S. PREETHI EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL

Vol. 3 Issue 1 June 2018





S. PREETHI COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

A Christian Minority Institution Run by Augustine Educational and Charitable Trust Accredited With 'B' Grade By NAAC Arasanoor, Thirumansolai Post, Sivagangai 630562 Mobile: 7373736044 e-Mail: s.preethibed@yahoo.com

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PUBLISHER'S NOTE

The publisher of S.Preethi Educational Journal considers it a great pride, the endeavour of bringing out this Issue as a partial requirement for the award of M.Ed Degree of TNTEU.

He expresses his gratitude to the Patron Dr A Joseph Stalin who has been taking immense pains in running a renowned Institution for bringing out eminent Educational Scholars with special attention to the women personnel of the rural arena.

He acknowledges his unfailing gratitude to the Resource Persons for their invaluable suggestions in enlightening the students regarding the write up of the Articles.

He records his sense of thanks to the Chief Editor and Editorial Committee for their excellent cooperation and coordination in bringing out this Issue successfully.

It is really surprising to note the students have risen to the occasion by contributing articles covering the salient features of all branches of educational theories and perspectives.

The publisher extends his invitation to M.Ed Students who are yet to contribute their articles in the Issues to come after.

The Publisher considers it his bounden duty to thank the press for their elegant services in bringing out this Issue

Dr.V. Antony Joe Raja Publisher & Correspondent

FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK

The Editor is very much delighted in bringing out a Special Issue entitled S.Preethi Educational Journal (Vol.3, Issue 1). The purport of this Issue is to enhance the quality of education and encourage the budding scholars in writing research articles.

A good number of articles have been received for publication of which a selected few have been incorporated in the present Issue. The remaining unpublished articles are to be published in the forthcoming Issues.

The present Issue covers articles under several aspects of Social, Cultural, Psychological and Philosophical dimensions. The features satisfy the requirement of the instructions issued by Tamilnadu Teachers Education University.

The articles are suggestive in nature. Most of the articles are concept based. It would have been appreciable had the articles covered the experimental entity of pedagogical themes.

The Chief Editor owes her profound thanks to the Patron, Adviser, Resource Persons, Editorial Committee and the Contributors for the Journal would have been nowhere but for their moral support.

To conclude, the Chief Editor acknowledges her thanks to the Press personnel for their invaluable and timely services in bringing out this Issue

Dr.N.Vijayalakshmi Chief Editor

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READING HABIT

B. Ambika

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Introduction

Students grapple with many issues in their lives, and because of all of the competing things for your attention, it's hard to concentrate on reading. And yet if student is in school, he has to do at least a *little* reading in order to progress from year to year. If a student wants better grades, he needs more effective reading habits. The key to effective studying isn't cramming or studying longer, but studying smarter.

Reading Definition

Reading: It is a cognitive process of decoding symbols to derive meaning from text (as in reading a book or reading music). Three Components of Reading are **Decoding**, **Comprehension and Retention**.

- Decoding: Decoding refers to the process of translating a printed word into a sound. Two Skills in Decoding are Identification Skill andWord Attack Skill
- Comprehension: It is defined as the level of understanding of a text/message. This understanding comes from the interaction between the words that are written and how they trigger knowledge outside the text/message. Comprehension relies on a mastery of decoding. Children who struggle to decode find it difficult to understand and remember what has been read. Because their efforts to grasp individual words are so exhausting, they have very little mental energy left for understanding.
- Retention: The condition of retaining (keeping) something. It could be in the Short term memory or Long term Memory. The ability to retain, which relies heavily on a child's decoding proficiency and ability to comprehend what is read.

Characteristic of the Reading Process

- Reading is an intricate process. Once reading performance is affected by a numb of connections son that it is not easy to explain why an individual's reading capacity may be satisfactory or otherwise.
- Reading is a two- way process- between the author and the reader.
- Reading is a greatly a visual process- good eyesight is required in good reading.
- Reading is an active process- a thinking process, the reader usually reacts physically, emotionally, or intellectually with what he reads.

Stages of Reading Development

Stage 0: Pre-reading - Preschool (ages 6 mos. To 6 years) - "Pretending" to read, retelling story when looking at pages of book previously read to the child -Naming letters of alphabet; recognizing some signs -Printing own name -Playing with books, pencils, and paper.

Stage1: Initial Reading and Decoding -Grade 1 and beginning Grade 2 (ages 7-8) - Learning relation between letters and sounds and between printed and spoken words -Being able to read simple text containing high frequency words and phonically regular words -Using skill and insight to "sound-out" new one syllable words.

Stage 2: Confirmation and Fluency - Grades 2 and 3 (ages 7-8) - Child reads simple, familiar stories and selections with increasing fluency. This is done by consolidating the basic decoding elements, sight vocabulary, and meaning context in the reading of familiar stories and selections.

Stage 3: Reading for Learning the New - Grades 4-8 (ages 9-13) - Reading is used to experience new feelings, to learn new attitudes. - Reading generally from one viewpoint.

Stage 4: Multiple Viewpoints - High School (ages 15-17) - Reading widely from a broad range of complex materials, both expository and narrative - Reading a variety of viewpoints.

Stage 5: Construction and Reconstruction - College and beyond (ages 18+) - Reading is used for one's own needs and purposes professional and personal) - Reading serves to integrate one's knowledge with that of others, to synthesize it and to create new knowledge - Reading is rapid and efficient.

Importance of Reading

- Reading is fundamental to function in today's society.
- Reading is a vital skill in finding a good job.
- Reading is important because it develops the mind.
- It is how we discover new things.
- Reading develops the imagination.
- Reading develops the creative side of people.
- Reading is fundamental in developing a good self image.
- Good reading skills, especially in a phonics reading program, improve spelling.
- Reading helps to expand the vocabulary.
- Only by reading can we be armed in this never-ending, life-and- death struggle.
- The fact of the power of written ideas communicated through reading is a foundational reason why some government oppose free and honest communication.
- Reading is important because words spoken and written are the building blocks of life.

Teacher's Role in Developing Reading

- Diagnose each student's reading skills to ascertain the grade level of the material that the student can read.
- Diagnose each student's reading skills to determine from a total list of skills, which specific ones have been mastered.
- Be aware of the reading demands and teaching strategies of the content areas so that these skills can be highlighted and reinforced.
- Provide instruction in these skills at the appropriate level of difficulty.

Reading Methods

- Play word games.
- Read aloud every day.
- Model reading as an enjoyable activity.
- Put learning to use.

- Listen to books.
- Read to your child every night.
- Engage children's senses while learning.

Strategies for Reading Skills

Strategies that can help students read more quickly and effectively include:

- Previewing: reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection.
- Predicting: using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and check comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content.
- Skimming and scanning: using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions.
- Guessing from context: using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up.
- Paraphrasing: stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text.

Conclusion

Reading is a complex "cognitive process" of decoding symbols in order to construct or derive meaning (reading comprehension). Reading is a means of language acquisition, communication, and of sharing information and ideas. Like all languages, it is a complex interaction between the text and the reader which is shaped by the reader's prior knowledge, experiences, attitude, and language community which is culturally and socially situated. The reading process requires continuous practice, development, and refinement.

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COMPUTER ASSISTED LEARNING

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Introduction

Predictions are always perilous, especially in connection with technology in schools. New, more powerful computer tools are constantly emerging, a fact that has undone more than one prognosticator. Such software and information systems allow educators to represent the complex networks of data, and allow students to explore those networks. Computer-Aided Instruction (CAI) is a diverse and rapidly expanding spectrum of computer technologies that assist the teaching and learning process. CAI is also known as computer-assisted instruction. Examples of CAI applications include guided drill and practice exercises, computer visualization of complex objects, and computer facilitated communication between students and teachers. Computer has contributed a lot in each and every sector of life especially in education sector.

Computer Assisted Learning

As with any field of learning, acronyms abound in the computer assisted instruction/learning domain. Terms vary in the breadth of their definition, or their specificity. It shows a brief list of some of the main terms that are used in CAI related field.

- Computer Based Training (CBT)
- Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI)
- Computer Assisted Learning (CAL)
- Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)
- Web Based Instruction (WBI)
- Web Based Training (WBT)

The term CAL, as the name suggests, is the use of a computer to provide learning instruction. The format can be form a simple program to teach typing to a complex system that uses the latest technology to teach new keyhole surgery techniques. CAL draws on knowledge from the fields of learning, cognition, Human Computer Interaction (HCI) amongst others.

CAL is a natural outgrowth of the application of the principles of programmed instruction of learning. The main objective of the programmed instruction is to provided individualized instruction just to fulfill the special needs of the individual pupil. In order to achieve this objective, some efficient device is required. This device should be flexible and it can store huge amounts of organized information. The device may enable a person to use some selected part of the stored information. A computer fulfils all these requirements. It can store the organized information; it can process the information suiting to the needs of individual learner. In short, CAL covers the entire educational system by proving itself in useful tool in teaching various subjects.

Types of CAL

Information that helps teach or encourages interaction can be presented on computers in the form of text or in multimedia formats, which include photographs, videos, animation, speech, and music. The guided drill is a computer program that poses questions to students, returns feedback, and selects additional questions based on the students' responses. Recent guided drill systems incorporate the principles of education in addition to subject matter knowledge into the computer program. Computers also can help students visualize objects that are difficult or impossible to view. For example, computers can be used to display human anatomy, molecular structures, or complex geometrical objects.

Exploration and manipulation of simulated environments can be accomplished with CAL-ranging from virtual laboratory experiments that may be too difficult, expensive, or dangerous to perform in a school environment to complex virtual worlds like those used in airplane flight simulators. CAI tools, such as word processors, spreadsheets, and databases, collect, organize, analyze, and transmit information. They also facilitate communication among students, between students and

instructors, and beyond the classroom to distant students, instructors, and experts. CAI systems can be categorized based on who controls the progression of the lesson. Early systems were linear presentations of information and guided drill, and control was directed by the author of the software. In modern systems, and especially with visualization systems and simulated environments, control often rests with the student or with the instructor. This permits information to be reviewed or examined out of sequence. Related material also may be explored. In some group instructional activities, the lesson can progress according to the dynamics of the group.

CAL – Certain Assumptions

- 1. CAL can be arranged for plenty of students simultaneously. It can cope with the problem of quality and quantity in education.
- 2. One can learn at his own pace, receives immediate and personalized feedback, i.e., completely individualized instruction.
- 3. In CAL, each learner's performance during the course and on the test is automatically recorded and can be feedback to the teacher so that he may promptly evaluate the learner's performance and use the data in designing the best teaching strategy for the learners in future.
- 4. It can be used in all types of teaching learning programmers. Any lesson in any subject can be programmed for CAL provided that the lesson aerial can be represented in words, picture and experiments to be presented to the students.

Advantages and Disadvantages

CAL can dramatically increase a student's access to information. The program can adapt to the abilities and preference of the individual student and increase the amount of personalized instruction a student receives. Many students benefit from the immediate responsiveness of computer interactions and appreciate the self-paced and private learning environment. Moreover, computer-learning experiences often engage the interest of students, motivating them to learn and increasing independence and personal responsibility for education. Although it is difficult to assess

the effectiveness of any educational system, numerous studies have reported that. CAL is successful in raising examination scores, improving student attitudes, and lowering the amount of time required to master certain material. While studies vary greatly, there is substantial evidence that CAL can enhance learning at all educational levels.

In some applications, especially those involving abstract reasoning and problem-solving processes, CAL has not been very effective. Critics claim that poorly designed CAL systems can dehumanize or regiment the educational experience and thereby diminish student interest and motivation. Other disadvantages of CAL stem from the difficulty and expense of implementing and maintaining the necessary computer systems. Some student failures can be traced to inadequate teacher training in CAL systems. Student training in the computer technology may be required as well, and this process can distract from the core educational process. Although much effort has been directed at developing CAL systems that are easy to use and incorporate expert knowledge of teaching and learning, such systems are still far from achieving their full potential.

The main advantage of a CAL system are related to the degree to which it permits the individualization of education, particularly instructions –

- 1. The capability of individualizing both the means and ends of instruction.
- 2. The capability of doing research
 - i. On teaching under controlled conditions.
 - ii. Under conditions which individualize instructions in a particular way.
 - iii. On various modes of teaching.
 - iv. Ability to collect detailed records of student performance.
- 3. Permits evaluation of effectiveness of the teaching procedures as well as teaching materials.
- 4. The capability of developing ways of assisting teachers and authors in the development of instructional materials.

- 5. The capability of evaluating alternative media used to implement and support instruction.
- 6. Computer aided instruction (CAL) mean using computers to teach people, it does not mean teaching people to use computer or teaching people about computer technology. Computer can be used in education
 - i. To reinforce present educational system.
 - ii. To revolutionize the present educational system.
 - iii. To lay the foundations for future system of education to come.

Conclusion

Computer assisted instruction (CAL) has emerged as an effective and efficient media of instruction in the advanced countries of the world. In fact, CAL is being used in formal land non-formal education at all the levels. In India too, computer has been introduced in most of the areas such as data processing decision making. It has also impact on the working methods of research and development in the fields of education.

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CONTEXT BASED APPROACH

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Introduction

The history of Language teaching in India, as we know, has a long tradition. Memorization of vocabulary and translation of sentences often formed the major part of such learning process in the past. Ancient languages such as Sanskrit and Pali were mastered in India through the process of memorization of texts and vocabulary lists. Learning vocabulary lists indeed formed the core of language learning. Different methods may be appropriate to different contexts. There is no single acceptable way to go about teaching language today. One such method is Context Based Approach.

English Language Teaching

A teacher at times uses a single approach, a single method, or even resorts to multiple approaches and methods in view of several factors including the background, age of learners, and the teaching items. The skill of a teacher lies in shifting to and evolving new approaches and methods of teaching English comfortably in the Indian context.

Any serious study, which aims at contributing new ideas to English Language Teaching Methods have to analyze, thoroughly the strength and weakness of the various language teaching methods erstwhile tried. In this chapter an attempt is made to interpret and evaluate the methods that have been in vogue from time to time in different parts of the world. The analysis of the methods includes the background in which the methods evolved the basic principles and characteristic features of the methods, the strength and weakness of each method and lastly the relevance of the method.

Context Based Approach

Developing students' strategies for handling unknown words has always been one of the principal challenges of English reading classes. The drawbacks of this approach are obvious. Too much dictionary work can kill all interest in reading and even interfere with comprehension, because readers become more concerned with individual words and less aware of the context which gives them meaning. It also results in very slow and inefficient reading.

Guessing vocabulary from context is the most frequent way to discover the meaning of new words. Honey field stresses the importance of context by arguing that even with a functional vocabulary of the 3,000 most frequently occurring items in English, learners will still not know approximately 20 percent of the items they will encounter in an un simplified text.

Researchers agree that to learn words in context and not in isolation is an effective vocabulary learning strategy. A word used in different contexts may have different meanings; thus, simply learning the definitions of a word without examples of where and when the word occurs will not help learners to fully understand its meaning. Learning an isolated list of words without reference to the context is merely a memorization exercise which makes it difficult for learners to use the words in spoken and written language. Looking at the context in which the word appears seems to be the best way of learning vocabulary. Good readers also take advantage of their background knowledge in processing the context and in creating expectations about the kind of vocabulary that will occur in the reading.

Types of Context Clues

There are a number of different context clues that can help a reader infer the meaning of a new word. These are:

- Morphology
- Reference Words
- Cohesion

- Synonyms and Antonyms
- Hyponyms
- Definitions
- Alternatives
- Restatement.
- Providing Example
- Guessing the meaning
- Comparison and Contrast
- Punctuation

Advantages of Context-based Approach

In addition to increasing students' vocabulary, this approach has several advantages.

- 1. It helps readers not only learn words but also know how to use them in context. Guessing the meaning of a word from its use in context requires an understanding of semantic properties, register and collocation. It makes readers aware of of one important feature of vocabulary, namely that context determines the meaning of words.
- 2. Training students to infer meaning from context gives them a powerful aid to comprehension and will speed up their reading.
- 3. This approach allows the learners to make intelligent, meaningful guesses. This will make the learning task much more active and challenging than direct explanation of words. It has a problem solving characteristic that appeals to most people and challenges them to make use of their intelligence to an extent that is not always common in language classes.
- 4. It helps readers develop a holistic approach toward reading. Because the concept of a new word may be drawn from a group of sentences, a paragraph, or even the entire text, they learn to direct their attention to language units larger than the sentence while they are looking for context clues.

Conclusion

The mother-tongue speaker learns to be content with approximate meaning. He is satisfied with a meaning which makes sense of the context. Perhaps in vocabulary learning the 'need-to-know' principle could also be applied. Students should not be told more about the meanings of words than they need to know to understand the context so that they don't get confused. As such the Context Based Approach plays a significant role.

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ENTREPRENEURSHIP SKILLS

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Introduction

India is predominantly an agricultural country. For our country development of industries is a must. Industries convert raw materials into usable products with the help of men and machines. Industrialisation is a sine-qua-non of economic progress. All the rich countries of the world are industrialised countries. Industrialisation can alone provide the necessary elements of strength to the economy. Man's interest in industry is as old as human civilisation itself. A person who ventures in to an innovative industry is known as an Entrepreneur.

Entrepreneurship

The term entrepreneur is derived from the French word "Enterprendre" which means to undertake; Entrepreneurship involves the willingness to assume risks in undertaking a new economic activity. It refers to the qualities which are needed to innovate, start a new enterprise, accept the challenges and bear the risk. It is the function of seeking investment and production opportunities. It is an urge to own and control an industrial unit and to utilise the intelligence for its development. As stated in the oxford English Dictionary, entrepreneur is "one who undertakes an enterprise, especially a contractor - acting as intermediary between capital and labour".

A true entrepreneur is one who is endowed with more than average capacities in the task of organising and coordinating the factors of production. Now the term "entrepreneur" is attributed to all small industrialists, small business, traders and industrialists. All people who are gainfully engaged in lawfully accepted work are called entrepreneurs.

Definitions

- 1. "A true entrepreneur is one who is endowed with more than average capacities in the risk of organising and coordinating the various other factors of production" -Francis A. Walter
- 2. "An entrepreneur is one who always searches for change, respond to it and exploits it as an opportunity" Peter F. Drucker.

Various types of entrepreneurs are Innovators, Imitators, Fabian Entrepreneurs, Drone Entrepreneurs and Laggards. These type of entrepreneurs' posses certain individual characteristics.

Forms of Entrepreneurs

1. Individual Entrepreneurs

Individual entrepreneurs start, operate and control small factories or industrial units. These entrepreneurs are more in number in the small scale sector. Many schemes of the government render support to small enterprises established by individual entrepreneurs.

2. Institutional Entrepreneurs

When the volume of business expand, it becomes difficult for an individual to look after lonely. Therefore it is necessary to institutionalise entrepreneurship. Corporate sector is the symbol of institutionalised entrepreneurship. A corporate entrepreneur is an individual who plans, develops, and manages a corporate body. The central function of the entrepreneur remains the same, but the basic decisions like the line of business, the amount of capital employed, are collectively taken by the group of promoters at the helm of affairs.

3. Business Entrepreneur

Business entrepreneur is one who conceives an idea for a new product or service. They engage in production and marketing activities, (eg. readymade garments, confectionery, advertising agency)

4. Industrial Entrepreneur

Industrial entrepreneur is one who explores the potential needs of consumers and produces suitable products or services, (eg. electronic units, textile units)

5. Trading Entrepreneur

Trading entrepreneur is one who is engaged only in trading activities in one country or many countries. This entrepreneur identifies potential markets for new products or services.

6. Agricultural Entrepreneur

Agricultural entrepreneur is one who is engaged in agricultural activities and allied occupations, (eg. producing and selling of crops, farming, poultry, dairy)

7. Pure Entrepreneur

Pure entrepreneur is one who is motivated by psychological and economic rewards. He is engaged in a new venture for his own satisfaction.

8. Induced Entrepreneur

Induced entrepreneur is one who is induced to undertake a venture due to assistance, incentives and concessions given by the government.

9. Technical Entrepreneur

Technical entrepreneur is one who has much skill in production techniques. He can make quality goods by his craftsmanship.

10. Professional Entrepreneur

Professional entrepreneur is one who establishes a business and sells out it in good running condition. Again, he starts another venture and sells the same. He has many new ideas for establishing but has no interest in operating it.

11. Entrepreneur by Inheritance

One becomes entrepreneur when one inherits the family business. In our country there are large numbers of family controlled business houses; family business is popular in small scale and large scale. Big families entered in big industries e.g. the Tata's make Lorries, the Birla's make Ambassador, the Bajaj make Two wheelers, the Mahindra's make Jeeps.

12. Forced Entrepreneur

A person who has financial strength and technical ideas is forced to start new enterprises with the idea of earning regular income. The neo rich Indians returning from abroad and the educated unemployed youth are also forced to start new ventures. But most of these type of entrepreneurs fail in their ventures due to lack of proper training and education.

Entrepreneur is Different from other Functionaries

One should understand the distinction between an entrepreneur and other functionaries in business organisations. Some of such distinctions are tabulated below.

- **a) Mental Ability:** He must have intelligence and creative thinking. He should anticipate changes in every aspect.
- **b) Human Relations:** He must maintain good relations with his employees, suppliers, creditors, and customers.
- **c) Communication Ability:** He must have good communication ability. Both the sender and the receiver must understand the communication in the same sense.
- **d) Secrecy:** He must keep secrecy of business. He should not divulge material facts to the competitors.
- **e) Expansion:** He is interested in expanding the scale of operations to the possible extent.
- **f) Risk-Taking:** He should he willing to assume risks. He should be mentally alert, practically wise, shrewd and intelligent.
- **g) Mobilise resources:** He should have the ability to marshal necessary resources for achieving the objectives. He should possess the impulse to fight and succeed and to prove he is superior to others.
- **h) General Ability:** He must be able to inspire loyalty and hard work in order to raise productivity and efficiency.

Entrepreneurship Traits

In general successful entrepreneur should have the following qualities or traits.

- Drive to achieve and grow.
- Total commitment and determination.
- Taking initiative and personal responsibility.
- Organising ability.
- Motivation.
- Risk-Taking.
- Dynamism.
- Self-confidence

- Low need for status and power
- Integrity and reliability
- Realism and sense of humour
- Seeking and using feedback.

Entrepreneurs and Economic Development

Entrepreneurs' play a significant role in the economic development of a nation which may enumerated as follows:

- Entrepreneurs are instrumental in raising productivity through technical and other forms of innovation.
- Job opportunities are created by entrepreneurs. Unemployed persons are provided chance to work and earn.
- Every entrepreneur is involved in the technical aspects of the relevant establishment. It is possible to acquire further know-how by transfer of technology.
- Entrepreneurs play an important role in commercializing new inventions and products. Without entrepreneurial objectives even the greatest inventor loses his business.
- Entrepreneurs play a critical role in the restructuring and transformation of economy.

Barriers to Entrepreneurship

The external environment of an organisation is dynamic. Many external and internal factors hinder entrepreneur growth. They are stated below:

- 1. Unreliable supply of materials, men, machine and money.
- 2. Higher cost of inputs.
- 3. Adverse market fluctuations.
- 4. Lack of support by financial institutions.
- 5. Sudden political changes.
- 6. Regional conflicts (e.g. sons of soil policy)
- 7. Total changes in Government Policy
- 8. Social conflicts
- 9. Lack of facilities of training and encouragement.
- 10. Corruption and Excessive red-tapism.

Conclusion

Entrepreneurship plays an important role in the economic development of a country. It is the spirit of entering into venturesome economic activities. It permits the growth of both the public and the private sector. Entrepreneurs are strategic innovators seeking profitability and growth. There is a wide range of contributions that entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship can make to the economic development of a Nation.

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TEACHING PERSPECTIVES

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Introduction

After nearly a century of research, scholars are still unable to concretely define the personal and professional characteristics that predict successful, effective teachers. The literature is complex and seemingly contradictory; findings are sensitive to student populations, geographic regions, and research methodologies. Teachers are the most important factor in the educational process, and policies that improve teacher efficacy lead to improved student outcomes.

Teaching Perspectives

It is very difficult to define what is good teaching and effective teaching. The criteria for making evaluation may differ from teacher to teacher. They also depend upon the instructional situation. Though it is easy to list the characteristics of a good teacher it is difficult to rank them as they differ from teacher to teacher and subject to subject.

The observational studies indicate that effective teaching is revealed by an effective teacher who demonstrates his ability to bring about intended learning goals. Effective teaching has two dimensions, namely, intent and achievement. Without intent the pupil's achievement becomes directionless and accidental and not definite, not controllable and not predictable. However intent alone is not enough. Without achievement of the intended learning goals, the teacher cannot truly be called effective.

To bring about the intended learning, a teacher should be prepared in four areas of knowledge as explained by B.O. Smith (1969). They are:

- Command a theoretical knowledge about learning and human behavior.
- Display of attitude that fosters learning and genuine human relationships.
- Command of knowledge in the subject meant to be taught.
- Control of technical skills of teaching to facilitate pupil's learning.

Ryan (1960) conducted observational studies and identified three main factors associated with effective teaching, both positive and negative. They are:

- Warmth and understanding versus coldness and aloofness.
- Organized and business-like versus unplanned.
- Stimulating and imaginative versus dull and routine.

Flander (1970) considered that teacher effectiveness is indicated by indirect teaching style rather than the direct. The indirect teaching style is characterized by asking questions, accepting pupil's feeling, acknowledging ideas and giving praise and encouragement. The direct teaching is characterised by criticism, justification of authority and the giving of directions. Both the direct and indirect behaviours are necessary in good teaching. The teacher can promote learning by a direct teaching strategy such as lecture with explanation to clarify a difficult topic. But the explanation can be made more indirect by occasional asking of questions to determine whether pupils understand the presentation of the concepts.

Rosenshine and First (1976) identified the indicators of effective teaching shown by pupils as given below:

- Knowledge, skills, attitudes
- Independent behavior in learning
- Behaviours of positive attitude towards teacher and peers.
- Behaviours of positive attitudes towards curriculum and school.
- Behaviours of positive attitude towards themselves and learners.
- No behavior problems in class.
- Active learning in the classroom

So effective teaching depends not only on teachers but also on students. However, the teacher should be a good decision-maker in the process of teaching effectively. He has to exhibit the three functions namely, Planning, Implementation and Evaluation.

The planning function demands that the teacher makes decisions about the pupil's needs, fulfilling appropriate goals, formulation of objectives to reach the goal, the teaching strategies to be adopted to realize the instructional objectives, availability and utility of resources, equipment and materials and the time requirement.

The implementation function is related to presenting, explaining, listening, introducing, demonstrating, eliciting responses and achieving closure. This implementation is an important function that demands teaching skills to be acquired by the teachers.

The evaluation function requires decisions about the achievement of pupils. It is related to the objectives to be achieved, the strategies to be evaluated, the recording and analyzing the achievement and modifying the implementation function, based on the feedback.

By observing the teachers' performance, one can assess the characteristics of effective teaching. It is possible to observe the teacher's use of specific strategies and techniques. Discussion, lecture, enquiry method, independent learning, contrasts, simulation and role-playing are examples of certain teaching strategies that can reveal teacher effectiveness. These strategies are adopted applying teaching skills. The teacher acquires teaching skills in three stages namely cognition, practice and evaluation. Cognitive stage includes the knowledge of isolating elements of skills, sequencing and forming the concept of the skill. In the practice stage, the teaching skills are practiced as microteaching skills. In the evaluation stage, sound recordings, supervisory conferences and observational materials provide feedback for acquiring mastery.

Principles Proven to Enhance Teaching and Learning Seize the Moment

Teaching is most effective when it occurs in quick response to a need the learner feels. So even though you are elbow deep in something else, you should make every effort to teach the student when he or she asks. The student is ready to learn. Satisfy that immediate need for information now, and augment your teaching with more information later.

Involve the Student in Planning

Just presenting information to the student does not ensure learning. For learning to occur, you will need to get the student involved in identifying his learning needs and outcomes. Help him to develop attainable objectives. As the teaching process continues, you can further engage him or her by selecting teaching strategies and materials that require the student's direct involvement, such as role playing and return demonstration. Regardless of the teaching strategy you choose, giving the student the chance to test his or her ideas, to take risks, and to be creative will promote learning.

Begin with what the Student Knows

You will find that learning moves faster when it builds on what the student already knows. Teaching that begins by comparing the old, known information or process and the new, unknown one allows the student to grasp new information more quickly.

Move from Simple to Complex

The student will find learning more rewarding if he has the opportunity to master simple concepts first and then apply these concepts to more complex ones. Remember, however, that what one student finds simple, another may find complex. A careful assessment takes these differences into account and helps you plan the teaching starting point.

Accommodate the Student's Preferred Learning Style

How quickly and well a student learns depends not only on his or her intelligence and prior education, but also on the student's learning style preference. *Visual* learners gain knowledge best by *seeing* or *reading* what you are trying to teach; *auditory* learners, by *listening*; and *tactile* or *psychomotor* learners, by *doing*.

Sort Goals by Learning Domain

You can combine your knowledge of the student's preferred learning style with your knowledge of learning domains. Learning behaviors fall in three domains: cognitive, psychomotor, and affective. The *cognitive* domain deals with intellectual abilities. The *psychomotor* domain includes physical or motor skills. The *affective* domain involves expression of feeling about attitudes, interests, and values. Most learning involves all three domains.

Make Material Meaningful

Another way to facilitate learning is to relate material to the student's lifestyle -- and to recognize incompatibilities. The more meaningful material is to a student, the quicker and easier it will be learned.

Allow Immediate Application of Knowledge

Giving the student the opportunity to apply his or her new knowledge and skills reinforces learning and builds confidence. This immediate application translates learning to the "real world" and provides an opportunity for problem solving, feedback, and emotional support.

Tell Your Students How they are Progressing

Learning is made easier when the students are aware of their progress. Positive feedback can motivate them to greater effort because it makes their goal seem attainable. Also, ask your students how they feel they are doing. They probably want to take part in assessing their own progress toward learning goals, and their input can guide your feedback.

Reward Desired Learning with Praise

Praising desired learning outcomes or behavior improves the chances that the students will retain the material or repeat the behavior. Reassuring them that they have learned the desired material or technique can help them retain and refine it.

Conclusion

Effective teaching depends not only on teachers but also on students. However, the teacher should be a good decision-maker in the process of teaching effectively. Effective teachers possess mainly the positive factors.

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ADJUSTIVE BEHAVIOUR

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Introduction

Most activities of living organisms are calculated to make them more comfortable and peaceful in their relationship with the environment. The child who cries when he is hungry does so because he feels uncomfortable as a result of pangs of hunger. He cries to summon the mother who feeds it. Similarly, the factory worker who gets up very early does so in order to catch an early bus and reach his factory on time. These examples show that human behaviour normally represents an effort on the part of the organism to avoid tension, trouble and other unpleasant consequences. The process by which a living organism acquires a particular way of acting or behaving or changes an existing form of behaviour or action is called adjustment.

Adjustment

By and large, behaviour is always an effort towards adjust oneself to increasingly changing circumstances and consequently, instances of adjustive behaviour increases in number, in complexity, and in variety. A very young child has to adjust itself to very few situations. A slightly grown-up child, on the other hand, has to adjust itself to its parents, brother and sisters, playmates, school, teacher, etc. An adult has many more demands for adjustment made on him. It is obvious from this that as demands for adjustment increase, we learn and acquire appropriate patterns of behaviour which help us to adjust ourselves to the various demands that are made on us.

It may be seen, therefore, that by and large, human behaviour caters to two types of adjustments: adjustment to external conditions assumes more and more importance compared to adjustment to internal conditions. For example, a college girl is prepared to miss her breakfast to reach the college on time. As a person grows older, it becomes necessary to strike a balance between adjustment to external and internal conditions.

External adjustment involves adjustment to different types of situations. First, there are the physical conditions like weather, space, time and other material demands. For example, during winter all of us put on warm clothing and in summer we prefer light clothing; a householder who is not able to meet all his expenses with his regular income either works overtime or borrows or gambles.

The next set of conditions refers to the people around us. A child who is normally very noisy tries to keep quite when guests are at home. Similarly, a man and his wife who are given to frequent quarrels, restrain themselves when they are outside their home or when others are visiting them. A passenger who initially tries to rush into a bus gradually learns to stand in a queue because other passengers require him to do so. These are examples of social adjustment where people behave in a manner which will enable them to adjust themselves to other people, to the expectations of others and behave as others do.

Social adjustment can take place even in the absence of others. For example, honest citizens buy a railway ticket even if they are sure that they will not be detected if they travelled without a ticket. Similarly, law-abiding people do not throw waste paper or other useless articles on the roads. Here, one may see that the adjustment is to certain norms or standards of conduct rather than to any person or persons. In a way, this is also social adjustment. Social adjustment, therefore, falls under two categories - to other people who are directly present and to certain standards or and norms of behaviour which are generally accepted by everyone.

Adjustive behaviour keeps on changing to make the adjustment more effective even when given the same demand. Generally adjustive behaviour becomes smoother and more and more well-set. New form of adjustive behaviour arises and develops with changing circumstances.

Elements in Adjustment

It can be seen from what has been said above that adjustive behaviour or adjustment implies the following:

- There must be a need on the part of the individual to adjust.
- There are some situations or circumstances which render some forms of behaviour more adjustive than others.
- The individual must have the ability or capacity to behave in an adjustive manner.
- This adjustive behaviour should result in an effective adjustment, thus, bringing to a termination the demand for adjustment.

It may, therefore, be seen that whether the behaviour of an individual will lead to effective adjustment or not depends on a number of factors. Also no individual is able to adjust to all situations equally effectively. Some individuals are generally unable to make effective adjustments. If an individual, for any reason, is unable to adjust himself effectively to most situations in life, then this creates psychological abnormalities which can assume very serious proportion requiring psychological treatment and even hospitalization.

Non-Adjustive and Mal-Adjustive Reactions

It was pointed out above that in many instances adjustive behaviour may not be effective. The effectiveness of adjustive behaviour can range forms a high degree of effectiveness to total ineffectiveness. In extreme cases, the ineffectiveness may result in further problems of adjustment. In such instances, the individuals are known as being maladjusted. On the other hand, in instances where the behaviour of the individual, while not contributing to effective adjustment does not, however, result in a disruption of existing conditions, the behaviour is said to be non-adjustive. Imagine the case of a factory worker who has an opportunity to undergo higher training and thereby go to a higher position. If the worker in question does not take any initiative to go for the training programme and prefers to remain where he is, this may be an example of non-adjustive behaviour. On the other hand, if the same person tries to avoid going for

training, gets frustrated and begins to criticize those who go for the training programme, this is an example of mal-adjustive behaviour. In the latter instance, our worker creates problems for himself and for others. In extreme forms he may even resort to alcohol or drugs and other forms of escape from his maladjusted conditions. When the escape measures fail to remove the tension, he may ultimately become a mental wreck. Even thought we have classified non-adjustive and mal-adjustive behaviour into separate categories, it can be seen that the difference between them is only a question of degree- and not kind. A series of non-adjustive reactions may ultimately result in mal-adjustive behaviour.

Similarities and Differences between Adjustive and Mal-adjustive Behaviour

At this point, it may be worthwhile to appreciate some of the similarities and differences between adjustive behaviour and non-adjustive or maladjustive behaviour. In both these types of behaviour the organism is trying to adapt itself to certain internal and external conditions, thus aiming to maintain a state of equilibrium or harmony. But beyond this, the similarity ends. In the case of adjustive behaviour the needs of the organism are satisfied and the environmental demands are also met in a constructive way. The adaption is successful and contributes to the further growth of the person. On the other hand, in non-adjustive reactions, the individual avoids the problem and his needs are ignored and not really satisfied. These needs, however, very often continue without the awareness of the person and no learning or growth takes place.

In maladjustive reaction the individual tries to escape or deny the problem and as a result he is in a state of anxiety and tension. Maladjustive behaviour is unrealistic and the problem continues instead of getting solved. The individual, instead of overcoming the problem, spends all his energy and resources in struggling against the demands of his needs as well as external reality. Gradually, he gets farther away from reality. In extreme forms of maladjustment like paranoia, the individual gets completely estranged from reality and lives in a make-believe world of his own. Such make-believe fantasies are called delusions. The paranoiac

erects a strong boundary wall which insulates, isolates and alienates him from reality. In such cases, one can clearly see the severe consequences of maladjustive behaviour. Such behaviour is not only non-productive but also counterproductive. In extreme cases, maladjustive behaviour becomes rigid and irreversible. The individual finds it impossible to unlearn such behaviour because the habit has become very strong and resists attempts to change.

Causes of Non-Adjustive and Mal-Adjustive Behaviour

We have so far attempted to explain non-adjustive and maladjustive behaviour. Most of us, at one time or another has indulged in non-adjustive or even maladjustive behaviour. But in some cases non-adjustive and maladjustive behaviour come to dominate over adjustive behaviour and this results in a way of life which creates problem for the individuals themselves and also others close to them. Here, we find the real causes of psychological abnormalities like neuroses and psychoses. The former represent systematic, persistent and consistent non-adjustive reactions while the latter involve systemic, consistent and persistent maladjustive behaviour. The patients who suffer from neurosis are still able to make partial adjustment and live normal lives though no doubt, their efficiency and efficiency and effectiveness are affected. But patients of severe psychosis, on the other hand, are not able to lead normal lives at all. Very often such patients have to be hospitalised and taken care of. Their lives become totally barren and useless.

Non-adjustive and maladjustive reaction result because of a number of factors. Some of these factors are biological, some are social and situational and a large majority of them are psychological. Prolonged illness, brain injury, endocrinal abnormalities, nervous disorders, etc. are some of the biological and organic causes. Severe poverty, material deprivation, accidents, death and the loss of loved ones are some of the situational causes. Wars, famine, social epidemics, economic depression and migration are some of the social factors. Similarly, social conflicts, ethnic hostilities, etc. can also produce non-adjustive and maladjustive

behaviour. But more than all these, psychological factors have been found to be most important in the genesis of non-adjustive and maladjustive reactions. Some of the major psychological factors are given below.

Conclusion

As one grows older, one even learns alternative forms of adjustment in case the usual forms of adjustive behaviour are not possible. Thus, on the one hand, while adjustive behaviour increases in consistency and predictability, at the same time there is also greater flexibility and choice. In times of crisis people are able to adjust even though the normal form of adjustment is not possible. When the critical situation is over, the individual returns to the earlier form of adjustment.

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FRIENDSHIP: A PERSPECTIVE

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Introduction

Friendship is one of the intimate relationships recognised as a significant source of support throughout life. Adolescence – due to its pace and critical nature of changes – is the time when friendly relationships are of special importance. In practice, a close relationship with a peer lends support to each type of developmental task undertaken in this period. Pursuant to a psychologists' emphasis of its psychodynamic aspects, the role of friends in the process of separation from one's parents is necessary to achieve a mature identity.

Friendship

In psychological research, friendship is considered as one of the interpersonal relationships having the features which distinguish it from other types of relationships. Friendships concern the following aspects:

- 1) the content of friendship (precisely, the quality of interactions creating it);
- 2) the functions and effects of friendship (Hinde, 1996; Bukowski, Motzoi, Meyer, 2009).

Friends also help to shape the ability to manage one self and thus increase one's autonomy (Daddis, 2008). Discussions among groups of friends contribute to the definition of one's world view and values, thus giving direction to one's life; these discussions assist in planning educational and professional paths. Having a friend decreases anxiety in situations where a teenager is a novice, thus increasing self-confidence and general well-being. Friend support is also important for learning new social roles connected with aspects of sexuality which are associated with the emergence of romantic relationships. It may also improve one's self-esteem because it allows for experiencing respect and interest in one's own

thoughts and experiences. Apart from personality aspects, a friend's support is also connected with cognitive functioning; for example, it improves problem solving functions. High-quality friendship coexists with success at school and positive adaptations to the school environment.

Auhagen, who defines friendship as dyadic, that is, as a personal and informal social relationship where the partners find themselves mutually attracted. It is voluntary, long-lasting, and positive by nature and it does not involve open sexuality (quoting Hinde, 1996, p. 14). Stability as a condition of friendship between both children and teenagers does not have to be fulfilled. Thus, permanence is not the essence of friendship when viewed from the perspective of one's entire life. Undoubtedly, time is important. However, this aspect is better defined by J. Dunn, who researched friendship between children; he applied the term "being together" as one of the conditions of this relationship. Pursuant to a review of the literature on the subject, the author defines friendship as a type of reciprocal voluntary relationship which is characterized by the following:

- being together,
- intimacy (closeness),
- the partners like each other,
- loyalty, and
- mutual commitment. (Dunn, 2008)

This list characterizes friendship in the period of adolescence and adulthood.

On the other hand, Bukowski et al. (1999) characterize friendship between teenagers as having the following features:

- reciprocity,
- similarity of partners, and
- coordination and responsiveness of activities (Bukowski, et al., 2004).

The authors quote research showing the specificity of friendship against the background of other peer relationships pursuant to the listed features. An example of defining friendship through its performed functions and effects is the suggestion by Wright (1984), who considers friendship as a relationship is facilitating the fulfillment or expression of individual expectations concerning:

- the confirmation of one's uniqueness and importance,
- growth (development), and
- avoidance of threats.

The multitude of definitions of friendship applied in psychology may be a sign of the uncertainty of the researchers themselves as to the essence of this relationship. Friendship is a multidimensional phenomenon which is difficult to define. The reflections of Aelred of Rievaulx are valuable because they are based on a most renowned ancient treatise by Cicero entitled "Laelius on Friendship" and are at the same time the result of studies on the legacy of Christian thinkers made by this Cistercian monk.

The point of departure in Aelred's reflections on friendship was in defining it as a virtue (in a theological sense). Although it is a way of showing love, it is not identical to love. Friendship is always reciprocal, faithful and safe, while love is a broader category: it may be unrequited, and may also be felt towards opponents and even enemies. The application of virtue expresses the belief in the spiritual nature of this relationship. It's "spiritual" meaning is not limited to the experience between persons but opens people to transcendental reality. Therefore, if it is real – it is eternal (because it is a type of transcendently understood love).

This belief can be also found in writings by Cicero who – similarly to Aelred – claimed that real friendship is possible only between righteous people. Aelred's view is that a person violating the moral rules betrays one's own soul, wounds it and thus is not able to love other man's soul. For both thinkers, the ability to be friends is connected with respect for the moral order, not necessarily for wisdom. Therefore – though they both agree that real friendship is rare – they do not claim that it is exclusive, in the sense that it is available only to wise men. It is rather characterized by mutual concern for what is righteous.

Regardless of whether or not Aelred's concept of friendship is convincing to researchers, the basic question is do teenagers experience it at such an elevated level. There is considerable evidence to suggest that adolescence creates particularly favourable conditions for experiencing it in such a way. When observing are able to create at least the likeness of true friendship (as interpreted by Aelred).

Cognitive Abilities

Teenage thinking achieves a formal level (Piaget, quoting Bee, op.cit.) which means that teenagers are able to use notions, think abstractly, and propose hypotheses on the basis of logically concluding from thinking Such network allows for simultaneous consideration - in a systematic way - of different alternatives in the explanatory process. The hypotheses are verified through reasoning, without the necessity of their actually being tested. A teenager is able to create theoretical models expressed in the language of theory and to use them in forecasting. Within this scope of possessed mental tools, it is a completely mature way of thinking. The development of formal operations results in thoughtfulness, criticism, and the ability to formulate opinions by the adolescents. The imagination manifested in dreams and artistic works also develops. Teenagers write poems, diaries and short stories, play their own works in bands, and express themselves in art works. The social network websites (Youtube or Polish wrzuta) are crowded manifestations of such artistic activities. Their sensitivity increases, attention becomes more focused and all types of memory function in a fully mature way.

Social Development and Personality Development

Adolescence is a time for deepening and broadening interpersonal relations. The social context of development expands and diversifies, and a teenager spends more time with peers than with parents. Apart from dyadic friendly relationships, elements of the social network include different types of groups (closer and more distant acquaintances, gangs of friends, quasi-sub cultural groups3, sports teams, artistic teams and other

groupings) and romantic relationships. There is a new phenomenon of virtual communities and acquaintances. Self-reliance increases; the same happens with their independence from parents who now monitor the peer relations of their children to a lesser degree, which means that those relations become more autonomous. They are also more intimate and open. The discussions with a friend and common experiences significantly contribute to the creation of a world view, plans for life and the concept of oneself. The teenager's autonomy also grows at this time. Observation of personal matters decided upon by a friend often encourages efforts to increase one's own independent decisions (Daddis, 2008). Investments in friends' and acquaintances' support - characteristic for this developmental stage - is connected with greater trust in the opinions of peers, especially those who are in close relations. Contacts with parents, despite being more conflicting and distanced, do not weaken deep family ties based on affection. The majority of teenagers consider their parents as the ones to whom they are the most attached (Bee, op.cit., 373).

World view and Moral Development

The described developmental changes and their cultural and social context create the conditions for reflecting on the model of the world, its assessment and one's place in it. A teenager creates their own vision of the world and searches for meaning in their activities. Planning one's own future (the educational and professional path) is connected with the necessity of establishing one's goals for life. Their choice results from the hierarchy of values they adopt in this issue, which is typical of this age. Attention should also be drawn to youth's idealism (Szuman, quoting Kielar - Turska, 2000), which consists in an optimistic vision of the future connected with the belief in being able to realize one's own desires and dreams. Teenagers confidently project themselves into the future since they are convinced that everything is within their reach. On the other hand, understanding moral rules becomes increasingly mature and involves formal operations. Teenagers are able to create theoretical models of moral principles through which they can distinguish between the spirit and the letter of the law.

No selection of the above characteristics of adolescence would be complete without a comment concerning the diversified pace of changes typical of this age. While also bearing in mind the social and cultural differences, it is worth emphasizing that the category of teenagers is not uniform. The majority of research procedures take into account cultural differences by selecting the study subjects with diversified cultural, social and economic backgrounds. Consequently we obtain general results concerning the group, which in fact does not exist. This comment also concerns studies of friendly relationships. One may believe that adolescents experience this relationship in different ways. Depending on the individual pace of development and the circumstances, friendship may be experienced in the following ways (pursuant to Aelred): youth, worldly and spiritual.

Conclusion

Friendship is helpful in shaping a wide spectrum of social competences (including the ability to provide support in close relationships) and emotional competences. One of the most appreciated functions of this relationship is the assistance in crisis situations arising from adverse circumstances in life.

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TEACHERS' SELF REGARD

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Introduction

Self Regard otherwise known as self-esteem of the teachers who arise early every day of every month of every of every year to prepare and to teach the children of our world is of prime importance. One should wonder why our schools have suffered under the exodus of the teachers who seek other jobs; who retire early due to boredom and teacher burnout; who lack motivation and desire to work; who are stressed; who are emotionally exhausted; who see their work not only futile, but inconsistent with their educational goals; who are involved in a fast-track and demanding teaching profession; who lack control of the content they teach because someone else controls it; who decide to leave the classroom all together; and who do not have the positive image about themselves due to discouragements from lack of parental support, poor or lack of administrative support, and uprising of unmanageable classrooms due to students' behavior and lack of interest in learning.

Self Regard or Self Esteem

According to Lawrence's (2006) *Self-esteem* "is the individual's evaluation of discrepancy between self-image and ideal self". Self-esteem could be global or specific. Global self-esteem "refers to an around feeling of self worth and confidence"; whereas, specific self-esteem "refers to a felling of self-worth and confidence with regard to a specific activity or behavior".

Self-Esteem Needs

Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs starting at the bottom up shows that "humans as beings we have psychological needs, safety and security needs, love and belonging needs, self-esteem needs, and self actualization needs". Maslow (1943) addressing the self-esteem needs pointed out that "All

people in our society (with a few pathological exceptions have a need for a stable, firmly based, (usually) high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem, and for the esteem of others". Hence, both teachers and students must have a sense of confidence in their teaching and learning, a sense of achievement, respect for other people, and a sense of the need to be unique (Maslow, 1943; Maslow & Lewis, 1987; Simons, Irwin, & Drinnien, 1978; & Poston, 2009). In psychology, self-esteem refers to "a person's overall sense of self-worth or personal value" and often it is connected to "a personality trait".

Components of Self-Esteem

Moreover, Maslow (1987) in his discussion on the hierarchy of needs highlights self-esteem as one of human needs and shows that self-esteem includes self-respect, achievement, attention, recognition, self-worth, self-value, and reputation (McLeod, 2007). On the same subject matter of self-esteem, earlier Braden (1969) identified three vital components of self-esteem, showing that self-esteem (1) is a human need for our survival and normal healthy development; (2) arises from within us and it is based on our beliefs and self-consciousness; and, (3) occurs in conjunction with our thoughts, feelings, behavioral dispositions and activities. Hence, in teaching and learning we find that self-esteem is very important because it has great impact on teachers' and students' cognition, motivation to do things, emotion and behavioral attitudes (Baumeister, 2013).

In application to teaching and learning, if teachers and students see what they do deserves praise, then they have no self-esteem problems; but if they see that what they do is not worthy of praise or recognition, then they might have a low-esteem problem. Therefore, if as teachers we have positive self-esteem, we have strength and we are flexible in taking charge over what we do including running our own lives, and we are "growing from our mistakes without the fear of rejection" (www.ucdmc.ucdavis.edu); whereas, if we have low self-esteem the opposite is true in that we lack strength, we are rigid and dogmatic in our views, we do not grow from our mistakes, and we are afraid of rejection. How do positive and low self-esteem look like?

Positive Self-Esteem

If teachers, students, parents, administrators, and all of us, have a positive self-esteem, the following signs will be demonstrated:

- Confidence
- Self-direction
- Non-blaming behavior
- An awareness of personal strengths
- An ability to make mistakes and learn from them
- An ability to accept mistakes from others
- Optimism
- An ability to solve problems
- An independent and cooperative attitude
- Feeling comfortable with a wide range of emotions
- An ability to trust others
- A good sense of personal limitations
- Good self-care
- The ability to say no (www.ucdmc.ucdavis.edu).

Low Self-Esteem

If we have low self-esteem, we shall have these signs:

- Negative view of life
- Perfectionist attitude
- Mistrusting others even those who show signs of affection
- Blaming behavior
- Fear of taking risks
- Feelings of being unloved and unlovable
- Dependence letting others make decisions
- Fear of being ridiculed (www.ucdmc.ucdavis.edu).

Enhancing Teacher's Self-Esteem

How then can teachers enhance their own self-esteem? This is a vital question because if teachers want to gain or boost their self-esteem, they need to start with developing an attitude of accepting mistakes and planning on growing them. There is no way we can deny our mistakes and expect to grow! Enhancement of low self-esteem could be realized if teachers affirm the following:

- I respect myself and others
- I am lovable and likable
- I am confident, and it shows
- I care about myself
- I am creating loving, healthy relationships
- I am a good friend to myself and others
- I accept myself just as I am
- I look great
- Life is good, and I like being a part of it (www.ucdmc.ucdavis.edu).

Self-Esteem and Teacher Personality

In order to enhance their students' self-esteem and academic achievement, teachers should be engaged in unconditional teaching of all students. This is accepting students for who they really are without any strings attached; hence, this means teaching the whole student. The truth of the matter is that when students know that they are unconditionally accepted by their teachers, they are "more likely to be genuinely interested in learning and to enjoy challenging academic tasks" (Kohn, 2005; Makri-Botsari, 2001). Moreover, teachers concerned about the well being of their students in the processes of enhancing self-esteem and learning are adaptable, are enthusiastic, are fair, have high expectations for their students, have good humor, are patient, are responsible, are agreeable, are caring, are friendly, are honest, and are respectable (Gao, & Liu, 2013; Baumann, 2006-7; Zhang, 2007; Gao & Liu, 2012)

Teachers can examine the following areas in the process of embracing positive self-esteem in and outside the work place: desirable personal characteristics, communication, preferred teaching style, and everyday contacts.

Desirable Personal Characteristics

The desirable personal characteristics of a teacher would incorporate acceptance, genuineness, and empathy.

Acceptance

The concept of acceptance is best exemplified when teachers do not pass judgment on their students. They are not only judgmental to students, but teachers also accept their own students as they are (Kuhn, 2005; Makri-botsari, 2001). Hence, instead of condemning students a good teacher will compassionate, will care for all students, and, will inspire students by making learning fun (Cohen, Marion, & Morrison, 2004; Rogers, 1969).

Genuineness

In this case of genuineness, teachers are real, and they do not hide behind their teaching profession mask. Hence, they are not defensive, but spontaneous (Cohen, Marion, & Morrison, 2004; Rogers, 1969).

Empathy

In the area of empathy, teachers are appreciating what it feels like to be another person, and listening to feelings of other people (Cohen, Marion, & Morrison, 2004; Rogers, 1969). Good teachers will identify themselves with students in the way they treat them, understanding students when they do not comprehend the lesson, and being aware of what students are facing in real life situations in and outside the school learning environments (Feshbach & Feshbach, 2011). Empathy has been regarded "as an important aspect of teachers' professional preparation to teach in diverse school settings" (Warren, 2014).

Conclusion

Teachers are the axis of any educational system; the success and fall of the system rests largely on the quality of teachers. Teacher's quality is a composite factor and it affects the quality of teaching. These qualities include cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains pertaining to knowledge, attitude and skills of a teacher. Among these factors, the personality of a teacher affects the teaching learning process. In determining the personality, the sum characteristics that make up the behaviour of an individual, self esteem has a larger say.

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IMPETUS OF MULTIMEDIA

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Introduction

Information literacy skills include students' ability to retrieve, evaluate, manage and use information effectively and efficiently. Whereas there are multiple areas of information literacy, focus is made specifically on determining the extent of information needed, the first step in information literacy skill development. Studies employing the cognitive theory of multimedia learning assume significance as the foundation for information literacy instruction.

Multimedia

Multimedia can have a many definitions these include: Multimedia means that computer information can be represented through audio, video, and animation in addition to traditional media (i.e., text, graphics drawings, images).

Multimedia Characteristics

Multimedia presentations may be viewed by person on stage, projected, transmitted, or played locally with a media player. A broadcast may be a live or recorded multimedia presentation. Broadcasts and recordings can be either analog or digital electronic media technology. Digital online multimedia may be downloaded or streamed. Streaming multimedia may be live or on-demand.

Multimedia games and simulations may be used in a physical environment with special effects, with multiple users in an online network, or locally with an offline computer, game system, or simulator.

The various formats of technological or digital multimedia may be intended to enhance the users' experience, for example to make it easier and faster to convey information; Or in entertainment or art, to transcend everyday experience.

A laser show is a live multimedia performance: Enhanced levels of interactivity are made possible by combining multiple forms of media content. Online multimedia is increasingly becoming object-oriented and data-driven, enabling applications with collaborative end-user innovation and personalization on multiple forms of content over time. Examples of these range from multiple forms of content on Web sites like photo galleries with both images (pictures) and title (text) user-updated, to simulations whose co-efficient, events, illustrations, animations or videos are modifiable, allowing the multimedia "experience" to be altered without reprogramming. In addition to seeing and hearing, hap tic technology enables virtual objects to be felt. Emerging technology involving illusions of taste and smell may also enhance the multimedia experience.

A presentation using PowerPoint: Corporate presentations may combine all forms of media content. Virtual reality uses multimedia content: Applications and delivery platforms of multimedia are virtually limitless. Multimedia finds its application in various areas including, but not limited to, advertisements, art, education, entertainment, engineering, medicine, mathematics, business, scientific research and spatial temporal applications.

In education, multimedia is used to produce computer-based training courses (popularly called CBTs) and reference books like encyclopaedia and almanacs. A CBT lets the user go through a series of presentations, text about a particular topic, and associated illustrations in various information formats. Edutainment is the combination of education with entertainment, especially multimedia entertainment.

Learning theory in the past decade has expanded dramatically because of the introduction of multimedia. Several lines of research have evolved, e.g. cognitive load and multimedia learning.

From multimedia learning (MML) theory, David Roberts has developed a large group lecture practice using PowerPoint and based on the use of fullslide images in conjunction with a reduction of visible text (all text can be placed in the notes view' section of PowerPoint). The method has been applied and evaluated in 9 disciplines. In each experiment, students' engagement and active learning has been approximately 66% greater, than with the same material being delivered using bullet points, text and speech, corroborating a range of theories presented by multimedia learning scholars like Sweller and Mayer. The idea of media convergence is also becoming a major factor in education, particularly higher education. Defined as separate technologies such as voice (and telephony features), data (and productivity applications) and video that now share resources and interact with each other, media convergence is rapidly changing the curriculum in universities all over the world.

Software engineers may use multimedia in computer simulations for anything from entertainment to training such as military or industrial training. Multimedia for software interfaces are often done as collaboration between creative professionals and software engineers.

In mathematical and scientific research, multimedia is mainly used for modeling and simulation. For example, a scientist can look at a molecular model of a particular substance and manipulate it to arrive at a new substance. Representative research can be found in journals such as the Journal of Multimedia.

In medicine, doctors can get trained by looking at a virtual surgery or they can simulate how the human body is affected by diseases spread by viruses and bacteria and then develop techniques to prevent it. Multimedia applications such as virtual surgeries also help doctors to get practical training.

Conclusion

For learning to be successful, active processing must take place in working memory and individuals must earnestly engage in the tasks related to learning. According to Mayer, "knowledge is not a commodity that can be placed neatly in a learner's head, but rather it is the result of a learner's active sense-making," The integration of new knowledge into long-term memory occurs when a learner actively processes it in working memory.

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FLOW THEORY ON CREATIVITY

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Introduction

It is difficult to describe teenage art students' perceptions of their own creative experience, by analyzing students' descriptions of creativity revealing a flow state. Students realized a flow state within the creative process and expanded their own awareness, thus becoming conscious of the experience. It is to be explored whether a flow state was apparent during the creative process for the Art students.

Creativity

Creativity is an elusive cognitive process. Although creativity is essential for positive social change in art pedagogy, as an educator it is a difficult process to define let alone foster. Harding (2010) argued that "creativity and change are inexplicably linked, because a shared aspect of humanity that motivates change inspires creativity". In Harding's study, the multiple relationships between creativity, cognition, and change referred to the creative-cognitive domain within visual arts pedagogy. By thinking creatively, a person is becoming more imaginative and is more likely to generate alternative and unique solutions to many of our complex challenges facing the world today. Creativity is seen in every discipline, and is theorized in many studies, inclusive of this study, as its own discipline or domain linked closely with cognition. Creativity is complex and at times mysterious. Harding suggested that when studying creativity "it is wise to be humbled before it".

An historical perspective is necessary to understand creativity and contemporary art practices, and contributed to the foundation of this study. Gardner (1985, 1999), Amabile (1996), and Eisner (2002) defined and described creativity within both qualitative and quantitative approaches. One common aspect of these four studies was their

association of creativity with intrinsic motivation. Other key concepts linked to creativity that were important in the literature review include traits, openness to experience, originality, and existential intelligence.

Gardner (1999) added a new dimension to his theory of multiple intelligences (MI) by proposing a new level called existential intelligence. This proposed ninth level of intelligence presents a new way of understanding creativity. Roberts (2010) aligned this conception of existential intelligence with creativity and imagination as "of being instead of doing". One debatable issue is the level of subjectivity associated with conceptualizing this existential intelligence. A point of argument is that existentialism involves both personal and subjective understandings of the essence of meaning. In other words, existential intelligence rejects objectivity and is only one vantage point when trying to understand and describe the human thought process associated with creativity. Gardner (1998) described existential intelligence as the ability to solve problems that ultimately have value within a society. Finding the ultimate meaning can be understood through an exploration of individuals' experiences with creativity.

Eisner (2002a) re-framed the conception of how creativity and the arts evoke a new relevancy for educational reform by suggesting a focus be placed on creativity. Focusing on the arts does not necessarily mean that the highest level of creativity is seen in the arts for it can be seen in engineering, teaching, as well as the medical profession. The connection established between the way teaching supports creative thinking is what helps students engage in creating and ultimately valuing their ideas and examining alternative possibilities in the mind. Eisner posited that teaching to engage learners on a creative level, will help students develop multiple ideas to a variety of problems. Eisner further stated that a range of personalized sensibilities and skills that promote creativity resulted in the feeling of great satisfaction.

To contribute to society, creative solutions and products must go beyond sensory levels of awareness into what Eisner (2002b) called representation. Representation is considered a cognitive function. Eisner suggested that representation begins with the realization of a new idea occurring in your imagination. Within representation is the ability to edit. Much like in writing, the visual arts pays close attention to relationships, metaphors, and details to communicate ideas. Allowing students the time to edit creative ideas and to make them real requires educational reform efforts that promote "self-initiated learning" (Eisner, p. 379).

Amabile (1996) proposed a hypothesis of creativity called the componential theory that is directly tied to intrinsic motivation. Amabile posited that intentionality is key to motivating creativity. The componential theory is a model for creativity that includes both social and psychological aspects, hence intrinsic motivation helped individuals produce creative solutions. Jaquith (2011) defined intrinsic motivation as an "individual's positive reaction to qualities of the task itself" (p. 15). People, who are interested in pursuing a complex task independent from any sort of external reward, tend to exhibit higher executive functions associated with cognitive processing directly aligned with divergent thinking. Applying the componential theory to examining creativity also initiated debate about divergent and convergent thinking.

Traditionally, convergent thinking was associated with intelligence and focused on generating the right answer whereas divergent thinking is associated with creativity thereby presenting many potential answers to a problem. Many tests have been designed to differentiate convergent and divergent thinking skills, for example Guilford's Structure of Intellect Model (Guilford, 1967), the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (Torrance, 1974), and Wallach-Kogan's Creativity tests (Wallach & Kogan, 1965). These creativity psychologists and educational professionals would agree that differentiating these two ways of thinking to predict intelligence and creativity is not accurate. Differentiating convergent and divergent thinking does not reveal an accurate representation of these two realms.

Contemporary researchers such as Sawyer (2006) argued, "creative achievement requires a complex combination of both divergent and convergent thinking, and creative people are good at switching back and forth" between these two modes of thinking (p. 15).

Many characteristics that are associated with divergent thinking and accessing creativity include uniqueness and the ability to produce multiple solutions. Originality was also described when an idea was creative. Sternberg, Grigorenko, & Singer (2004) affirmed, "original behavior has value" (p. 60). Art educators might need to examine how teenage students describe, phenomenologically, what their experiences are with creativity.

To study the phenomenon of creativity, Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) flow theory might provide a structure to further examine high school teenager's experiences with creativity and to further develop the creative-cognitive domain in art education. Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) flow theory established the conceptual framework of this phenomenological study. A flow state is an elevated heightened awareness that produces optimal happiness and combines both physiological and psychological awareness. This is the manifestation of the flow experience.

He argued that a flow experience, or state, provided individuals with a heightened sense of awareness that allowed them to fully immerse themselves in the task or activity at hand. It is a complex and rewarding experience building on pure pleasure and full attention. The flow state has not been fully recognized in the visual arts and very little research has been done to examine the potential transformative nature of this theory. A gap in art education research will be demonstrated in this chapter to build a relationship between: the complexity of creativity, creative self-efficacy, and intrinsic motivation through an understanding of flow theory and cognitive structures, also known as higher level executive functioning (Delis, Houston, Wetter, Han, Jacobson, Holdnack, & Kramer, 2007).

Flow theory is revealed in many fields such as, dance, music, sports and business. Looking at how this theory is connected to high school teenagers'

experience within the visual arts enabled me to ascertain whether there was a stronger link for establishing transformative educational methods in the art studio classroom. Getting at the root of creativity would seem to involve a clear connection between cognitive structures as it related to aesthetics.

Conclusion

Creativity is the complex combination of divergent and convergent thinking that helped teenage students establishes a pathway toward creativity. Creative individuals adapted to difficult and new forms of knowledge, like the use of technology, without a heightened sense of anxiety. This creative process is part of an evolving biological process, one that is directly tied to self directed learning, hence a means of intrinsic motivation.

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RURAL STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PROBLEMS

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Introduction

Education is the aggregate of all process by means of which a person develops ability activities and other forms of behaviors of positive value in the society in which he lives. Education may be defined as a systematic process of determining the extent to which instructional objectives are achieved by public. Education is an essential factor in organization of living state. Plato says that education produces good men to at nobly. The proper education consists of four things virtue, wisdom, breeding and learning. In this statement is to be found the heart of Locke's educational theory.

Education for Rural Students

Majority of India still lives in villages and so the topic of rural education in India is of utmost importance. A survey named called the Annual Status of Education Report (ASER), shows that even though the number of rural students attending schools is rising, but more than half of the students in fifth grade are unable to read a second grade text book and are not able to solve simple mathematical problems. Not only this, the level of Mathematics and reading is further declining. Though efforts are being made, they are not in the right direction. The reasons cited for this problem in surveys are discussed here.

Mostly rural children remain less motivated, lack enthusiasm, initiative and are exposed to non-conducive home climate with less aspiration, low achievement and over dependence. These learners have problems related to psychological, personal, economical and social spheres. A good education is almost a sure guarantee of empowerment. When a person is educated, he moves freely and confidently in the society. That individual has the hope of finding a job and confident that he can cope with the problems that are to be faced.

Problems Encountered by Rural Students

The reasons for the poor quality of education in rural students may be attributed to the increasing number of single classroom to educate students from more than one grade. In some states attendance of teachers and students is also declining. These are a few reasons why schools have failed to educate rural India.

Quality and access to education is the major concern in rural schools as there are fewer committed teachers, lack of proper text books and learning material in the schools. Though Government schools exist, but when compared to private schools their quality is a major issue. Majority of people living in villages have understood the importance of education and know that it is the only way to get rid of poverty. But due to lack of money they are not able to send their children to private schools and hence depend upon government schools for education. Above that, in some of the government schools there is only one teacher for the entire school and if they don't show up at work, then it is a holiday. If the quality along with number of teachers and, those too committed teachers, can be improved in these schools, then aspiring rural children and India can fulfill their dreams of doing something great.

Some government schools in rural India are overly packed with students, leading to a distorted teacher- student ratio. In one such remote village in Arunachal Pradesh there are more than 300 students in class X which makes nearly 100 students in each classroom. In such a situation it is impossible for teachers to pay full attention towards each and every student, even if they are willing to help.

Every village is not provided with school which means that students have to go to another village to get education. Owing to this parents usually do not send their daughters to school, leading to a failure in achieving rural education in India.

Poverty is another setback. Government schools are not as good and private schools are expensive. This results in a very low number of students actually clearing their secondary education and taking admission

in colleges for further studies. So the drop-out-rate at the secondary level is extremely high in villages. Only parents who can afford college education send their kids to secondary schools. If parents are not able to send their wards for higher education then all their previous efforts get wasted as completing just secondary education means a low paying job and the person is again struck in the same never ending cycle of money, life and poverty.

Most textbooks are in English and since people in rural areas either speak their native language or Hindi, but not English that defeats the purpose. This results in lack of their interest in studies. Though some of the students from villages are really brilliant, as they have a wealth of practical knowledge and know how to survive even in very harsh conditions of life, difficultly in understanding their textbooks, lack of facilities and their poverty are a hurdle in their education.

Quality related issues are far powerful than poverty. Students are not at all encouraged to think but they are asked to memorize pre-defined questions for exams. So for many students clearing examination at the end of the session, passing their exam becomes more important than gaining knowledge. Also as per the new CBSE rule, every student is supposed to be promoted to the next class irrespective of marks in their examination. Hence majority of students do not bother to study, which means a decline in their education level . Neither students nor teachers take any interest in studies which is why the level of education is declining in India despite many efforts.

There is a difference between city and village student not in terms of brain or development but their initial environment, skills, learning ability, availability of infrastructure, and access to different facilities. All of these must be considered while making the curricula which should not be different but how it is going to be taught would make the difference. Encourage the genuine rural students who are interested in education and make them competent.

In the given context, any individual or a student, especially a rural folk, has to practice aspects such as Interpersonal Relationship, Self-Confidence, Communication Skill, Educational Technology etc in order to face the society and lead a successful life.

Conclusion

The foundation to turn India into a strong nation has to be laid down at primary and rural levels and so the quality of education right from the beginning should be excellent. Education and text books should be made interesting. For rural students textbooks related to their culture, their traditions and values should also be there so as to create their interest in studies. The reasons behind so many drop-outs in spite of free education should be found out as this is a hurdle on the road to progress. Improvement in the condition of government schools, education quality, committed teachers and more salaries to these teachers should be part of development.

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CLASSROOM INTERACTION

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Introduction

It is the expectation of the school which makes every teacher first learn how to maintain classroom discipline before talking about the students' academic needs. It is fact that no teacher can effectively teach and make students learn in an ineffective environment. Classroom Interaction has a significant role in the effectiveness of the whole teaching-Learning process.

Classroom Interaction

'Working in large and highly heterogeneous classes a language teacher often faces problems whose answers are not readily available in the do's and don'ts of any known method of teaching. He must look elsewhere for ways that can help him engage every pupil's attention. However, even when he does so, fie often experiences varying degrees of success or failure. Some questions need to be addressed in trying to understand what happens and why:

- 1. What do experienced teachers do to maximize the value of their- inputs or interventions?
- 2. What accounts for differences in their success rates?

In seeking answers to 1) and 2) above we first of all need to know what goes on in a classroom. One way to gain that knowledge is by a careful study of the interaction that takes place in it. Looked at thus, much of what happens in a productive class hour can be captured under the following heads:

- The teacher interacts with the whole class.
- The teacher interacts with a group, a pair or an individual pupil.
- Pupils interact with each other: in groups, in pairs, as individuals or as a class.

- Pupils work with materials or aids and attempt tasks once again individually, in groups and so on.
- Pupils work on their own with or without teacher's guidance.

Some other forms of classroom interaction that form part of observed common knowledge among experienced teachers are as follows:

- The teacher demands chorus responses, drills, repetitions.
- Groups or pairs can sometimes work in competition or are sometimes happier working in cooperation.
- (Adult) learners choose their own learning tasks or materials and work more or less independently. This is called self-access learning.
- Pupils are facilitated or encouraged to ask questions or raise problems to which the teacher or other pupils give or find answers.

Basic Tools and Techniques of Classroom Interaction

- a. Questions
- b. Explanations
- c. Instruction's
- d. Pair and group work

Interaction analysis

The basis of the 'interaction analysis' tradition, established with Flanders' categories of description for classroom verbal behaviour (1970), is to look at classroom language to see what it can reveal about the teaching and learning processes. Use of language is, after all, highly observable, whereas learning is not.

Moreover, in Western culture at least, language is widely used for pedagogic purposes. Talking is almost equated with teaching in many situations. There is, therefore, a large amount of language use to observe, particularly on the teacher's part.

There are in existence many hundreds of classroom observation instruments in this tradition. All of them are essentially adaptations, extensions, or simplifications of Flander's original categories. These

comprise two main categories, teacher talk, with a third category to cover other types of verbal behaviour, or lack of it.

Here are the ten original Flander's Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC). Study them to see what they can tell the observer about the communication going on in any classroom in terms of the who, why, what, and how outlined above. Also, what aspects of classroom communication will they fail to reveal?

Teacher talk

- 1. Accepts feeling: Accepts and clarifies an attitude or the feelings tone of a pupil in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting and recalling feelings are included.
- 2. Praises or encourages: Praises or encourages pupil action or behaviour. Makes jokes that release tension, but not at the expense of another individual. Nodding head or saying 'Umhm?' or 'Go on' are included.
- 3. Accepts or uses ideas of pupils: Clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a pupil. Teacher extensions of pupil ideas are included, but as the teacher brings more of his or her own ideas into play, shift to category five.
- 4. Asks questions: Asking a question about content or procedure, based on teacher ideas, with the intent that a pupil will answer.
- 5. Lecturing: Giving facts or opinions about content or procedures; expressing own ideas, giving own explanation, or citing an authority other than a pupil.
- 6. Giving directions: Directions, commands, or orders with which a pupil is expected to comply.
- 7. Criticizing or justifying authority: Statements intended to change pupil behaviour from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern; bawling someone out; stating why the teacher is doing what he or she is doing; extreme self-reference.

Pupil talk

- 8. Pupil talk: response: Talk by pupils in response to teacher. Teacher initiates the contact, or solicits pupil statement, or structures the situation. Freedom to express own ideas is limited.
- 9. Pupil talk: initiation: Talk by pupils which they initiate. Expressing own ideas; initiating a new topic; freedom to develop opinions and a line of thought, like asking thoughtful questions; going beyond the existing structure.

Silence

10. Silence or confusion: Pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

Conclusion

As teachers, we must face challenges and overcome our fears of trying something new. Ultimately, we will be surprised to note how these strategies have helped our students. With each new class, the teacher must focus on classroom dynamics from the very first session, which will help in retaining the attention of students and the student's academic achievement will also rise. Thus, in my view the stress on classroom dynamics is essential for the learning and teaching process. As it has been rightly said, Education keeps evolving and every student learns differently. It is up to the teachers to keep the students engaged in the classroom.

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