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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

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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 2). 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 The remaining unpublished articles are to be published in the forthcoming Issues.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

CONTENTS

ACADEMIC MOTIVATION

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Introduction

The motivational aspects of learning and education play a significant role in both students' and teachers' daily experiences in the classroom. Students arrive at school with innate traits and prior experiences that influence their motivation towards learning and achievement. Teachers, as well, have innate traits and prior experiences influencing their teaching style and classroom behaviors. Through interactions and prior experiences, both teachers and students develop perceptions regarding motivation.

Academic Motivation

Motivation in education can be summarized as a student's willingness to undertake and persist in challenging tasks, seek help, and endeavor to perform in school (Meece, Anderman, & Anderman, 2006). The question of how to motivate students in school is one that has been frequently posed but has proved challenging to answer. Motivational research provides an understanding of the factors influencing motivation but the application of these factors within the classroom is linked to teacher beliefs and perceptions surrounding motivation (Hardre & Hennessey, 2013). Thus, an understanding of these beliefs and perceptions and how they relate to strategies and motivating behaviors is necessary to understand student motivation. Several Motivational Theories have been practiced world over viz.,

- Attribution Theory
- Self-efficacy Theory
- Expectancy-Value theory
- Self/Implicit Theories
- Achievement Goal Theory
- Self-determination Theory

Attribution theory focuses on the causes students attribute for the outcomes they experience. This theory proposes motivation to be heavily influenced by these attributions. Students adopt beliefs based on these attributions, and teachers make decisions based on their own attributions for student outcomes. As such, both student and teacher attributions have implications for education (Graham & Williams, 2009).

According to Bandura (1997), **Self-efficacy** is the confidence one has in one's ability to plan and execute a course of action, to accomplish a task, or to solve a problem. Students develop self-efficacy through interaction with their environment and teachers and classrooms play a significant role in this development. This theory postulates feelings of self-efficacy have strong influences on student motivation through the choices students make and the goals they adopt (Schunk & Meece, 2006).

Expectancy-value theory proposes two sets of beliefs to most influence motivation. The first is the individual's expectation for task success, and the second is the value the individual attaches both to that task and to the other available options. Research on motivation using this model indeed found task engagement and academic achievement to be best predicted by a student's expectation for success and the value he or she places on that success (Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998).

The terms **Self-theory and Implicit theory** are used interchangeably in the research to reflect one's belief regarding the malleability of intelligence. Student beliefs and perceptions regarding the malleability of intelligence play a significant role in task engagement, responses to failure, and adoption of achievement goals. Research has shown teacher practices to exhibit strong influence over these beliefs (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007).

Goal theory suggests students are motivated either to master or learn for the sake of learning (mastery goal) or to perform to a standard or attain a goal (performance goal; Meece et al., 2006). Goal theory is relevant to teacher practice as classrooms structures can be described in terms of

their adaptation of mastery and performance goals, which, in turn, influence the motivational goals of the students (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002). Students' perceptions that their teachers believe they can learn have been positively related to the adaptation of mastery and performance goals (Gilbert et al, 2013). These findings suggest that promoting feelings of competence in students supports the adaptation of motivational goals.

Competence is an aspect of self-determination theory (SDT) proposes that motivation is promoted through autonomy, competency and relatedness. Style of instruction can range from more controlling to autonomy supporting and these styles can have a significant influence on student motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Students who perceive their teacher to support their need for autonomy are more engaged in their learning compared to students who do not believe their autonomy is supported (Jang, Kim, & Reeve, 2012). Further, autonomy-supportive behaviors towards students coincide with increased feelings of competence and autonomy and decreased levels of dropping out of high school. In addition to perceived teacher support for autonomy, relatedness in the classroom is associated with increased motivation (Danielson, Wiium, Wilhelmsen, & Wold, 2010). With the development of feelings of competency, or incompetency, comes the expectation for outcomes on certain tasks. Expectancy-value theory is focused on the role those expectations play in motivation.

Student expectancies and task values are influenced by their own perceptions of their competency relative to the difficulty of the task, their own goals, and their affective memories for similar tasks. These competency-related beliefs, goals and affective memories are influenced by students' previous experiences, their expectations for themselves and the expectations of others (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010). Teachers influence these expectancies through their impact on competency-related beliefs, setting up expectations and creating environments supporting a variety of affective experiences.

Task values are multifaceted, but one aspect, utility value, or how a task fits into ones' future plans (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992), is relevant to education, as students report connecting instruction to what is important to them as a desirable motivating strategy (Anderman, Andrzejewski, & Allen, 2011). Another aspect of task value is attainment value, or how important the task is to attain. Attainment value is connected to identity and feelings of self-worth, as actions that are aligned with goals and maintaining self-worth allows individuals to confirm or express certain aspects of self (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010).

In school, students make decisions regarding the value of tasks in relation to how engaging with them will enhance or diminish their self-worth. A student's level of self-efficacy for the task has profound effects on his or her choices in this area (Bandura, 1997a). Further, a student's self-efficacy beliefs have a significant impact on learning (Yusuf, 2011). However, Diseth (2011) found achievement predicted self-efficacy in students, and Zimmerman (1999) found self-efficacy to be susceptible to subtle changes in academic performance, supporting the role school plays in the development of self-efficacy.

Conclusion

Beliefs surrounding both the malleability of a situation (Reeve, 1996) and the need to intervene for change to occur are linked to the effort an individual will invest towards change. Further, when faced with limited time and resources, individuals choose how best to expend those resources based on the importance of the task and the likelihood of success. In the classroom, teachers will invest in motivating behaviors if they believe student motivation to be malleable, that is changeable under their influence. Conversely, teachers are less likely to invest energy to change what they perceive as transient meaning likely to change on its own. It stands to reason that an enhanced understanding of what teachers know regarding motivation and how teacher perceptions influence the implementation of motivational strategies would inform future teaching practice and professional development in the area of student motivation.

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FRUSTRATION & RECOVERY

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Introduction

We all experience frustration each and every day. It is a seemingly and often times inevitable emotion that evokes negative emotions, leaves us in rumination, and ultimately, cuts in our time for the worse. Let us discuss the nature of frustration, how to deal with it, and the applications for one's life.

Frustration

Life is full of frustrations. From the minor irritations of losing your car keys to the major anxieties of continued failure towards a goal, frustration is not a pleasant emotion in any magnitude. Because of the unpleasantness of this emotion, people will often avoid anything that might lead to it. Unfortunately, many of the things we truly want to experience such as triumph, joy, victory and purpose require a great deal of frustration. Being able to manage frustrations allows us to remain happy and positive even in trying circumstances.

In order to successfully manage frustration, you need to first understand what causes it. Frustration is simply caused whenever the results you are experiencing do not seem to fit the effort and action you are applying. Frustration will occur whenever your actions are producing less and fewer results than you think they should. This is a very simple fact, but it is an important step to solving frustrating problems.

Frustration is Energy Consuming

Our energy as human beings is our primary currency we use to do anything. Physical, mental, emotional and spiritual energies all fuel discipline, creativity, courage and motivation. Anthony Robbins includes energy as the first key to success in any area of life. Stress in excessive

doses is a negative emotional state that weakens the immune system and raises blood pressure is the direct result from a lack of energy. When we run out of energy we become useless.

Frustrating problems are incredibly energy consuming. Because these problems consume our energy in such great quantities, we need to be extremely careful that we don't try to keep running with an empty energy reserve. When this happens we burnout and require a long time to recover. The initial reaction of most people is to work harder when they encounter frustration. Although the intention to work harder makes sense, it often results in trying to spend more energy than we have available.

Why are frustrating problems more energy consuming than normal tasks? The answer to this is relatively simple. Because your action is not producing the results you expect, your brain naturally goes into full gear, rapidly consuming mental energy to solve the problem at hand. In this time it is very easy to run out of energy. When your energy stores are depleted this is when you become irritable, tired, stressed and sometimes even angry.

Recovery from Frustration

Take Breaks

Taking breaks to recover energy is critical when working to solve a frustrating problem. Use your emotional state as a guide to determine your current energy levels. If you are starting to feel really frustrated and stressed, take a short break before continuing. Continuing to work without energy completely reduces your effectiveness and greatly increases your chance of burnout.

Reward Action Not Just Results

Your environment is only going to reward your results not your actions. You won't earn a million dollars or have a great body just because you "tried hard". Unfortunately this is exactly what causes frustrating problems in the first place. Because your actions are not producing results, your

environment is not rewarding you for taking action. In this case you need to reward yourself for taking action, even if it wasn't fruitful.

Rewarding yourself doesn't have to be something tangible. Just giving yourself a pat on the back for good effort is a reward. By rewarding yourself even when your environment doesn't support you, you can help reduce the destructive and negative emotions you experience. Frustrating problems drain energy, but so does the simple emotion of frustration. By reducing the emotion of frustration you can help reclaim some of that energy and you can do that by rewarding your actions.

Get Perspective

Most of the problems you get frustrated with will not be of major consequence in the long run. My computer problems certainly weren't and most of the time you feel frustrated it will be from something fairly inconsequential and minor. Getting some perspective about the problem can allow you to keep your mind level when dealing with it. Of course this is really easier said than done. Usually frustration is caused by a narrow focus on a problem that isn't resolving itself as you had hoped.

To get a little perspective on your issue, try broadening your focus from your current problem outwards. Try thinking about how the problem looks when you view it from a few weeks from now, a year, ten years or your lifetime?

Go outside and look up at the sky. Viewing the incredible expanse of space and time will ultimately make your problems look very small indeed. Even if this practice won't solve your problem it will significantly reduce your frustration. Getting perspective about a problem is critical to put your mind into a state where it can be solved. Getting perspective when you are frustrated isn't a particularly difficult practice, the only difficulty is in remembering to do it. I don't have any suggestions for remembering to get some perspective when your focus becomes too narrow and you become frustrated, it has to just be a habit. When you get used to temporarily changing your focus and perspective to regain stability, it happens automatically.

In many cases we have minimal control over the situation or our temperament, so managing our emotional response is key to coping with the frustrating event. Frustration is generally proportional in context with other people. This can be dependent upon whether things seem to be fair relative to others, whether others are also frustrated, or whether someone feels singled out.

Similarly, frustration is often related to the amount of control that someone feels they have in the situation. If there is little sense of control, the person usually feels powerless to change the situation. This is also a common source of stress.

Frustration is cumulative. Tolerance to frustrating situations increases or decreases based on preceding incidences. If someone has had to deal with several frustrating situations, the next small frustration may put them over the edge, even when the last obstacle would not have bothered them in an isolated instance

It takes minutes, hours, or days for the body to recover from a stressful event. The recovery time is dependent upon the obstacle and level of frustration (i.e., the individual's response to the event). Recovery is facilitated by removing the person from the frustrating environment.

Conclusion

Nobody likes to feel frustrated. Unfortunately, frustrations are part of life. Learn to manage your frustrations so they don't leave you stressed, burned-out or depressed. Take breaks from your frustrations to recover your mental and creative energies. Reward your actions, not just your results and remember to gain a little perspective when you begin to feel overwhelmed. Don't let your frustrations prevent you from setting goals and living your life to the maximum.

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PROGRAMMED LEARNING APPROACH

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Introduction

New methods and techniques in education are having an increasing effect on the traditional approach to teaching and learning. Among the new approaches and innovations that have gained great acceptance in recent years is Programmed Learning.

Programmed Learning

Recent research has focused on the motivation of students, in addition to student attributes on success in programming. Although several factors that affect learning to program have been identified over the years, there continues to be no indication of any consensus in understanding why some students learn to program easily and quickly while others have difficulty. Seldom have researchers considered the problem of how to help the students to enhance the programming learning outcome.

Programming is the core in the computer course of seniors. Nominal performance progress amongst many students on programming evaluations is an issue discussed at length with colleagues. Accepted agreements for improvement consequently draw attention to the assigning of more programming problems as homework, in addition to actively providing immediate and constructive advice. For the schools educators, attention is also needed for critical issues in regard to plagiarism, which necessities dealing with it in a resolute and unyielding manner.

Practice is one of the most important steps in learning the art of computer programming and many researchers have explicitly noted that timely and appropriate assessment is fundamental to learning. Unfortunately, evaluation of programming assignments is a tedious and error-prone undertaking, a problem compounded by commonly

encountered large class sizes. As a consequence, students in such courses have a propensity to be assigned fewer programming assignments than should be idyllically completed. Given these institutional and class management limitations, decision has been to automate the homework grading process. This allows for students to electronically submit programming assignments and receive instantaneous feedback.

As anticipated, some well-known problems with the system have been encountered, which has caused a considerable number of users to be removed. Consequently, as it has been determined that this particular system should be upgraded to a more sophisticated evaluation method. Due to the scarcity in the literature and the importance within the educational programming environment, there is a commitment here to better shed light on what attributes and attitudes students possess that leads to the ability to, without undo difficulty, learn programming, and how this understanding can aid the overall student population.

Types of Programmed Learning

- Linear Programming
- Branched Programming
- Mathetics

Linear Programming

This was developed by B.F. Skinner and his associates. In this method the subject material will be divided into very small steps each of which is called as frame. In each frame, the students have to do something. After giving the response the students immediately can check whether his answer in correct or wrong.

Branching Programming

This was developed by Norman A. Crowder (1960) and it was called as intrinsic programme. In this method the subject should select the answer for the question (Objective Type). If subject's answer is correct he will lead to the next frame. If subject's answer is wrong he will lead to the remedial frame. After the remedial frame he will directed to the main frame.

Mathetics

Thomas F. Gilbert developed the mathetics style. In this style a consistent pattern of trios – demonstration phase, prompted phase and release phase. In the first exercise, the learner is demonstrated the response. In the second exercise, the learner is required to emit the response with help of prompts and in the third exercise responses came without prompts.

Conclusion

Man is greatly dependent on science and technology. This is because the future hope for a better scientifically and technologically developed country lies in science education not only for attainment of paper qualification but to aid them adjust to such technological devices as may affect their daily lives. It is time's demand that education should be provided to all kind of students of the country and no student should be deprived from the benefits of it. Programmed Learning plays a significant role in this direction.

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MIND MAPPING: AN OVERVIEW

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Introduction

In recent years, academics and educators have begun to use software mapping tools for a number of education-related purposes. Typically, the tools are used to help impart critical and analytical skills to students, to enable students to see relationships between concepts, and also as a method of assessment. The common feature of all these tools is the use of diagrammatic relationships of various kinds in preference to written or verbal descriptions. Pictures and structured diagrams are thought to be more comprehensible than just words, and a clearer way to illustrate understanding of complex topics. One such mapping tool is mind mapping

Mapping Tools

The over-riding aim of all mapping tools is similar. If students can represent or manipulate a complex set of relationships in a diagram, they are more likely to understand those relationships, remember them, and be able to analyse their component parts. This, in turn, promotes “deep” and not “surface” approaches to learning. Secondly, maps are also much easier to follow than verbal or written descriptions. Thirdly, maps utilise the often under-utilised parts of the brain associated with visual imagery. This enables more processing power to be used, hence leads to a greater capacity for learning. Finally, the work involved in map-making requires more active engagement on the part of the learner, and this too leads to greater learning.

There is empirical support for the use of mapping tools in enhancing, retaining and improving knowledge. Evidence from the cognitive sciences shows that visual displays do enhance learning. Maps allow the separate encoding of information in memory in visual and well as propositional form, a phenomenon called “conjoint retention” or “dual coding”. In the

former hypothesis, representations are encoded as separate intact units; in the latter, visual representations are synchronously organised and processed simultaneously and verbal representations are hierarchically organised and serially processed.

Mind Mapping

Mind mapping (or "idea" mapping) has been defined as 'visual, *non-linear* representations of ideas and their relationships' (Biktimirov & Nilson, 2006). Mind maps comprise a network of connected and related concepts. However, in mind mapping, any idea can be connected to any other. Freeform, spontaneous thinking is required when creating a mind map, and the aim of mind mapping is to find creative associations between ideas. Thus, mind maps are principally *association* maps.

Formal mind mapping techniques arguably began with Buzan (Buzan, 1974; Buzan & Buzan, 2000). These techniques involved using line thicknesses, colours, pictures and diagrams to aid knowledge recollection. Buzan makes the following recommendations when mind mapping.

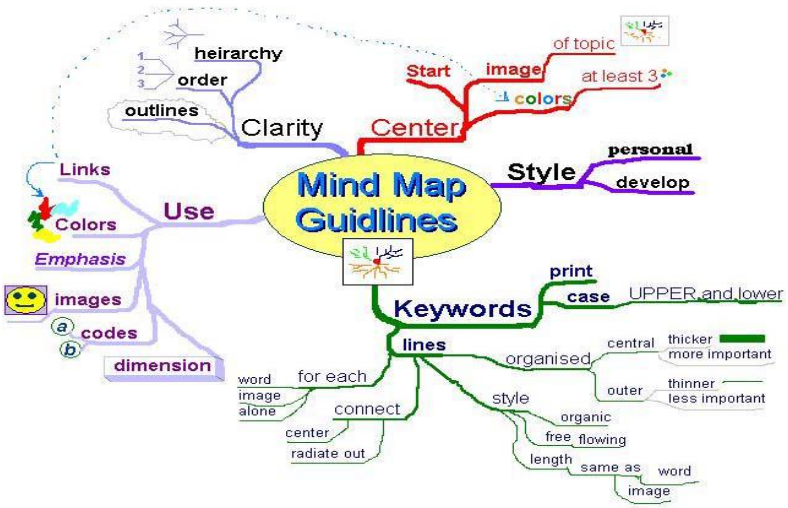
- Place an image or topic in the centre using at least 3 colours
- Use images, symbols, codes, and dimensions throughout your Mind Map.
- Select key words and print using upper or lower case letters.
- Each word/image is alone and sitting on its own line.
- Connect the lines starting from the central image. The central lines are thicker, organic and flowing, becoming thinner as they radiate out from the centre.
- Make the lines the same length as the word/image.
- Use colours—your own code—throughout the Mind Map.
- Develop your own personal style of Mind Mapping.
- Use emphasis and show associations in your Mind Map.
- Keep the Mind Map clear by using *radial hierarchy*, numerical order or outlines to embrace your branches.

The main use of mind mapping is to create an association of ideas. However, another use is for memory retention—even if the advantages in the case of mind mapping might be marginal (P. Farrand, F. Hussain, & E. Hennessy, 2002). It is easier to remember a diagram than to remember a description. However, there have been suggestions that content is more central to learning than format (Pressley, Van Etten, Yokoi, Freebern, & VanMeter, 1998)

Mind mapping has been used in a variety of disciplines, including Finance, Economics, Marketing, Executive Education, Optometry and Medicine. It is also widely used in professions such as Fine Art and Design, Advertising and Public Relations.

An example of a mind map on the topic of *mind mapping guidelines* is given below ("Mind Map," 2007).

Diagram: A Mind Map



The advantages of mind mapping include its “free-form” and unconstrained structure. There are no limits on the number of ideas and links that can be made, and there is no necessity to retain an ideal structure or format. Mind mapping thus promotes creative thinking, and encourages “brainstorming”. A disadvantage of mind mapping is that the types of links being made may be limited to simple associations. Absence of clear links between ideas is also a constraint. Mind mapping is limited in

dealing with more complex relationships. For example, mind mapping might be useful to brainstorm the things that need to be packed prior to a holiday, or the major issues a company needs to focus on in the forthcoming financial year, however, it is hard to see it being as useful for something more complex, e.g., the causes and effects of the Asian currency crisis. More complex topics require more than an associational tool, they require relational analysis. The tool of concept mapping has been developed to address these limitations of mind mapping.

Conclusion

There are sound reasons to consider Mind-mapping as a supplement to other teaching and learning activities. Mind mapping tools may well be converging to offer educators as yet unrealised and potentially complementary functions. This development provides new teaching and learning tools and techniques for both students and teachers that will enrich and provide new directions in education in the future.

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CLASSROOM DYNAMICS

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Introduction

We are always interested in how well our students conduct themselves and how well they can work with each other. It is this expectation of the school which makes every teacher first learn how to maintain classroom discipline before talking about the students' academic needs. It is facts that no teacher can effectively teach and make students learn in an ineffective environment. 'It is the Teacher who makes the difference not the classroom; the dynamics that is managed by the teacher plays a vital role'.

Classroom Dynamics

Today's classrooms are filled with diverse learners with varying needs. Nowadays many new teachers and even some experienced ones find it extremely difficult to maintain discipline in their classrooms by following the traditional methods of teaching. Hence we must encourage teamwork, communication skills and use of technology to enhance students' learning.

Teachers play various roles in a classroom, but the most important role is that of a classroom manager. If teachers have to perform well, they have to understand class room dynamics. Class room dynamics includes student behaviour, emotions and imagination. It also includes teacher's ways of presenting academic materials and student interactions. It helps in creating a positive class room culture.

Effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom. Well-managed classrooms provide an environment in which teaching and learning can take place successfully; but it takes a lot of effort to create a well-managed classroom and it doesn't just happen on its own. The person who is responsible for creating such a classroom is the teacher.

Teachers can have a major impact on student achievement. The three major roles of the teacher are:

- Choosing the right instructional methods,
- Designing curriculum,
- Using effective classroom management techniques

The most important characteristic of a good class is not how hard the students work, but how well they work in groups. This is classroom dynamics. It is about the way the people within a class interact with each other. It is how they talk and how they act; it is how they express their feelings and opinions that matters.

If we have to become better teachers, we need to understand classroom dynamics. Classroom dynamics means building of a classroom community and the creation of an active classroom culture. I believe that class room dynamics is helping students to develop skills in working together and creating an atmosphere in the classroom where students are encouraged to take risks.

The easiest and most appropriate way of boosting classroom dynamics is to make sure that the students have no time to feel bored and instead they enjoy the classes. We can offer a balanced learning environment by adopting a few simple strategies and introducing them as part of our teaching routine.

Improving Classroom Dynamics

Activity Centred

Classroom dynamics mean that students are kept busy with productive activities and projects and there is no time for boredom. It does not mean that the teacher must use more materials, but she/he must simply keep the students absorbed with activities. The more interesting and challenging these activities are, the more absorbing the lesson will be for the students.

Encourages Self Learning

A vibrant classroom that offers different ways to cover a topic will always be more effective and appealing. If you introduce a range of teaching techniques such as experiential learning, digital learning or group work, it will make the students learn more. Such approaches will help to engage students and make learning more meaningful and interesting.

Independent Learning Style

The majority of student learning happens within the classroom. However, it's up to the teacher to manage and engage the learners by using various learning styles. Students learn best through interaction and inquiry. Some students learn by moving around, others by working in teams. A dynamic classroom enables the students to move around freely while being engaged in a creative project. All of them have special talents and interests which they should be able to explore and use during classes. Offering a dynamic environment will certainly help them to achieve this.

Brainstorming Sessions

Students are generally very energetic, and the teacher must plan to keep them active, attentive and focused; otherwise they may start to lose concentration and at times become restless. Organizing brainstorming sessions to activate the students and offering them opportunities to express their views during group discussions will help to satisfy their needs. Keeping students' absorbed means they will get busy, learn lessons easily and they will understand concepts which we are trying to teach them.

Learning by Doing

Whatever may be the topic of the lesson, we must make sure that the students spend some time to learn by doing. They can work individually or in groups and the exercises we give them can be of different types such as experiments, digital learning, work sheets, art and craft and field work. Hands-on learning is one of the best methods to absorb students in tasks, they can explore on their own.

Peer Interaction

Good examples are group activities where students need to move from one group to another to discuss or work on the said topic. Working area, library work is another great way to make sure students do not sit at their tables all the time. Depending on the students' needs, we may create theme-based working tables and encourage them to set them up. To promote joy in learning we may also introduce entertainment games and puzzles. Instead of teaching the students throughout the entire lesson, the teacher could provide some direction during part of the lesson, and then let the students be in control of their own learning and work with their peers.

Use of Resources

Resources and use of Art, Craft and Music will help to keep the students busy and excited. The resources should be useful, and they should not be too challenging for the students. Introducing dynamics in the classroom will not only help us to keep our students active, lively and motivated, but it will also facilitate the overall learning experience for the students and the effectiveness of teaching.

Group Work

Cooperative learning and group work is another instructional method where students work together in pairs or groups to complete a task. Cooperative learning strategies can work in any classroom regardless of age groups, the subjects taught or the number of students in a class.

By adopting different teaching techniques, we can expect excellent response from the students. They will develop good communication skills and will excel in their learning. It will further enhance their confidence level and help them develop skills of learning.

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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MORAL DEGRADATION AMONG STUDENTS

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Introduction

It is without doubt that discipline is one of the major driving forces behind good performance of students in national examinations. Well disciplined students fit well in the society because education helps mould them into disciplined and responsible members of the society. Indiscipline in our educational institutions is age-old and public day schools too have not been left behind. Moral degradation or Disruptive behavior is a concern to schools, parents and fellow students whose education may be adversely affected. Therefore, it has become necessary to get to the root of the causes of indiscipline in these schools by focusing on the learners physical environment in the home, community and at school.

Moral Degradation

Moral Degradation or Indiscipline is the intentional refusal to follow rules and regulations of a given society. It is not only deeply rooted in Kenyan schools but regionally and internationally too. According to the task force on student discipline and unrests in secondary schools, (Wangai report, 2001), learning institutions have been faced with increased cases of student unrests. The issue of learner indiscipline has taken centre stage for a long time internationally and regionally. For example, in India, Khanbab (2010) laments that schools and colleges in India have become an abode of indiscipline to the extent that examinations have to be conducted with the help of the police. He blames it all on poor study habits by students, incompetent teachers and political leaders who incite students against the government. Recent research in the U.S.A has documented that bullying is a common and potential damaging form of violence among children, which not only harms its intended victims and the perpetrators, but also has a chilling effect on the school climate, thereby indirectly

affecting the ability of all students to learn to the best of their abilities, (Limber and Nation, 1997).

It can be summarized that indiscipline is any form of misbehaviours which the student(s) can display in the following ways: general disobedient to constituted authority, destruction of school property, poor attitude to learning, abuse of seniority, immoral behaviour, drug abuse, stealing, lateness, truancy, dirtiness quarrelsome, use of abusive or foul languages, rudeness, gangstarism or cultism etc as the forms of indiscipline in schools are inexhaustible.

According to Akindiji (1996:5) adapted from Nwakoby (2001: 12) as "an act of misconduct which not only physical act but could also be a thing of the mind". The above definition presupposes that indiscipline is an act of wrong doing and which must not necessarily be seen from a student's action but the mood of such student could be interpreted as an act of indiscipline or misconduct. Achebe (1984: 27) on his part defined indiscipline as "a disregard to lay down standards of behaviours, rules and regulations of a social system". Yaroson (2004) when citing The Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary maintained that Indiscipline is a derivative of the word "discipline" and which is a mode of life in accordance with rules is. She further quoted the Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary where indiscipline is defines as lack of control in the behaviour of a group of people.

Acts of Indiscipline in Schools

Several forms of indiscipline acts pervade through every corner of the secondary schools among the students. Some occurred within the classroom, some within the school premises, while some others are carried out outside the school premises.

Lewis (1991) as quoted by Morongwa (2010:11) observed that three types of misbehavior which are regarded as disciplinary problems for the educator in the classroom include: misbehaviours that inhibit the learner's own learning, misbehaviours by one learner which is destructive to the

learning of another and misbehaviours which are disrespectful, defiant or abusive to the educator. He added that, these misbehaviours can be committed intentionally or unintentionally. He further stated in a clear term some of these behaviours which he believes can impact negatively on the morale of the student himself and mentioned them as follows:

- A learner consistently comes to class late and disrupts the flow of the class;
- He/she talks while the teacher is addressing the class;
- He/she writes graffiti on school property;
- Another one continuously calls out in class;
- One is not listening and asks questions that have already been answered;
- Another one defies the teacher and refuses to follow instructions; and
- Another one moves around in the class to the point of becoming a distraction.

Also, on the part of Rosen (1997) he identifies ten other types of disciplinary problems or indiscipline acts among the students are:

- Defiance to school authority; Class destruction;
- Truancy; Fighting;
- The use of profanity;
- Damaging school property;
- Violation of school dress code; Theft / stealing ;
- Leaving campus without permission; and
- Not reporting to after school detention or Saturday School.

Causes of Indiscipline

Indiscipline acts in schools is not an obscure problem or phenomenon that it causes cannot be ascertained. For instance, Ozigi and Canlan (1979) as cited by Oyetubo and Olaiya (2009) presented seven likely causes of the phenomenon in school and which include: (a) the idea of democracy with its emphasis on the rights and freedom of the individual; (b) the "generation gap" in ideas, beliefs and values about the nature of man, life

and society. There is a wide difference of opinion in these matters between the two generations, the young and the old; (c) the high level of sophistication of young men and women compared with that of the old generation; (d) the influence of the media (i.e. the newspaper, the radio and television) which carry regular reports about students power against authority; (e) the failure of the adults, both in society and at school to set standards of good behaviours for young men and women to follow;

Controlling Indiscipline

Curwin & Mendler (1994) as cited by Deaukee (2010) further stated that an effective discipline approach involves a united effort by the entire school. therefore outlined processes that form the foundation of any effective discipline programme as follows:

- Let students know what you need.
- Provide instructions that match students' level of ability.
- Listen to what students are thinking and feeling.
- Use humour; Vary your style of presentation
- Refuse to accept excuses – accepting excuses teaches the students how to be irresponsible.
- Legitimize behaviour that you cannot stop – e.g. if there are daily paper airplane, buzzing past your ear consider spending 5 minutes a day having paper airplane contests. When certain types of misbehaviours are legitimized the fun of acting out fizzles.
- Be responsible for yourself and allow the kids to take responsibility for themselves. You are responsible for being on time, being prepared and making your lessons meaningful. You are not responsible for judging students' excuses or doing their work for them.
- Realize and accept that you will not reach every child-some students must be allowed to choose failure; Start fresh every day.

Conclusion

Most of the causes for indiscipline among students stem from within schools, the students' homes and influence from the society/environment. It is important for teachers and administrators to identify these factors and

purpose to mitigate their influence on students. It is notable that most schools had guidance and counseling, teaching of life skills, manual work, and co-curricular activities as the key disciplinary methods. The methods were not given much emphasis due to time limits and lack of facilities and learning materials, all of which are critical variables in the implementation of the key approaches.

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SELF CONCEPT & SELF ESTEEM

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Introduction

In a rapid changing world, the cultivation of an all-round personality, sensitive to problems in environment, is important, vital and necessary. A special care and personalized support system is therefore, impetrative to nourish the potentialities of Teachers and Students. Self-concept and self-esteem are two key components to a fulfilling childhood and building up of a personality.

Self Esteem

Self-esteem is attractive as a social psychological construct because researchers have conceptualized it as an influential predictor of certain outcomes, such as academic achievement, happiness, low self esteem and high self esteem. "Self esteem refers to an individual's overall view of himself or herself ' (Santrock, 20A6, p. 91). It reflects a person's overall subjective emotional evaluation of his or her own worth. It is a judgment of oneself as well as an attitude towards the self. It encompasses beliefs and emotions. It is the positive or negative evaluations of the self, as it is about how a person feels of himself. The teachers should develop their own self esteem for being effective in their teaching in the later professional career. It is possible that low self esteem could affect the overall academic, personal and professional career of the prospective teachers.

As a child goes through adolescence, he or she is subjected to many different challenges, stressors, and opportunities. An important factor in handling these challenges is a positive self concept and high self-esteem. Through adolescence, schools should be preparing students to become a comfortable part of the general population, easily adjusting to their surroundings.

A population of students that requires closer attention is students who have been diagnosed with a learning disability. Students with learning disabilities are estimated to represent 2% to 10% of the student population. Students with learning disabilities struggle with self-concept and self-esteem, which in turn can lead to adjustment difficulties, substance abuse, depression, and suicide ideation (Saghatoleslami, 2005). As psychological service professionals, it is important to monitor the self-worth of students and help improve their self-concept and self-esteem.

Self-concept is the perception that individuals have of their own worth. This includes a composite of their feelings, a generalized view of their social acceptance, and their personal feelings about themselves. High self-esteem was defined by Walz (1991) as appreciating oneself and acknowledging self-worth, self-control, and competence, with a corresponding positive attitude and high self-evaluation. Opposite to this, Brendgen (2002) defined low self-esteem as having low self-evaluations, self-criticism, and feelings of hopelessness. Both self-concept and self-esteem are fluid through a child's development and can be influenced by positive parental involvement.

Self-concept develops as a result of one's experiences with the environment and ones evaluations of these experiences. Additionally, opinions of significant others, casual attributions, and concrete feedback play a crucial role in the process of self-concept. The formative middle-school years of a child's life are an important time for the child to develop a positive self-concept. Self-concept is important because it contributes to many different facets of a person's life, from childhood to adulthood.

Self-esteem can be defined in numerous ways. Most commonly, self-esteem is defined on the basis of two psychological processes: evaluation and affect. Evaluation accentuates the role of cognition, while affect emphasizes the role of feelings as they pertain to self-esteem. As such, Mruk (2006) defines four basic ways that self-esteem is defined: (1) as a certain attitude, (2) based on discrepancy, (3) as a psychological response a person holds toward himself or herself, and (4) as a function of personality.

In the attitudinal definition, it involves positive or negative cognitive, behavioral, and emotional reactions. When people base their self esteem on discrepancy, they are measuring the difference between what they see as their ideal self and their perceived self. The closer these two percepts are, the higher their self-esteem is thought to be. The psychological response a person holds towards himself or herself is described as feeling-based, rather than attitudinal alone. Finally, in the function of personality definition, self-esteem is viewed as part of a system that is concerned with motivation or self-regulation, or both. While there are numerous different definitions for self-esteem, even outside of this spectrum, the listed definitions cover the broadest range of definitions.

Self-concept and self-esteem are two key components to a fulfilling childhood. In particular, knowing how learning disabilities (LD) affect self-concept and self-esteem can vastly improve a child's sense of worth. Just as self-esteem has a range of definitions, self-concept can be measured in varying realms (Shapka & Keating, 2005). Of particular importance are academic self-concepts in the school context. Two key components in academic self-concept are verbal and mathematical self-concept. If students have difficulty in either of these two facets, their academic self-concept will diminish. These two realms of academic self-concept are also very important for students with LD. Students with LD have been shown to have lower self-concepts than those of their peers without LD (Moller, Streb low, & Pohlmann, 2009). Furthermore, it has been shown that students with LD in inclusive schools have lower self-concepts than those of their peers in schools for students with special educational needs. This is due to the social comparisons that students with LD make when attending inclusive schools (Crabtree & Rutland, 2001).

Jarvis and Justice (1992) have shown that students with learning disabilities are significantly less accurate at interpreting social situations than their non-learning disabled peers. The authors also found that students with learning disabilities had significantly lower self concepts. This correlation shows the importance of properly understanding social

situations during adolescence. When a student is unable to fully connect with others, their self-concept and self-esteem suffer.

Having a positive self concept and high self-esteem are important factors in leading a happy and healthy life. When an adolescent with a learning disability does not receive the proper intervention, the problems that they are facing go untreated and lead to equally frustrating issues as an adult with a learning disability. By properly diagnosing students with learning disabilities and providing evidence based interventions, students will have a higher probability of successfully coping with their learning disability as an adult.

One solution to the problem of negative self-concept and low self-esteem is positive and frequent family involvement. Ochoa, Lopez, and Emler (2007) found a link between open communication between parents and adolescents' positive family self-concept, which in turn related to a positive academic self-concept. Positive family communication is key in helping adolescents maintain a positive self-concept and high self-esteem. By enhancing academic self concepts, educators will then be more apt to foster learning in schools. Moller et al. (2009) emphasized the importance of these findings on academic self-concept in relation to learning, when considering students with learning disabilities. Additionally shown was that when students with a learning disability are in an inclusive classroom, they are more apt to set themselves unrealistic goals. This will more often than not result in negative effects on their academic self-concept as well as emotional well-being. The key difference between students with learning disabilities in an inclusive classroom is their academic self-concept (Prout & Prout, 1996).

When schools properly identify students with learning disabilities, appropriate considerations need to be taken to provide those students with the best learning environment possible. An inclusive classroom can be detrimental to the self-concept of a student with LD. While this is important to consider, it is essential to understand that not all students

respond in the same ways. Because every student is unique, a distinct approach needs to be taken when providing intervention strategies. To better understand each student, with and without LD, a school may perform an interpersonal competence profile (Farmer, Rodkin, Pearl, & Acker, 1999). These two profiles include the Interpersonal Competence Scale-Teacher (ICST) and the Interpersonal Competence Scale-Self (ICS-S). Using these interpersonal competence scales, the school will gain knowledge about the individuality of each student. When a school knows the specific interpersonal competence profile of a student, the assessment and intervention process can be uniquely honed to best serve that student's learning style (Farmer et al., 1999).

For students with LD to succeed in the classroom, and eventually as adults, these special considerations need to be taken. It is important for schools and psychological service professionals to clearly delineate between self-concept and self-esteem. When this is done, a better analysis of the student can be made. With this improved analysis, appropriate intervention strategies can be used to enhance their self-concept and raise their self-esteem. As schools begin to better understand the unique learning styles of each student, the academic atmosphere will flourish and students' grades can be improved. With improved grades comes improved self-esteem, and as an adolescent's self esteem improves, so does his or her overall sense of happiness (Elbaum & Vaughn, 2001).

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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EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITY UPON LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Introduction

Extracurricular activities (ECA) are usually defined as learners' activities that fall outside the normal curriculum of educational institution, they supplement the regular course of classroom instruction and are sometimes organized or conducted with some participation of instructors. In the field of applied linguistics and education, there is a general agreement to encourage extracurricular activities in university programs for students of different majors, because ECA help them to develop important skills, such as leadership, socializing, character training, and others. On the other hand, ECA programs in universities are not regulated, they are often organized sporadically by enthusiastic faculty or students, and thus their role in the educational process has eluded the attention of researchers.

Extracurricular Activities

Although the term 'extracurricular activities' appeared only in the late 19th century, different kinds of extracurriculars have been used from the antiquity. Debates, drama, competitions (for example, oratorical or athletics) and different interest-group societies were organized in ancient Athens and Sparta in support of regular education.

Later in the 20th century, a lot of researchers focused on the impact of extracurricular activities on students' performance in class and other skills important for everyday life (Tchibozo, 2007; Campbell, 1973). In particular, it was observed that ECAs eliminate the chances of dropping out of school for some categories of students (Mahoney and Cairns, 2000). The findings proved that the extra-curricular activities were just as necessary for building academic and social skills as the regular classes (Druzhinina, 2009; Eccles, 2003; Marsh and Kleitman, 2002; Tenhouse, 2003;

Rombokas, 1995; Astin, 1993; Darling, Caldwell, and Smith, 2005; Mahoney and Cairns, 2003).

Role in Language Teaching

Later on extracurricular activities have become an inseparable part of the context of second language teaching and learning in university and college environments (Campbell, 1973; Housen and Beardsmore, 1987). In the second part of the 20th century, many researchers focused on comparing second language learning in formal and informal environments (Krashen, 1981). Oates and Hawley in 1983 suggested involving the local native speakers of the target language in delivering extra-curricular activities, such as meetings, videotaped interviews, role playing, evening get-togethers, skits, individual presentations, newspapers and language weekends.

The role of ECA very strongly depended on the method employed in language teaching. In the last 100 years, hundreds of language teaching methods and approaches sprung to life, such as the Direct Method, audiolingual method (Larsen-Freeman, 1986), lexical approach, neurolinguistic programming, competency-based Language Teaching, community language teaching (La Forge, 1983) and others. Although ECA were completely discarded in most of the descriptions of language teaching approaches and methods, I will describe below some methods that are in my opinion conducive of ECA.

For example, in the Direct Method, language learners are exposed to ungraded foreign speech and are supposed to pick it up naturally. This method therefore favorably views many types of ECA including meeting native speakers or language retreats, where students have to speak foreign language at all times.

The Oral approach and situational Language teaching originated in the 1920s-1930s in the works of British linguists Palmer and Hornby. In this approach, lexical and grammatical materials were specifically chosen for the lessons and the language items were first presented orally, and later –

in the written form; only the target language was spoken in the classroom; new language material was presented in situational context; lesson planning was emphasized, and different techniques were used to present and practice the lesson. (Nunan, 2004) ECA fits well with this approach, as ECA activities can be organized to follow the material studied in class.

However the Oral approach was gradually replaced by Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the late 1960s with the subsequent modification of CLT in the 1980s into task-based instruction. The basis for task-based teaching is experiential learning. The personal background and experience of a student are involved in language acquisition (Nunan, 2004), and the knowledge is not just given from a teacher to students, but transformed within the learner (Kohonen, 1992). This approach emphasizes the process of learning, teaches students how to learn, encourages them to participate in discussions and share what they know, direct themselves. This approach also promoted intrinsic motivation (Kohonen, 1992). All these characteristics are supportive of the development of extracurricular activities. An important theoretical basis for task-based language teaching is the concept of *experiential learning* (Nunan,2004).

Experiential learning started in the 1980s with the works of David Kolb and developed in the 1990s by Kohonen and his followers (Nunan, 2004). In the classroom, experiential learning is seen as transformation of knowledge within the learner rather than from the teacher to the learner; learners are encouraged to work in small groups and pairs; a holistic attitude to subject matter is encouraged; intrinsic motivation is promoted; focus on process rather than on product (learning to learn is more important than learning a particular chunk of subject matter) (Nunan, 1999; 2004). In experiential learning, the teacher acts as a facilitator, and students get to manage their own learning, and with this awareness, they are given some autonomy. Some recent works in this area developed the idea that the goal of language learning is reaching a communicative competence that achieve a desirable goal via engaging in intercultural

communication, with the balance between external (learning environment) and internal (language learner and his beliefs, concepts, preferences, etc.) factors in language learning (Kohonen et al. 2000). All these characteristics make Task-Based CLT and Experiential learning ideal platforms for the promotion of ECA.

Many of these methods and approaches are still widely used world over in the course of second language teaching.

Conclusion

Extracurricular activities are the ones which promotes students to take up their study in a healthy manner. All-round development as well as intellectual development is not the domain of curriculum, these characteristics can be judiciously fulfilled by co-curricular activities.

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TEACHING SPEAKING

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Introduction

It is certain that English has become a global language over the last decades. This can be viewed as one of the main reasons why people start learning English: in most cases, it is rather meaningless to learn a language that is hardly ever used worldwide. Being the official language in 60 out of 195 world's countries, the official language of the European Union, the United Nations, NATO and the European Free Trade Association, as well as commonly adopted second language of people of many countries, English serves almost any purpose for its speakers. It provides access to knowledge, helps communication, opens career opportunities and so on.

Communication

Currently, around 1.5 billion people speak English worldwide and another 1 billion are in the process of learning it ("Why Should I Learn English? – 10 Compelling Reasons for EFL Learners", 2014). Whereas in the past great attention in teaching English was focused on grammar, modern teaching is mostly focused on teaching skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. If to touch upon teaching speaking skills, it is important to point out that nowadays it is aimed not only at purely linguistic progress, but also at the development of communicative competence in order to be able to hold conversations with other speakers of the language.

However, students often face problems with developing speaking skill, which are caused by different factors (influence of native language, lack of motivation, etc.). Thus, teachers are always in search of some kinds of activities that would both promote speaking skills and be lively, creative and interesting.

Speaking

First of all, it is necessary to have a look at several definitions of speaking. This will give an idea what speaking actually is, how different authors perceive speaking and what they include into that term. Furthermore, the definition which is the most related to the action research will be chosen.

Definitions of speaking can be quite wide. "English Club" website gives the simplest definition – "Speaking is the delivery of language through the mouth" ("What is speaking", n.d.). However, common sense suggests that despite the fact that speaking as a process is usually taken as granted, its mechanism is more advanced than simply delivering information through the mouth. Alternatively, LinguaLinks online library states that "speaking is the productive skill in the oral mode. It, like the other skills, is more complicated than it seems at first and involves more than just pronouncing words." ("Speaking skill",n.d.). As we can see, these definitions are rather aimed at general public, however, even from them it is clear that speaking is a rather complicated process.

Research that is more serious supports that complex concept as well. Many scholars agree with the idea of speaking as a complicated act. According to Hornby, Cowie & Gymson (1974, p.826-827), "speaking is making use of word in an ordinary voice, uttering words, knowing and being able to use a language; expressing oneself in words; making a speech". Chaney and Burk (1998, p.13) propose that speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts". Other definition says that "speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information" (Burns & Joyce, 1997, p.17). When discussing speaking, Thornbury (2005, p.IV) sensibly notices that "there is a lot more to speaking than the ability to form grammatically correct sentences and then to pronounce them". Harmer (2007, p.269) in some way extends that statement, suggesting that "the ability to speak fluently presupposes not only knowledge of language

features, but also the ability to process information and language 'on the spot'". Fulcher gives another definition of speaking: "Speaking is the verbal use of language to communicate with others" (2003, p.23).

Overall, all these definitions imply the idea that speaking involves not only the performance of the linguistic knowledge orally, but some other knowledge. Being able to use this knowledge, in fact, leads to more successful communication. However, all authors include different aspects of speaking in their definition. Further in this work the attempt to organize features or components of speaking will be made.

Harmer (2007, p.269-271) divides speaking components into two groups: language features and mental or social processing. The former includes connected speech (assimilation, elision, added or linking sounds), expressive devices (variation of pitch, stress, volume, speed of utterances, as well as other physical and non-physical means in order to convey meanings), lexis and grammar (particular common lexical phrases which vary according to the functions and contexts) and negotiation language. The latter includes language processing (ability to retrieve words and phrases from memory into syntactically and propositionally appropriate sequences), interacting with others (ability to listen and understand the feelings of the other participants, knowledge of turn-taking) and on-the-spot information processing.

Another classification is made by Thornbury as follows: The kind of knowledge that speakers bring to the skill of speaking comprise extralinguistic knowledge, such as background knowledge of topic and culture, and linguistic knowledge, including discourse knowledge, speech act knowledge, and knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and phonology. (2005, p.26)

Brown (2001, p.270-271) presents eight characteristics of oral speech: clustering, redundancy, reduced forms, performance variables, colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress, rhythm and intonation; interaction. All these are the combination of linguistic and extra-linguistic features of speaking.

Rubiati (2010, p.11) reveals five components that are generally recognized in the analysis of the speech process: pronunciation (including the segmental features - vowels and consonants - and the stress and intonation patterns), grammar, vocabulary, fluency (the ease and speed of the flow of speech), comprehension (for oral communication certainly requires a subject to respond to speech as well as to initiate it). Author adds that "by mastering all the factors, people can produce good speech" (p.11).

Perhaps, it should be also noticed that the nature of writing and speaking influences teaching a foreign language. Writing must be learnt even in mother tongue. On the contrary, speech is acquired already in the early childhood without being taught directly. In common teaching situation, speech can be imitated, in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, and even grammar. Writing cannot be imitated in the same way. That is, if the purpose of a language class is to make students speak, teacher should provide a lot of utterances students can imitate and it does not mean that only students should talk from the very beginning.

In conclusion, the speaking will be defined as a complex skill that takes place in a communicative situation in order to transmit information from one person to another, which includes linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge of different origins.

Importance of Speaking

Nowadays individuals usually put an equal sign between knowing a language and speaking a language. Despite the fact that in order to be a successful foreign language speaker, all four skills (e.g. reading, listening, writing, speaking) have to be well-developed, the view that being able to express oneself is the most important element of mastering the foreign language is predominant in the society. For example, many language schools attract clients while promising real communication and no learning the rules from the textbooks by heart, many different communicative classes or speaking clubs are offered, schools organize meetings with native

speakers in order to give learners an opportunity to communicate naturally. Moreover, Nunan (1991, p.39) indicates that "success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the (target) language".

As speaking is a fundamental aspect of communication, it is crucial to possess this skill. Lindsay and Knight (2006) comment on reasons of speaking: We speak for many reasons - to be sociable, because we want something, because we want other people to do something, to do something for someone else, to respond to someone else, to express our feelings or opinion about something, to exchange information, to refer to an action or event in the past, present, or future, the possibility of something happening, and so on. (2006, p.58).

While speaking, students are able to express themselves, to transfer information and to learn special patterns of communication appropriate in different social and cultural circumstances. In other words, many functions of speaking are available for students, but only with the educator's help, they can use them properly, especially in the foreign language. While teaching speaking, teacher might help students not only to create utterances to exchange information in the target language properly, but also explain socio-cultural and pragmatic features of speaking a foreign language, which is, undoubtedly, necessary to be able to speak the language on a high level. This makes speaking, as well as teaching speaking, highly important.

Conclusion

Many people become quite disappointed when exposed to the foreign language communication for the first time. This is happening because it is difficult to cope with all the features of speaking foreign language at once. Nevertheless, this is the key factor of importance of teaching speaking – communication (and thus speaking) is very common to be unprepared, spontaneous.

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RECIPROCAL TEACHING

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Introduction

Education is a process of development from infancy to maturity. In the educative process two persons are involved the educator and the educand. But in the modern concept this process is three dimensional in nature the educator, the educand and the classroom environment. Students' reactions and perceptions of their school experience are significant. Different methods of teaching emphasize this role day by day. Reciprocal teaching is an interactive approach where equal importance is given to the learner along with the teacher.

Reciprocal Teaching

Reciprocal Teaching evolved as a comprehension-fostering strategy. According to Bruer, Annie-Marie Palinscar, co-creator of Reciprocal Teaching, reviewed. Meichenbaum's (1985) Self Verbalization Techniques which had demonstrated success with impulsive children to determine whether they could be useful in regulating children's cognitive processing, especially those that impact and result in reading competence. Palinscar and Brown developed Reciprocal Teaching on a theoretical basis and formulated a theory of instruction that might improve task performance. From their analysis they found that the following six functions are essential to expert reading comprehension.

a) Understands that the goal in reading is to construct meaning.
b) Activates relevant background knowledge.
c) Allocates attention to concentrate on major content ideas.
d) Evaluates the constructed meaning (gist) for internal consistency.
e) Draws and tests inferences (it includes interpretations, predictions and conclusions).

f) Monitors the five previous functions to see if comprehension is occurring.

Using the four strategies namely summarising, questioning, clarifying and predicting, they tapped all six functions needed for comprehensions.

Concept of Reciprocal Teaching

According to Palinscar (1986) Reciprocal Teaching is an instructional activity that takes place in the form of a dialogue between teachers and students regarding segments of text. The dialogue is structured by the use of four strategies: summarizing, question generating, clarifying and predicting. The purpose of Reciprocal Teaching is to facilitate a group effort between teacher and students and among students. Reciprocal Teaching evolved as a comprehension-fostering strategy.

Summarizing

It enables the learners to identify the most important information in the text. The text can be summarized in many ways. It can be summarized across sentences or across paragraphs. On certain occasions, the whole passage can be summarized. At the initial stage students will be summarizing sentences and paragraphs. Summarizing Involves fostering Reading Comprehension, Thinking and Classroom Interaction.

Question Generating

This step reinforces the first strategy i.e. Summarizing and carries the learner one more step along in the comprehension activity. When the students raise questions, they ensure themselves that they can answer those questions. At first the students generate simple questions because they have to find answers to their own questions. Gradually, with the teacher's help they can ask questions at different levels. This will lead the students to infer new information from the text.

Questions are a basic instructional tool in the hands of every teacher. In language teaching they rightly occupy a central place. Teachers use them for many purposes including: (1) to elicit learner responses, (2) to provide

opportunities for learner–teacher and learner-learner interaction, (3) to serve as starting points for explanations, (4) to assist in classroom management and (5) for seeking confirmation that something presented taught has been understood.

A possible way of bringing out the important qualitative differences between them is by placing them in binary groups. Teachers' questions may be:

- display or genuine,' referential
- closed or open ended
- factual or evaluative (higher-order).

Clarifying

When we work with students we have to consider the individual differences. Some students face comprehension difficulty. It is the teacher's duty to announce that their doubts regarding the meaning of words, ideas in paragraph or any concept can be cleared. They will be provided with chances to re read or they can ask for the teacher's help.

Explanations

In the extract below the late H V George, a veteran teacher-educator, refers back to something lie observed in an EFL classroom, Study it to answer the following questions:

- What means did the teacher use to explain obstacle?
- Why do you think he failed? How would a teacher with a 'defining vocabulary' explain the meaning?
- What would you do?

Instructions

Clear instructions are crucial to both materials and teaching. A good task becomes useless where instructions make no sense to the class.

Pair and Group Work

Its language is most often used by two, three (or four?) individuals to exchange greetings or share ideas, emotions or experiences. Language-

acquisition research (Long and Porter 1985, Pica and Doughty 1985) has also shown that it is in small group interaction that rich opportunities for negotiating meanings become available.

All this makes group work (GW) an obvious source of rich and rewarding learning encounters. Teachers of different subjects including languages have used GW for longs many have found in it a valuable ally.

Predicting

This will enable the students to think about the following event in the text. It is a sort of hypothesizing. The students should have apt background knowledge regarding the topic. This strategy helps them link the new knowledge in the text to the already learnt topics. The students try to learn well the headings, phrases and important ideas that they previously learnt in order to predict the various events.

Classroom Interaction

The teacher follows his plan of action and acts, according to plan, upon the class. He gets them to repeat, makes them do exercises, organizes them for a game-type activity. The class reacts to the teacher's actions in different ways. They repeat some things well, some things badly; they give some answers correctly, and make mistakes with others; they follow the teacher's instructions with some answers correctly, and make mistakes with others; they follows the teacher's instructions with some activities, and fail to do so with others; at times they sit silently, demonstrating no apparent reaction.

Interaction is a two-way process. It can proceed harmoniously, or it can be fraught with tensions. It can be a positive state, where the interactants feel that something worthwhile is being achieved as a result of the interaction, or it can be a negative one. Every interaction situation has the potential for co-operation or conflict. How the situation actually develops depends on the attitudes and intentions of the people involved, and on their interpretations of each other's attitudes and intentions.

Conclusion

Reciprocal Teaching is an instructional activity that takes place in the form of a dialogue between teachers and students regarding segments of text. The dialogue is structured by the use of four strategies: summarizing, question generating, clarifying and predicting in a good classroom environment.

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M LEARNING

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Introduction

Over the past decade we have become familiar with the term e learning; now m - learning is emerging. A comprehensive definition by Urdan & Weggen (2000) provides a sufficient basis to distinguish m-learning from e-learning: the term e-learning covers a wide set of applications and processes, including computer-based learning. web-based learning, virtual classrooms and digital collaboration. We define e-Iearning as the delivery of content via all electronic rnedia, including the Internet, Intranets, Extranets, satellite broadcast, audio/video tape, interactive TV, and CD-ROM. Yet, elearning is defined more narrowly than distance learning, which would include text-based learning and courses conducted via written correspondence.

E - Learning

A learning system based on formalized teaching but with the help of electronic resources is known as E-learning. While teaching can be based in or out of the classrooms, the use of computers and the Internet forms the major component of E-learning. E-learning can also be termed as a network enabled transfer of skills and knowledge, and the delivery of education is made to a large number of recipients at the same or different times. Earlier, it was not accepted wholeheartedly as it was assumed that this system lacked the human element required in learning. However, with the rapid progress in technology and the advancement in learning systems, it is now embraced by the masses. The introduction of computers was the basis of this revolution and with the passage of time, as we get hooked to smart phones, tablets etc, these devices now have an importance place in the classrooms for learning. Books are gradually getting replaced by electronic educational materials like optical discs or pen drives. Knowledge can also be shared via the Internet, which is accessible 24/7, anywhere, anytime.

E-learning has proved to be the best means in the corporate sector, especially when training programs are conducted by MNCs for professionals across the globe and employees are able to acquire important skills while sitting in a board room, or by having seminars, which are conducted for employees of the same or the different organizations under one roof. The schools which use E-learning technologies are a step ahead of those which still have the traditional approach towards learning.

No doubt, it is equally important to take forward the concept of non-electronic teaching with the help of books and lectures, but the importance and effectiveness of technology-based learning cannot be taken lightly or ignored completely. It is believed that the human brain can easily remember and relate to what is seen and heard via moving pictures or videos. It has also been found that visuals, apart from holding the attention of the student, are also retained by the brain for longer periods. Various sectors, including agriculture, medicine, education, services, business, and government setups are adapting to the concept of E-learning which helps in the progress of a nation. To support these different learning needs, you will need different e-learning delivery methods. Additionally, you will need a way to develop and manage e-learning.

The extent to which e-learning assists or replaces other learning and teaching approaches is variable, ranging on a continuum from none to fully online distance learning. A variety of descriptive terms have been employed (somewhat inconsistently) to categorize the extent to which technology is used. For example, 'hybrid learning' or 'blended learning' may refer to classroom aids and laptops, or may refer to approaches in which traditional classroom time is reduced but not eliminated, and is replaced with some online learning. 'Distributed learning' may describe either the e-learning component of a hybrid approach, or fully online distance learning environments.

M-Learning

M-learning is a subset of e-learning. E-learning is the macro concept that includes online and mobile learning environments. In this regard the following simple definition of Quin (2001) is very useful: 'm - learning is e-learning through mobile computational devices: palms, windows CE machines, even your digital cell phone.'

Parameters for M-Learning

The mobile revolution is finally here in the form of m-learning, which is a natural extension of e-learning. There are five basic parameters for production and development of m - learning; they are:

- Portable
- Social Interaction
- Sensitive to the context
- Connectivity
- Customized

Advantages of M-Learning

Most mobile devices are useful in education both as administration, organization and teaching aids for practitioners. and also as learning support tools for students.

- It offers an interactive learning experience where learners can interact with one another.
- It's easier to accommodate several mobile devices in a classroom than several desktop computers.
- It is not always easy to work on a computer sitting in a far off village or town, but a mobile can be accessed anywhere.
- Mobile phones, PDAs or tablets holding notes and e-books are lighter and can facilitate the entire m-learning process with ease unlike bags full of files, paper and textbooks, or even laptops.
- Writing with the stylus pen is more effective than using keyboard and mouse.
- A range of possibilities arise out of this like sharing assignments and working as a group; learners and practitioners can e-mail, copy and

paste text, or even 'beam' the work to each other using the infrared function of a PDA or a wireless network such as Bluetooth.

- Mobile devices can be used anywhere, any time. Including offices, homes. or when in transit.
- These devices engage learners through mobile phones. Gadgets and games devices such as Game Boys. This makes the device invaluable.
- This technology may contribute to combating the digital divide, as mobile devices are generally cheaper than desktop computers.
- The size, shape, weight and portability of mobile devices have made them extremely effective for users with permanent or temporary disabilities.
- Just-in-time learning/reference tool for quick access to data in the field e.g. accessing step-by—step guides to help you achieve a task.
- SMS can be used to get information to staff and learners more easily and quickly than phone calls or email.

Disadvantages of M-Learning

- Small screen
- Low storage
- Discharged battery - At times, a discharged battery can result in loss of important data.
- Difficult to use - It's difficult to work on moving graphics, especially on mobiles phones, although 3G and 4G will eventually facilitate this.
- Low band-width - Bandwidth may degrade with increasing users when using wireless networks.
- Easily lost
- Lack of common platform - So difficult to develop content.
- Outdated - Fast moving market; so devices can become outdated quickly

Conclusion

In the current era, where technology is rapidly evolving, education has also taken the support of ICT and now offers convenient ways to help increase the knowledge, education and literacy status of people. E-learning

platform provides anywhere, anytime easy access for up gradation of knowledge and skills. It provides a platform wherein the individual gets a customized package related to key thematic areas, through a self-guided process.

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PROBLEM SOLVING TECHNIQUES

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Introduction

Problem Solving forms part of thinking. Considered the most complex of all intellectual functions, problem solving has been defined as higher-order cognitive process that requires the modulation and control of more routine or fundamental skills. The study of thinking has taken many forms in the field of Psychology-Behaviourism, Gestalt psychology, Developmental Psychology, Psychometric Approach and Information Processing. It would be appreciable to refer briefly to the dimensions of thinking which can reorient as well as restructure the conceptualization and implementation of schooling through curriculum design, instructional pedagogy and assessment techniques.

Problem Solving Techniques

It is not enough to describe a problem-solving process and to describe how individuals differ in their approach to or use of it. It is also necessary to identify specific techniques of attending to individual differences. Fortunately, a variety of problem-solving techniques have been identified to accommodate individual preferences.

Some of these techniques are oriented more to NT and SJ individuals who tend to be more linear and serial, more structured, more rational and analytical, and more goal-oriented in their approach to problem solving. Other techniques are more suited to NF and SP individuals who demonstrate a preference for an approach that is more holistic and parallel, more emotional and intuitive, more creative, more visual, and more tactual/kinesthetic. It is important that techniques from both categories be selected and used in the problem-solving process.

Duemler and Mayer (1988) found that when students used exclusively either reflection or inspiration during problem solving, they tended to be less successful than if they used a moderate amount of both processes.

The following techniques focus more on logic and critical thinking, especially within the context of applying the scientific approach:

A. Analysis--the identification of the components of a situation and consideration of the relationships among the parts (Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956);
B. Backwards planning--a goal selection process where mid-range and short-term conditions necessary to obtain the goal are identified (Case & Bereiter, 1984; Gagne, 1977; Skinner, 1954); this technique is related to the more general technique of means-ends analysis described by Newell and Simon (1972);
C. Categorizing/classifying--the process of identifying and selecting rules to group objects, events, ideas, people, etc. (Feuerstein, Rand, Hoffman, & Miller, 1980; Sternberg, 1988);
D. Challenging assumptions--the direct confrontation of ideas, opinions, or attitudes that have previously been taken for granted (Bransford & Stein, 1984; Brookfield, 1987);
E. Evaluating/judging--comparison to a standard and making a qualitative or quantitative judgment of value or worth (Bloom et al., 1956);
F. Inductive/deductive reasoning--the systematic and logical development of rules or concepts from specific instances or the identification of cases based on a general principle or proposition using the generalization and inference (e.g., Devine, 1981; Pelligrino, 1985; Sternberg, 1988);
G. Thinking aloud--the process of verbalizing about a problem and its solution while a partner listens in detail for errors in thinking or understanding (Whimby & Lochhead, 1982);
H. Network analysis--a systems approach to project planning and mangement where relationships among activities, events, resources, and timelines are developed and charted. Specific examples include Program Evaluation and Review Technique and Critical Path Method (Awani, 1983; Handy & Hussain, 1969);

I. Plus-Minus-Interesting (PMI)--considering the positive, negative, and interesting or thought-provoking aspects of an idea or alternative using a balance sheet grid where plus and minus refer to criteria identified in the second step of the problem-solving process (de Bono, 1976; Janis & Mann, 1977);
J. Task analysis--the consideration of skills and knowledge required to learn or perform a specific task (Gagne, 1977; Gardner, 1985).

The following problem-solving techniques focus more on creative, lateral, or divergent thinking (e.g., de Bono, 1983; Prince, 1970; Wonder & Donovan, 1984):

A. Brainstorming--attempting to spontaneously generate as many ideas on a subject as possible; ideas are not critiqued during the brainstorming process; participants are encouraged to form new ideas from ideas already stated (Brookfield, 1987; Osborn, 1963);
B. Imaging/visualization--producing mental pictures of the total problem or specific parts of the problem (Lazarus, 1978; McKim, 1980; Wonder & Donovan, 1984);
C. Incubation--putting aside the problem and doing something else to allow the mind to unconsciously consider the problem (Frederiksen, 1984; Osborn, 1963);
D. Outcome psychodrama--enacting a scenario of alternatives or solutions through role playing (Janis & Mann, 1977);
E. Outrageous provocation--making a statement that is known to be absolutely incorrect (e.g., the brain is made of charcoal) and then considering it; used as a bridge to a new idea (Beinstock, 1984); also called "insideouts" by Wonder and Donovan (1984);
F. Overload--considering a large number of facts and details until the logic part of the brain becomes overwhelmed and begins looking for patterns (Wonder & Donovan, 1984); can also be generated by immersion in aesthetic experiences (Brookfield, 1987), sensitivity training (Lakin, 1972), or similar experiences;

G. Random word technique--selecting a word randomly from the dictionary and juxtaposing it with problem statement, then brainstorming about possible relationships (Beinstock, 1984);
H. Relaxation--systematically relaxing all muscles while repeating a personally meaningful focus word or phrase (Benson, 1987); a specific example of the more general technique called "suspenders" by Wonder and Donovan (1984);
I. Synthesizing--combining parts or elements into a new and original pattern Bloom et al., 1956; Sternberg, 1988);
J. Taking another's perspective--deliberately taking another person's point of view (de Bono, 1976; referred to as "be someone else" by Wonder and Donovan (1984);
K. Values clarification--using techniques such as role-playing, simulations, self-analysis exercises, and structured controversy to gain a greater understanding of attitudes and beliefs that individuals hold important (Fraenkel, 1977; Johnson & Johnson, 1988; Kirschenbaum, 1977).

Conclusion

Reasoning occurs when the individual is confronted with a problem. By a problem we understand a situation for which the individual has no ready-made response. Changing professional standards, new workplace demands, and recent changes in learning theory, educators and trainers are contemplating to include integrated learning environments which encourage learners to use higher order thinking skills, and in particular, Problem solving skills.

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