The downfalls of Coopersmith’s theory is that it was based on research taken from middle-class white males in childhood and adolescence.

1969 Nathaniel Branden

• A humanistic view

• The first person to define self-esteem in terms of worthiness and competence

• Self-esteem as a basic human need. Lack of it has serious negative consequences i.e. substance abuse, suicide, anxiety and depression

• Self-esteem is dynamic in nature

• Self-esteem is related to our ability to live in such a way as to honour our view of ourselves

• Competence, sense of personal worth, self confidence and self respect are important to this theory

• The limitations of this theory are that the findings were based on a philosophy rather than empirical data.

1985 Seymour Epstein

• Cognitive-experiential view

• Epstein also considers self-esteem a basic human need - worthiness which motivates us consciously and unconsciously

• Self-esteem is seen as a consequence of an individual's understanding of the world and others and who we are in relation to them. We strive to maintain an equilibrium of self

• There are different levels of self-esteem: global (general overall self-esteem); intermediate which is specific to certain domains for example competence, likability or personal power; situational which the
everyday manifestations of self-esteem are. Global and intermediate self-esteem affect situational self-esteem

• The limitations of this theory are that Epstein is more concerned with personality development than self-esteem.

Self-esteem is a structural entity of personality which organizes behaviour on the basis of beliefs regarding one’s own self. 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 component, it also entails certain action dispositions to move forward in life and consciousness rather than away from it, to treat facts with respect rather than denial to operate self responsibility rather than the opposite.

Self-esteem, however, is something more fundamental than the normal “ups and downs” associated with situational changes. For people with good basic self-esteem, normal “ups and downs” may lead to temporary fluctuations in how they feel about themselves, but only to a limited extent. In Contrast, for people with poor basic self-esteem, these “ups and downs” may make all the difference in the world.

Branden (2001) “The level of our self-esteem has profound consequences for every aspect of our existence—how we operate in the workplace, how we deal with people, how high we are likely to rise, how much we are likely to achieve.

1.4.2 Operational Definition of the Self-esteem

The term self-esteem is defined in the present study as being competent to cope with basic challenges of life, the efforts which an individual makes and customarily maintain with regard to himself. It expresses an attitude of approval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes in himself to be capable, significant and worthy.

Given a long and varied history, the term has, unsurprisingly, no less than three major types of definitions in the field, each of which has generated its own tradition of research, findings, and practical applications:
Introduction

1. The original definition presents self-esteem as a ratio found by dividing one's successes in areas of life of importance to a given individual by the failures in them or one's success/pretensions.

2. In the mid 1960s Morris Rosenberg and social-learning theorists defined self-esteem in terms of a stable sense of personal worth or worthiness.

3. Branden (1969) briefly defined self-esteem as "...the experience of being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and being worthy of happiness.

Traditionally Self esteem has been understood to be positive feelings of self-regard. Various dimensions of Self esteem have been proposed. Vocational Self esteem may be considered to be positive self-regard as it relates to one's value as a worker, or at least one's self-worth as a worker. Discussions of Self esteem suggest that there are two kinds of high Self esteem: secure and fragile (Kernis, 2003). Kernis identifies other types of high Self esteem: defensive high, genuine high, high explicit, implicit positive, contingent high, true high, unstable high, and stable high. The impact of most of these various types of high Self esteem on vocational behaviour and experience has yet to be examined. Self esteem is likely to have a strong impact on job satisfaction, job tenure, effort and performance at work, and quality of relations with coworkers. Vocational Self esteem may be differentiated from vocational self-efficacy, which has in recent years received substantially greater attention in research.

There are a variety of ways to think about the self. Two of the most widely used terms are self-concept and Self esteem. Self-concept is the cognitive or thinking aspect of self (related to one's self-image) and generally refers to "the totality of a complex, organized, and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence" (Purkey, 1988).

Self esteem is the affective or emotional aspect of self and generally refers to how we feel about or how we value ourselves (one's self-worth). Self-concept can also refer to the general idea we
have of ourselves and self-esteem can refer to particular measures about components of self-concept. Some authors even use the two terms interchangeably.

Franken (1994) suggests that self-concept is related to self-esteem in that people who have good Self esteem have a clearly differentiated self-concept. When people know themselves they can maximize outcomes because they know what they can and cannot do.

According to Branden (2005) there are six pillars: living consciously, self acceptance, self responsibility, self assertiveness, living purposefully and personal integrity.

Coopersmith (1967) explains Self esteem in terms of evaluative attitudes towards self. It refers to an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which an individual thinks him to be successful, important and worthy. Rosenberg (1965) described it as a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the self.

Dusek (1987) describes Self esteem as the value, the individual’s views of his competencies, both intellectual and social, and these views in turn are related to the way he will act in social situations. A positive self-concept, as reflected in Self esteem, is important for the individual’s general outlook and mental health. Those who have high Self esteem tend to be better adjusted socially than those who have relatively low Self esteem.

Self esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of the Self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioural aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones. It refers to an individual’s sense of his or her value or worth, or the extent to which a person values, approves of appreciates, prizes, or likes him or herself (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991).

Self esteem empowers, energizes, and motivates to respond appropriately to challenges and opportunities. It inspires persons to achieve and allows them to take pleasure and pride in their achievements. It allows them to experience satisfaction.
Maslow (1954) studied the Self esteem needs and he reported that the Self esteem is related to the process of becoming a self-actualizing person. According to him, all people have a need or desire for a stable, firmly based sense of self-regard or self-respect and they need esteem from themselves and from others. He classified two categories of esteem needs. The first set of esteem needs includes the desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery, for competence, for self-confidence and for a degree of independence and freedom. The second category of esteem needs involves the desire for prestige, status, recognition, attention, dignity and appreciation, all of which are characteristics of esteem based on other's views of the person.

Coopersmith (1981) states that Self esteem is acquired inferentially from comments made by others, personal perceptions, and actions of others.

Harter (1990) has defined Self esteem as how much a person likes, accepts, and respects himself or herself overall as a person.

Branden (1994) says that Self esteem is the experience of being competent to cope with life’s challenges and being worthy of happiness. It consists of two components. Self esteem-efficacy i.e. confidence in one’s
ability to think, learn, choose, and make appropriate decisions, and, by extension, to master challenges and manage change.

Self-respect i.e. confidence in one’s right to be happy, and, by extension, confidence that achievement, success, friendship, respect, love and fulfillment are appropriate for oneself. Self-efficacy and self-respect are the dual pillars of healthy Self esteem; if either one is absent, Self esteem is impaired. They are the defining characteristics of the term because of their fundamentality; they represent not derivative or secondary meanings of Self esteem, but its essence (Branden, 1994).

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

Baumeister et al. (1996) defined self esteem as a favorable global evaluation of oneself. The term Self esteem has acquired highly positive connotations, but it has simple synonyms the connotations of which are more mixed, including egotism, arrogance, conceitedness, narcissism, and sense of superiority, which share the fundamental meaning of favorable self-evaluation.

According to Clarke (1998) Self esteem is feeling lovable and capable. They are two sides of the same coin. Self esteem is both gleaned from those around us (being loved and valued) and earned (becoming a capable, growing person). Both components are equally important.

Guindon (2002) adds that there are two kinds of Self esteem, global and selective Self esteem. Global Self esteem is defined as an overall estimate of general self-worth i.e. level of self-acceptance or respect of oneself. Selective Self esteem is an evaluation of a specific trait or quality that is weighted and combined into an overall evaluation of oneself.

1.4.3 The Development of Self-Esteem

The development of self-esteem of the child is influenced by parents and other family members, in the early years and by friends, schoolmates,
and teachers as the child grows. Before about age 7 (seven), children tend to see themselves in global terms if they have a positive self-esteem, they assume that they are good in all areas of performance (Harter, 1990). But as they mature, children's views of themselves become more differentiated; that is multiple esteems of the self-come into play as being influenced by their peers (Woolfolk, 1993). The self-esteem evolves through constant self-evaluation in different situations. Children and adolescents are continually asking themselves, how am I doing? They compare their performance with their own standards and with the performance of peers. They also gauge the verbal and non-verbal reactions of significant people—parents, best friend's leaders, and teachers (Woolfolk, 1993).

When students mature, self-esteem tends to increase. Until students adjust to the new demands of high school workload, they may experience a decrease in self-esteem. But with growing competence and independence in adolescence, growth in self-esteem resumes (Powers, Hauser and Kitner, 1989). The context of school also makes a difference. Students who are strong in maths in an average school; feel better about their math skills than students of equal ability in high achieving schools. (Marsh & Holmes, 1990) call this the Big-Fish-Little-Pond-Effect. In order to build self-esteem, the individuals must explain their success or failure. We must attribute success to our own actions, not to luck or to special assistance (Woolfolk, 1993). While researching the decedents of self-esteem, Stanley and Coopersmith believed that high self-esteem results from parental acceptance, the setting of limits, and freedom for individual action within those limits (Coopersmith, 1967; 1981).

James (1992) constructed what might well be called Jame's Law concerning levels of self-esteem. As James succulently puts it.

\[
\text{Success} = \frac{\text{Self-Esteem}}{\text{Pretensions}}
\]

James (1992) formulation of the law pointed out the importance of the person's aspirations and the outcomes of his behaviour in determining levels
of self-esteem. Hence, our feelings in this world depend entirely on what we back ourselves to be and to do. It is determined by the ratio of our actualities to our supposed potentialities, a fraction of which our pretensions are the denominators and the numerator of our success as stated above.

Such a fraction may be increased as well by diminishing the denominator as by increasing the numerator (Gordon & Gergen, 1968). It is a consistent feature of human personality that it tends to become organized about the main problems of adaptation and this main problem tends to polarize all the aspects of adaptation towards itself.

The problem adaptation may be oriented toward the discrimination one suffers and the consequences of this discrimination for the self-referential aspects of his social orientation. This means that his self-esteem suffers (which is self-referential) because he is constantly receiving an unpleasant image of himself from behaviour of others to him (Kardiner & Oyesey, 1951).

This leads to the development of subjective impact of social discrimination leading to ever-present unrelieved irritant on the respondent to the influence of liability on the respondent. The influence of irritability leads to the development gainful intensity because the individual in order to maintain internal balance and to protect himself from being overwhelmed by it. Must initiate restitutive manoeuvres in order to keep functioning (Kardiner & Oyesey, 1951; Many, 1973).

In addition to maintaining an internal balance, the individual must continue maintain a social facade and some kind of adaptation to offending stimuli so that can preserve some social effectiveness. A typical parallelogram of forces illustrating the development of the phenomena has been placed in Fig. 1.16 below.
SOCIAL DISCRIMINATION

Aspirations high (by comparison with what he can get)

Anxiety = Self-abnegation

Apologetic

Cautious

Ingratiating-but removed, hesitant, and mistrustful

Focus on what is manifest and

Simple

Fear of looking too deeply into anything.

Denial of aggression

General Diminution and construction of affectivity

Irritability (Less Manifestation)

Cover of affability and good humour

Passivity and Resigned Acceptance

Fear of Loss of control

Not meeting Problems Head on

Fig. 1.16: Typical parallelogram of forces illustrating the development of the Self Esteem


All this requires a constant preoccupation, not withstanding the fact that these adaptational processes take place on a low order of awareness.

In the above figure, at the centre of the development of this tow adaptation scheme stands the low self-esteem (the self-referential part) and the aggression (the reactive part). The rest are maneuvers with these n-fain
constellations to prevent their manifestation, to deny them and the sources from which they come to make things look different from what they are, and to replace aggressive activity, which would be socially disastrous with more acceptable ingratiating and passivity.

❖ Keeping this system going in the minds of the individual means however:

❖ Being constantly ill at ease;

❖ Mistrustful;

❖ Lacking in confidence;

❖ Lack in the desire for reputation, prestige, worth, strength, respect, attention, appreciation and recognition;

❖ Which leads to feelings of inferiority, weakness, helplessness, which gives rise to basic feelings of discouragement and neurotic which trends and disorders (Steer's & Porter, 1975).

The entire system prevents the affectivity of the individual that might otherwise be available from asserting itself. Low self-esteem people are therefore generally poor estimators of their own ability to successfully carry out certain behaviours. They generally tend to underestimate the likelihood that they will be successful, although sometimes they are unrealistically high in their estimates.

Not surprisingly, people's self-esteem tends to be related to their expectancy performance experiences. Motivating low self-esteem people to perform well is difficult, since they are predisposed to believing that they cannot perform well (Steers & Porters, 1975; Levy, 1993). On the other hand, high self-esteem people tend to have realistic expectancy performance expectations. Thus, they respond more predictably and realistically to their environment.

Higher self-esteem is related to more favourable attitudes towards school, more positive behaviour in the classroom and greater popularity with
other students (Reynolds, 1980; Metcalfe, 1981; Cauley & Tyler, 1989).

School is a place where children develop or fail to develop a variety of competencies that come to define self and ability, where friendships with peers is nurtured, and where the role of the community member is played out, all during a highly formative period of development Thus, the building of self-esteem. Interpersonal, social problem solving and leadership becomes important in its own right and as a critical underpinning of success in academic learning (Good & Weinstein, 1986).

1.4.4 Correlates of Self-Esteem

Normally, self esteem is considered as existing on a continuum in which people are arranged from high to very low-levels in their perceptions about themselves.

❖ Individuals high in self-esteem are more confident of their behaviour, perceive themselves to be more competent, and are more hopeful of obtaining favourable results from their efforts than individuals with low self-esteem (Bodaken, 1975).

❖ At the same time, individuals low in self-esteem appear to be unsure of themselves and exhibit a little or no confidence in ambiguous or in uncertain situations (Combs, 1962; Levy, 1993). People low in self-esteem evaluates them unfavorably, believing they are lacking in important respects and that they have characteristics those others consider unappealing (Greenberg & Baron, 1999). In Contrast, people high self-esteem evaluates them favorably, believing they possess many desirable traits and qualities (Greenberg & Baron, 1999). Considerable evidence suggests that such feelings affect behaviour in organization and Institutional settings (Brockner, 1988).

The lower an employee's Self-esteem, the less likely he/she is to take any active steps to solve problems confronted on the job. As a result, their performance tends to suffer (Pierce, Gardner, Dunham and
Cummings, 1993). By contrast, employees with high levels of self-esteem are more inclined to actively attempt to acquire the resources needed to cope with work problems, and to use their skills and abilities to their fullest, and as a result, to perform at higher levels (Levy, 1993).

**Difference in High and Low Self Esteem**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High Self-esteem</th>
<th>Low Self-esteem</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rational</td>
<td>Irrational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realism</td>
<td>Blind to reality</td>
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<tr>
<td>Flexible</td>
<td>Rigid</td>
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<tr>
<td>Creative</td>
<td>Fearful of new &amp; unfamiliar</td>
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<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>Inappropriate conformity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Able to manage change</td>
<td>Defensive</td>
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<tr>
<td>Willing to admit &amp; correct mistakes</td>
<td>Over compliant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benevolent</td>
<td>Over controlling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative</td>
<td>Fear of / Hostility towards others</td>
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<tr>
<td>Expresses self</td>
<td>Proves self</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seeks challenges</td>
<td>Seeks safety of familiar &amp; undemanding</td>
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<tr>
<td>More honest communications</td>
<td>Evasive/inappropriate communications</td>
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<td>Better equipped to cope</td>
<td>Less equipped to cope</td>
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<td>Quicker to recover</td>
<td>Less quick to recover</td>
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<td>More ambitious to experience</td>
<td>Less aspiration</td>
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<tr>
<td>life</td>
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<td>Form nourishing relationships</td>
<td>Form toxic relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More persistent in difficult times</td>
<td>Gives up</td>
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<tr>
<td>Solves problems</td>
<td>Worries about problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Takes risks</td>
<td>Avoids risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerates frustrations well</td>
<td>Easily frustrated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: http://davetgc.com/Self Esteem.htm

- People with low self-esteem tend to be aware of their tendency to perform poorly (Levy, 1993). Researches have shown that they are predisposed to evaluate themselves quite negatively (especially when ambiguity exists concerning their performance), and to believe that the/are inherently responsible for their poor performance (Levy, 1993).
Low self-esteem however, is probably the most important single element leading to anxiety in an interpersonal communicating situation (Bodaken, 1975).

❖ As might be expected, a person's level of self-esteem affects the amount of attitude change he experiences in response to persuasive messages. In general, people with low self-esteem are more easily persuaded, they change their attitudes more readily than those with strong self-esteem when receiving persuasive messages.

❖ Furthermore, people with low self-esteem conform more to group norms than those with strong self-esteem and are more susceptible to messages emphasizing social standards (Bodaken, 1975). At the same time, persons with strong self-esteem are more difficult to persuade. Their attitudes on an issue are generally harder to change (Combs, 1962; Woolfolk, 1993). Since they have more confidence in themselves and their opinions, they are less likely influenced by messages attempting to persuade them to change their stands on standards.

1.4.5 Levels of Self Esteem

• EARLY CHILDHOOD

Although self-esteem is forming it is not measurable before the age of five or six because up until this time the two functions of self-esteem, competence and worthiness, operate independently of each other (Mruk, 1995).

• MIDDLE CHILDHOOD

Between the ages of five and eight self-esteem becomes increasingly defined. Children begin to make judgments about their self worth and competence in five areas: physical appearance, social acceptance, scholastic ability, athletic and artistic skills and behaviour (Harter, 1983; Joseph, 1994). Self-esteem emerges at this point in childhood because the child is able to initiate behaviour with competence, evaluate his or her accomplishments in terms of their worthiness and experience a process or attitude between the
two (Mruk, 1995). As a child's age increases so do their social contacts, life experiences and the expectations placed upon them. The child develops an increasing awareness of those things they are good at and those they are not good at. Inevitably self-esteem begins to affect behaviour as the individual attempts to maintain and protect their sense of self worth against the challenges, problems and experiences of life. Self-esteem acts as a filter through which we judge our performances.

- **ADULTHOOD**

By adulthood self-esteem has changed from a mostly reactive phenomenon to one that can be consciously acted upon to either increase or decrease feelings of self worth. As adults we are confronted by many situations that affect our levels of self-esteem. (Mruk, 1995) has extensively researched those situations that most typically affect self-esteem in adulthood. These are success-failure experiences where individuals either deal successfully or unsuccessfullly with a situation and acceptance-rejection situations which are interpersonal in nature. Romantic relationships, peer relationships, and relationships with family members are typical contexts which can affect self-esteem.

1.4.6 Factors Affecting Adolescent’s Self-Esteem

There are a multitude of factors which can affect self-esteem but arguably none is more significant than the family. This is not to imply that the family is the cause of an individual’s level of self-esteem but rather has a ‘predisposing’ effect. Certain parental attitudes have been found to effect self-esteem (Mruk, 1995; Joseph, 1994). These are:

- **Parental involvement** - the greater a parent's involvement with and to their child the higher the levels of self-esteem.

- **Parental warmth** - also defined as unconditional positive acceptance (Joseph, 1994) is the ability to accept a child’s strengths and weaknesses. This acceptance is 'warm' in that it is balanced.
• **Clear expectations** - boundaries that are clear and firm without being authoritarian help the child ascertain what behaviours are acceptable and what are not.

• **Respect** - respect for one’s children coupled with a democratic or authoritative parenting style has the most positive effect on self-esteem.

• **Parental consistency** - being consistent in the treatment of one’s children enhances self-esteem because it reinforces the value of the child to the parent.

• **Empowering children** - confident, capable individuals who believe they can achieve generally have positive self-esteem (Joseph, 1994). Parents can empower children by fostering responsibility for their feelings and actions.

• **Modeling** - children imitate what they see. Parents who face life’s challenges honestly and directly expose their children to examples of problem-solving strategies which can enhance self-esteem.

• **Positive thinking** - a positive perspective helps us see the good things in life rather than the bad, which helps foster a positive self-esteem.

*Experiences having damaging effect on self-esteem (Van Ness, 1995)*

• **Repeated negative evaluation by others** - if we are repeatedly told we are dumb, stupid, slow, fat and so on we can come to believe this.

• **Severe or repeated criticism** - self-worth and self-confidence can be damaged if we are told that we are 'not good enough' or 'below average'.

• **Negative humour, putdowns and 'barbed kidding'** - all of these are criticism disguised in a joke but nonetheless are a powerful form of putdown.

• **Mistakes, errors or failures** - whilst all of these experiences are normal occurrences in the path of experience, for many they can lower confidence and ultimately self-esteem.
Embarrassment
Messages from others determine one's self-worth - self talk that is based on the views of others can be detrimental to self-esteem especially if those views are negative in nature.

1.4.7 The Importance of Self-Esteem and the Implications for Teachers

Self-esteem is the sum and substance of one's feelings and thoughts about who we are and as such is of great importance.

Self-esteem is the foundation that we build the rest of us on.

Self-esteem, or one's sense of worth, is often fragile and sensitive to events that happen on a day-to-day basis.

Self-esteem is critical for individuals to think about and be able to take advantage of strengths and for learning from mistakes (met cognition).

Healthy self-esteem is an essential component for learning. Regardless of age, the self-esteem of a learner facilitates or inhibits learning (Solomon, 1992).

Learning is growth - intellectual, physical, psychological, social, spiritual and combinations of those. In every aspect of this learning process there is the potential to damage, maintain or increase self-esteem. Self-esteem in most students 'mirrors' the appraisals of others, in particular parents and teachers. Teacher's views clearly affect learner's achievements. Positive appraisals over an extended time tend to increase the level of learning. Prolonged or consistent negative appraisals tend to lower learning achievement. Students tend to perform in accordance with teacher expectations and treatment - self-fulfilling prophecy (Loomans & Loomans, 1994). Teachers find that students with low self-esteem exhibit some or all of the following characteristics:

- learning problems
- social and emotional problems
- behaviour problems
- unstable home lives
- high absenteeism
- frequent illness
The wide range of experiences a student has while going through scholastic, athletic, social, and emotional - all constitutes input to his or her self-esteem development. Every success and failure, together with reactions of peers, parents and teachers to these experiences, will contribute significantly to the student’s self-worth, self-confidence, self-reliance and competence (Robb & Letts, 1995).

As teachers we can be instrumental in creating a classroom environment which nurtures and supports students developing self-esteem. This can be achieved by modeling to students that mistakes are part of the learning process for both children and adults. It is important to empower students to assess their achievements in a positive productive manner. This creates autonomous learners. Students need to be encouraged to develop support systems both within and outside of the classroom so that they feel confident to take risks in their learning.
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1.4.8 Strategies to be adopted by the Parents for the Development of Self Esteem

1. **Give responsibility**

   The more responsibility you give to your child, the more practical at real life’ coping he/she becomes. Each time your adolescent fulfills a responsibility successfully, he/she wins a little in self-esteem.

2. **Show appreciation for contribution at home**

   Each child will have a number of setbacks on the way to become a mature adult. The way you handle routine is very influential in the way you teen will behave in future.

4. **Ask your team for opinion and suggestions**

   Appreciate your team competence in problem solving, knowledge and many other esteem-building qualities. Youngsters know that you want to go on with him/her, and that you value his/her input. Empathize with his/her feeling know you have faith in his/her ability to cope with them.

5. **Encourage participation in decision making**

   Open caring, flexible, cooperative households are where self-esteem flourishes to power arbitrarily, no wonder the adolescent begins to resent things.

6. **Accept mistakes**

   Remove the stigmas of failure from your home. You can't ignore all means, avoid ridicule, but acknowledge failures and mistakes. Show him/her better ways to avoid mistake that will justify feeling of self-pity and lack of self-mastery.

7. **Emphasize the process of task not the result**

   Focus on your child’s attitude towards an activity, not whether he/she winds or does bring temptation to use praise as your only form of recognition. Children tend to perform to rather than meeting their own goals.
8. **Turn liabilities into assets**

Each child is different and each stage of each child is distinct. Everybody has a virtual world of strength and weaknesses.

9. **Show confidence in your own judgement**

Your show of faith goes a long way towards building young persons self-confidence and impression to over protect.

- Have positive explanation.
- Develop alternative ways of viewing situations.
- Celebrate your strength and weakness.
- Don't dwell your weakness as every human being has them.
- Change the way you talk to yourself-stop putting yourself down.
- We sure that you are not judging yourself against unreasonable situation.
- Beating yourself for your weakness is self-defeating. Use positive thoughts about you.

1.4.9 **Strategies to be Developed by Teachers to Maintain Healthy Self-Esteem**

The present generation is living in very complex times. This is the age of discontinuity and disbelief of ambiguity and ambivalence. The school's role as a social agency is meant to contribute to the general health and well being of young people.

As difficult as it is for so many adults to find anything to hang on to, we can only imagine what this age looks like through the eyes of young people who typically lack the resources that are available to most adults. The litany of statistics about self-destructive tendencies such as substances abuse, crime and suicide must surely be seen as a signal from young people that many do not find much about themselves to like.

The idea of enhancing self-esteem becomes a moral imperative for schools, especially in a time when other social institutions and agencies seem
unwilling or unable to provide support and encouragement in the process of crowing-up. Inside the school itself, the growing collection of studies on self-esteem indicates that there is a persistent correlation between it and such school concerns as participation, completion, self-direction and various types of achievements (Beane & Lipka, 1986). The correlation between self-esteem and achievement is the driving force in the Showing interest in self-esteem. The link between self-esteem and school Concerns ought to persuade those who have trouble with the moral argument that they too, have a vested interest in enhancing self-esteem. However, in such schools, the areas of curriculum and teaching, an Osmium is placed upon the following parameters:

❖ Collaborative teacher student planning;
❖ Co-operative learning;
❖ Thematic units that emphasize Personal and Social meanings;
❖ Student Self-evaluation;
❖ Multicultural content;
❖ Community Services projects; and
❖ Activities that involve making, creating, and doing (Beane, 1993).

Beane (1993) Concluded that there is a need to enhance self-esteem on adults particularly Teachers, since it is likely, they are the ones who contribute a lot in inculcating positive self-esteem in young people.

Enhancing Self-Esteem helps build the personal and collective efficacy that helps us out of the morass of inequity that plagues us today. Our Schools have the responsibility to extend democracy, human dignity, and cultural diversity throughout the larger society only if self-esteem is promoted at school levels. (Beane, 1993) state that a school that enhances self-esteem could be characterized as promoting the following:

❖ Humanistic and democratic climate;
❖ Student participation in Governance;
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❖ Heterogeneous grouping; and
❖ Positive expectation.

Table 1.2
Enhancing Self-Esteem

- Value and accept all pupils for their attempts as well as their accomplishments;
- Create a climate that is physically and psychologically safe for students. Become aware of your own personal biases (every one has some biases) and expectations;
- Make sure that your procedures for teaching and grouping students are really necessary not just a convenient way of handling problem-students or avoiding contact with some students;
- Make standards of evaluation clear help students learn to evaluate their own accomplishments;
- Model appropriate method of self-criticisms perseverance and self-appraisals;
- Avoid destructive comparisons and competition, encourage students to compete with their own prior levels of achievement;
- Accept a student even when you must reject a particular behaviour or outcome;
- Students should feel confident;
- Remember that positive self-concept grows from success in operating in the world and from being valued by important people in the environment;
- Encourage students to the responsibility for their reactions to events; show them that they have choices in how to respond;
- Set up support groups or "Study buddies" in school and teach students how to encourage each other;
- Help students set clear goals and objectives. Brainstorm about resources they have for reaching their goals and;
- Highlight the value of different ethnic groups, their cultures, and accomplishments

1.4.10 Approaches of Enhancing Self-Esteem at School Level

Beane (1993) suggested three approaches of enhancing self-esteem to students at School level. The following are the suggestions:

“Being Nice”

Personal Development Activities (PDA) such as sensitivity training where her and a group of students sits together in a circle talking about how they like themselves and everyone else for twenty minutes. "Being nice" has a place in enhancing self-esteem though it is not enough.

"Direct Instruction Regarding Affective Matters"

Put young people through a self-esteem programme or course offered in de-time slot during the school day. The teacher comes armed with "good feelings, namely a self-esteem Curriculum locally prepared or commercially purchased and assuring students that those who go through the programme will have better-esteem, and thus, be immune to self-destructive behaviours and school failures;

“Get Tough Policies”

The negative affect of get tough policies is not a promising route to self-esteem and self-efficacy. However, schools should adopt the third approach by recognizing the power of the environment and begin search for possibilities across the whole institutions (Beane, and Lipka, 1986; Beane, 1993).

“Accept Yourself”

Students will watch and copy how teachers react to their successes and mistakes. Model positive responses and strategies for dealing with these experiences. For example ‘I've been really pleased with my organisation today', or 'I didn't allow enough time for this lesson today so will allow extra time tomorrow'.

“Accept Students”

- Their Behaviour: Teachers need to make students aware that they will respond to the behaviour not the person.
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- **Their feelings:** Teachers need to accept and value that students may have different feelings from their own and that their feelings are equally valid.

- **Their backgrounds:** Acceptance of diversity must be modeled and conveyed into practice, this enables students to accept each other more readily.

"Respect"

It is important that teachers let students know that they are valued, respected and an integral and important member of the class group. Teachers need to take a proactive interest in their students' interests.

"Listen"

Children may be critical of their performance and it is very important to listen to what they have to say and acknowledge the validity of their feelings. Guide and suggest ways of improving their performance if that is what the child wants. (Reflective listening)

"Success is for Everyone"

All students need to be treated equally regardless of academic ability. Teachers must take care to spend equal time with each student without favoritism.

"Promote Competence and Establish Priorities"

Children need challenging and meaningful activities which will encourage them to achieve their potential. Each child may well have different potential but it is equally crucial that their achievements are meaningful so as to increase their opinion of their capabilities. Self-esteem will be further enhanced if children achieve in skills which are useful and of interest to themselves.

"Give Specific Feedback and Promote Realistic Ideals"

It is important for teachers to explicitly teach children how to set realistic expectations of themselves and their skills. This can be accomplished by giving feedback which specifies exactly what the child has achieved. It
needs to be emphasized to children that mistakes are part of the learning process for both adults and children and not a negative experience. Children may also need assistance in accepting and recognizing positive feedback.

"Structure Classroom Procedures"

Coopersmith (1967) cited in Borba & Borba (1978) states that well-defined limits and goals provide children with a basis for evaluating their present performances as well as facilitating comparisons with prior behaviour and attitudes.

In nutshell, parents should not misunderstand the meaning of self-esteem and feel that this is just one more thing they are required to give their child along with regular meals and a warm winter jacket. They should guard their child against anything that may undercut self-esteem. Like an arborist caring for a tree, parents job is to what's there to do what they can, to structure their child's environment so that he grows strong and straight and avoid whittling away at the tender branches.

Instead of encouraging positive behavior, the practice of praising all children for all behaviours, regardless of effort, intention or appropriateness can lead to confused children, who are wrong always mindful that no matter what they do they will be praised.

As in an individuals life adolescents' stage is considered the most turbulent period when the problem of self perception / self-esteem comes into the forefront. The adolescents self image may at one time be compulsive, compensatory and un-realistic and other times insightful and practical. Since there is some tendency for the adolescents to focus more on problems than on accomplishment. The adolescents have tendency to perceive themselves in comparison with "Ideals". These idealistic attitudes sometimes lead to disappointment, disillusionment and even cynicism.

In conclusion, it may be the case that putting self-esteem as a goal, rather than letting it become a natural consequence of good behavior is what the debate is all about. As a parent, as an educator or as a responsible citizen of the society we should guide our youth to be responsible, competent, compassionate, just and kind and love them without promoting narcissism and
selfish behavior. Hence in the present investigation effect of self learning modules on learning outcomes in relation to Anxiety and Self-esteem is being studied.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

“Language is the vehicle of our thoughts and feelings and of our story whether true or not and Grammar is the machinery by which that vehicle is set in motion.”  

Adnuts

Unfortunately our present method of teaching English grammar is based on giving information as bits. It demands rote memorization of rules of Grammar, facts and principles and through this traditional methods of teaching, the objectives of English Grammar education are not realized. Moreover in a conventional classroom there exists all kinds of students, i.e. Average, Brilliant and low achievers. Till now a teacher has to adopt that kind of teaching strategy in which he has to cater to the needs of all these categories. But this creates a lot of trouble for the teacher as well as for the students. Teacher feels discomfort in adopting a suitable teaching method that can be useful for all kinds of students. Average and below average students, on the other hand, feel out of place among the brilliant ones. Therefore, it becomes imperative to look for a method which would replace this chaos in the class without involving extra expenditure and varieties of new technology. Therefore we are in need of new strategies for developing strategies of teaching English grammar which will help to accomplish definite goals.

The investigator felt that self learning modules would be of great help in awakening the curiosity, the love of learning and the capacity to think and judge for oneself. This approach may also lead to the replacement of monotonous classroom teaching with interesting and active teaching learning process. But reviewing the studies conducted in India, it is found that not much works have been done in the area of preparation of learning modules in English grammar. Hence to realize the need for maximizing utility of English Grammar in their daily life in general and school curriculum in particular, the
investigator decided to prepare learning modules and to test the prepared modules to find its effectiveness among 1X grade school students.

So, SLM (self learning modules) enhances the efficiency of teaching learning process as it enables students to acquire knowledge and explore possibility to solve individual problems as it has the individual variability in terms of rate of learning. The students are anxious for progress towards prescribed performance objectives which minimizes failure as each student can master each module completely before proceeding to the next which maximizes the chances of success. The students have full control of the rate of study, thus they can progress at their own pace and are responsible for his or her own learning. Moreover modules bridge the gap between theory and practice while imparting English language in which students study when they want to, not to a classroom-based timetable, causing less professional and personal disruption.

So the present study bring forth fruition mix of the traditional classroom environment along with a constructivist educational attitude, with a belief that the students will learn more individually at their own pace than in a group.

Further the study throws more light into the causal relationships among the Student, the teacher and the school environment - related variable under Investigation i.e. achievement, attitude of students in English and self concept. The outcome of the study is therefore expected to stimulate the stakeholders to improve upon the isolated variable that is their self esteem and reducing their anxiety. With this understanding of research literature the investigator chose to work on a proposal involving these variables.