Chapter-I

INTRODUCTION
1.1 INTRODUCTION

The modern school systems run on the logic of mass manufacturing, and standardized education. These new institutions forgot that there are some basic needs of a child like curiosity for new experience, praise, recognition and above all is the need for love and security. The modern schools view the child as a student which is only one aspect of the childhood of every student. The institutions instead of catering to the needs of the students focus on the goals of the economic agenda or the market forces. Modern education system in India was created during the British rule to produce clerks or babus (civil servants) and as India gained independence and the needs changed, these institutions called schools started to produce engineers and doctors to build infrastructure and to get India a place in the list of developing countries. Today, these institutions produce MBA’s and computer professionals to get the State the money and national income necessary to put India in the list of Developed nations. In the haste to run the race of society and politics, the modern schools fail to deal with children with individual differences and different capability which need to be respected and harnessed. In the modern life style even parents forgot that their children were not blank cheque to fulfill their dreams but living, thinking individuals with needs and aspirations of their own.

In this pace of modern day living the child is deprived of leisure time in which they could explore the world around them and gain new experiences. The parents today prefer to put the child in ‘play school’ at the young age of one and a half or two years. In
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the earlier Indian system of education the child for the first few years, lived in a world of his own orderings, moving freely in large open spaces, exploring his environment to satisfy his intense curiosity. There were very few demands made upon him to achieve any specific developmental goal (Anandalakshmy, 1986) ‘childhood’ meant a period of ‘joy’ and ‘freedom’. In this context the adult child interaction was seen as an interplay- the interplay which was a paradigm of growing up, emphasized the adult-child unit and concerned itself with mutual learning and mutual pleasure, not concentrating solely on the child and his movement towards adulthood, unlike western culture (Kakor, 1981).

Modernization has been further accelerated by recent technological developments which have further eroded the traditional, social and cultural palse, bringing in its wake, the flux in intra-family relations and social and cultural norms which make conflicting demands on the child’s psyche. These demands further aggravate and facilitate the burden carried by the child leading to further stress.

Modernization has not only affected the pattern of schooling but also the parental perception of the child and also the social aspects of a child’s life. The first social unit that a child is introduced into is the family. The family provides the child inputs in the first few very crucial years of his/her life, and so a change in this social structure makes a drastic influence on the life of a child. Traditionally, in the joint family the child had more than his parent’s attention, love and care. The joint family provided grandparents and other adult company who played a significant role in socializing the child. The traditional system of child-rearing and family life promoted strong bonds of loyalty between family members and the child grew into adulthood with a strong feeling of security. Co-operation and mutual help were inculcated from infancy and children trusted
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that help, support, and protection will always be forthcoming from other members of the family whenever needed. The child thus developed an apparently healthy and secure personality, this contributed to the child's adjustment (Durojaiye, 1976).

In contrast, the modern nuclear family of today fails to give the child the same amount of quality attention. This is even more marked in urban areas. Childhood has come to acquire a different meaning altogether. Children seem to get limited space, time and fewer siblings and friends to play with. Not only has the family shrunk but the other social groups have also shrunk, the peer group for example. At school the child in discouraged to interact with peers. After school the child rarely gets time to build on his social circle as he has to go to tuition and hobby classes.

With the shrinking family size and limited peer group, child's interaction is minimized and modernization has added a new member to each family ie. the television. So even when the family is home and members have some spare time instead of sitting and talking (in the process increasing relationship bonds) they rather choose to sit in front of the T.V only sharing monosyllabic talk. The one time of the day when the entire family sat together to share a meal and exchange thoughts, problems and feelings, is now spent in front of the T.V. So the family support system as an emotional outlet is also getting affected. On regular week days the total conversation between parents and children is hardly few minutes, during which the regular questions like 'How are studies going?' 'What marks did you get?' 'Are you studying well?' 'When are your exams?' 'How is your preparation?' 'I'll teach you tomorrow?' are asked and answered. Thus, modernization has reduced family from a complete emotional, economic, social and moral support system to a mere mechanical economic support system. And the victim is childhood, itself.
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As a consequence of this the child who earlier indulged in the act of learning because of the intrinsic satisfaction and motivation that he/she got from learning itself has now come to bank on the extrinsic rewards first by the parents and the significant others and later by the society at large (in the form of degrees, medals, jobs, awards etc.). The loss of this intrinsic motivation has cost very dearly to the school going child. It has taken away all the fun from the learning process. This lack of fun in the learning process has resulted in learning becoming a forced extrinsically driven activity in contrast to the earlier fun filled years of learning and growing. Absence of intrinsic motivation has resulted in learning becoming a stressful activity. This stress has gained dangerous dimensions and it is expressed in the form of low self esteem, worth and efficacy. The result of non adjustment to this stress sometimes expresses itself as depression and suicide attempts amongst school going children.

1.2 CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION AND MENTAL HEALTH

The National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) 52nd Round data reports that almost 47 percent of the children who drop out of school do so due to the inability to cope academically and lack of interest in studies as the predominant reasons. Why do such large numbers of children not succeed in schooling! The answer is that we have tended to underestimate both the children’s competence as thinkers and to overestimate their understanding of language by expecting them to learn and group information at an hour when it is difficult for them to even understand the content. Apart from school factors of teaching, learning approach there are other factors intrinsic to the child himself. Among the various child specific social and personal variables that influence success at school, a significant variable is the psychosocial and physical readiness of the child to
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negotiate the demands of school education. This refers to both formation of personal habits of punctuality, regularity, concentration and to the child’s active learning capacity, defined as child’s propensity and ability to interact with and take optimal advantage of the resources offered by any formal or informal learning environment.

Parents earlier thought that education was the only means of a secure career, today however they are looking in other direction of extra-curricular activities as noted by some of the psychologist and family therapists. There is a definite effort to recognize multiple intelligence rather than obsession with academic milestones now’, says Shelja Sen, a Delhi based family therapist. “If a child was weak in Math’s, parents in the past would drag the child for tuition and be worried about the problem. Now, the parents recognize the importance of focusing on any other faculty (say music or art) and use it to motivate the child.” But as Dr. Jitender Nagpal of VIMHANS, Delhi explains, “In their anxiety to provide for the child, parents may arrange too many structured activities. Unstructured time is very important for the child.” (Outlook, June 14, 2004)

Today learning is for an end which in the short run is the annual result and in the long run the social status through the jobs acquired on the basis of these results. So much of parental aspiration and expectation is attached to education and schooling that the little child somewhere within the student of the class gets frightened. Everything he does is critically analyzed which leads to tremendous anxiety and stress among school going children who normally or naturally should be void of such feelings and simply enjoy the childhood by learning through play.
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Children today are taught everything right from language to music and dance. Nothing is left for play or joy. Today school educates a child in a way that he knows everything but understands nothing. The timetables are overloaded, games and P.T classes are being replaced by those of third language and computers. Today the parents and society want to groom the child’s personality even before it is formed.

*When a 4 ½ yr. old kindergarten student sent an application for a long leave, the teachers were concerned enough to call her house to ask if all was well. It was told by the parents that the girl had been sent to Delhi for a personality development course that she couldn’t undertake during summer vacations because of the heavy rush.* (India Today, June 14th, 2004)

The credibility of a school is judged by the number of toppers it produces every year than by the size of the play ground, the general care that the child gets and teacher attention on each child. The entire system as discussed earlier has become obsessed with text learned and performance in terms of marks obtained. The information over load and consequently the increasing curricular boundaries have encouraged rote learning and impersonal teachings as the teachers are preoccupied with course completion than student interest.

Modern education is not the only indicator of the stress and kind of life that a child of today leads. Another contributor is the pressure and burden to succeed and excel that parents put on their child. The expectations are not just limited to the parents. The burden of the child is further increased by the teacher’s expectations at school. The psychologists to investigate this effect of teacher expectation on students in depth were
Rosenthal and Jacobson (1992). When some children regardless of their actual IQ, were labeled as very bright, their IQ scores actually went up. Initially, they tested children in the first six years of primary school on an intelligence test and they labeled 20 percent of these as ‘bloomers’ – who would show unusual intelligence gains during the year. They then returned eight months later and found that in the first two grades the children labeled as ‘bloomers’ had showed a significant improvement in intelligence scores, compared to those for whom no positive expectations had been set up by his/her to ascribed IQ levels. This effect was termed as ‘Pygmalion Effect’ by the researchers.

Good and Brophy (1977) list the following ways that teachers have been observed to differentiate between those whom they regard as high achievers (highs) and those whom they regard as low achievers (lows).

1. Teachers allow less time for ‘lows’ to answer questions than they do for ‘highs’.

2. If ‘lows’ give a wrong answer teachers tend to pass on to the next child, without encouraging the ‘low’ by saying, for example, ‘try again’. On the other hand, if ‘highs’ give a wrong answer, teachers tend to encourage the child to make another attempt.

3. Teachers praise ‘lows’ less and criticize ‘lows’ more than ‘highs’.

4. Teachers pay less attention to ‘lows’ than they do to ‘highs’.

5. Teachers place ‘highs’ nearer to them in the classroom than they place ‘lows’.

Thus, teachers not only burden the child with expectation but also label his/her in categories. To worsen the situation further the child is not even helped, encouraged or given time to work towards moving up in the hierarchy of categories. The child observes
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this attitude of the teacher and the whole situation leaves the child with a bruised self-concept and low self-esteem.

Mash (1976) showed that children do observe and interpret teacher attitudes. March (1996) asked each child in a class of 34 twelve year olds to make a rank order of ability for the pupils in their class. He concluded that children ranked both themselves and their fellow pupil in much the same way as did the teacher.

Thus, we see that aspirations and expectations of parents and teachers today not only deprive the child of his much needed right of choice but causes stress which leads to mental health problems.

Stress reported ailments are on the rise with children. Headaches and backaches are the most common of the problem among school children as shown by Roth (2001). The weight of the school bag as a backpack that the child of today carries is so much that it lead to problems like backache and neck aches. Roth (2001) found that approximately 23 percent youth and 33 percent of secondary school youths complain of backache in USA. The heavy weight of the bags leads to physical exhaustion causing stress among children. Stress in children is indicated by drop out, loss of interest in schooling, manifested through mental health problem like depression, anxiety, suicidal tendencies eating disorders, and examination fever. The health problems arise due to demands of the educational system and the expectations of teachers and parents and the educational processes or both. Failure in examination, under achievement and the resulting frustration are becoming prominent features of educational life at school as well as at the higher educational levels, leading to a wide range of health problems having far reaching consequences for individuals as well as societal well being. A recent survey conducted by
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an NGO (Sahyog) in Delhi on a sample of 850 adolescent school children found that 57 percent of adolescents had suffered from depression and 9 percent attempted suicide in the past year. Out of the 850 students it surveyed, 480 said they ‘remained sad for more than two weeks’ at a stretch, a symptom that defines clinical depression. 15 percent of the students said they had considered attempting suicide, 8.5 percent had tried to kill themselves and of them, 2.2 percent tried more than once. Over 60 percent students said the pressure of school work was the leading cause of depression, with parental and peer pressure adding to the stress. 44 percent had no family support and 8 percent felt that their home atmosphere was “stressful” (The Hindustan Times, School Blues For Kids, March 16, 2004). The extent of health problems is reflected in a recent analysis of suicide among children and adolescents. Shah, Parkar and Maheshwari (1993) noted that failure in love affairs, failure in examination, and unemployment constitute the major causes of suicidal behaviour in India.

Clinically, suicide attempts are called Deliberate Self Harm (DSH). A study by Hawtonk, et.al (2003) investigated DSH in adolescents as it was a major health care problem. They monitored the trends and characteristics of those involved and came up with the following findings. ‘The number of DSH cases increased among female during the study period. While an association with school stress was suggested by their being lower DSH cases during the school holiday period, and the largest number occurring during term times’.

1 Using data from the Oxford Monitoring System for attempted suicides in adolescents aged 12-18 years between the years 1900-2000.
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In a study by Reddy (1994) data were collected from 435 cases of school going 5-16 year old children (whose both parents were alive), reported six clusters of mental health problems: childhood psychosis 18 percent, hysterical syndrome 28 percent, anxiety disorders 18 percent, conduct disorders 14 percent, attention deficit hyperactive syndrome 12 percent and scholastic backwardness 13.65 percent in India.

The need for praise and recognition is strong among children and is essential for a healthy development. Psychologists believe that it is only a child with a positive view of himself and his abilities who can maximally benefit from, and contribute to, the school experience. If a child has a healthy self image and positive self concept, he/she will be able to cope with the pressure of school life. One way a child learns to feel positive about him is through the way other people treat him. If they praise and recognize his efforts to cope with the demands of life, he will begin to gain confidence and security he needs for optimum development. We cannot ensure a continuous experience of positive feedback to children. However, we can help the child feel accepted no matter what, thereby fulfilling his/her need for ‘Unconditional positive regard’ as proposed by Rogger’s (1951).

This feeling of basic worth and acceptance under all circumstance gives the child the much needed confidence. The educational system along with the family has become result oriented. The acceptance of a child in society and also in his family is linked to his/her school performance.

All these go to indicate how child unfriendly the entire system is getting to be. A system founded on the principle of nurturing and supporting children has developed into one which has become a source of threat to their healthy existence.
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1.3 STRESS AND EDUCATION

Stress as an experience is universal but what make it complicated are the factors underlying it and the dynamics of experienced stress. Because of these two factors a person can feel relatively more stressed than another in the same situation. It may also be such that the same person in same situation at different times react or experience different levels of stress. Stress therefore is a relative phenomenon which requires that both the person’s attributes and the situation be kept in mind while dealing with it. Education as a situation for stress has been well understood and studied however, intervention and causal research has not been so vigorous. By the very nature of the educational system stress becomes inevitable and in modern times they are considered as locales of stress. Singhal (2004) identifies certain characteristics of educational institutions that make them stress locales, these characteristics are discussed below:

1. Teaching and learning are the primary tasks of educational institutions concerned with the process of change, which is stressful either because it instigates change or results from it (Schein, 1992).

2. The desire to learn, the learning process and the outcomes of learning carry inherent risks and uncertainty. Learning can change the learners in unpredictable ways. The results of learning are often judged through set standards, like centralized examinations. Success or failure in learning may impact the self-esteem of both the teacher and learner. A failure to learn may harm relations with parents and significant others.

3. The characteristics of teaching multidimensionality, simultaneity, immediacy, unpredictability, publicness and history are all potentially stressed inducing. The
teacher acts as a container of anxiety associated with learner’s learning (French, 1997), which exacerbates the teacher’s feelings of stress.

4. In educational institutions, there is always a crisis in the domain of social relationships. One, there is hardly any scope to develop stable relationships because of large classes and high work overload. Two, there is a continuous turnover of relationships. There is a sense of loss as older students leave after so much investment, and the new ones join requiring the forging of new relationships. The emotional turbulence causes stress.

5. The need of developing understanding of new subjects and syllabi, and arrangements and models of teaching and learning, provoking fears and apprehensions about their own capabilities and giving a stressful feeling that they will never be good enough.

6. Changes in governance and managements have increased institutional separation, responsibility and accountability, putting teachers/educators under constant pressure to perform.

7. Technological and societal changes have induced greater competition among students and teachers. The increased accountability, the eroding of the bases of professional authority, the undervaluing of profession, love of coaching/tutoring have led to increased stress.

8. Teaching and learning constitute the management of central life processes in educational institutions. These focus on maturation to adulthood and the preparation for adult life in its wider sense and through the acquisition of necessary qualifications, the passport to life-time success and security. Teaching and learning both are associated with deep ambitions, motivations and desires. Teachers and students both
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are accountable to each other, to parents and to the larger society. (Singhal, S. 2004, p. 3-4).

The factors underlying the dynamics of stress vary. A person can feel relatively more stressed than similar others in the same situation, thereby proving that the experience of stress is a relative phenomenon. Access to resources and the use of support systems tend to vary bringing in similar variations in the level of stress experienced by people. The literature on mental health as well as the sociology of emotions suggest that social differentiation in roles and status of persons can produce differences in their exposure to and experience of emotional distress (Pearlin, 1999). As research has shown, children entering into adolescence, their family relationships and particularly the interactions with parents undergo significant changes (Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn, 1991).

Shimda (1998) noted specific stressors and stress responses among elementary and junior high school students like the family, school and other sources like daily life hassles, poor performance in a specific examination, loss of a living object, the lack of personal capabilities, argument, quarrel with somebody and scolding. The experience of emotional distress can have negative consequences for children's development, such as low competence estimation (Pomerantz and Rudolph, 2003).

Educational settings are one of the most stress inducing places in the society, as discussed earlier there are individual differences in the experienced stress of individuals. Examinations are the time and event in the school calendar when stress rises to it maximum, because of emotional strain and pressures working on the student at that time. Another reason for high stress is that these examinations and their results become the indicators of success in life. So much importance is attached to them by the parents and
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society at large that the student under these pressures and expectations experiences high stress. In numerous academic situation test anxiety is known to have negative effect on students' cognitive functioning, psychological well-being, and performance (Becker, 1982; Schwarzer, 1986).

1.4 THE BURDEN OF SCHOOL EDUCATION

One of the only and possibly the best efforts made by the Government of India (GOI) in the direction of improving school education of the coming generations with the children in perspective was the constitution of the Yashpal Committee to look into the burden of children’s education. This committee was constituted after R.K. Narayan as members of Rajya Sabha and Shivram Karanth after observing the children on the streets carry heavy school bags pointed in the Rajya Sabha to the load that the children were carrying. This created much uproar in the Parliament and as a consequence of this the government constituted the Committee in 1992 which submitted its Report “Learning Without Burden” in 1993 to the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD). This report clearly stated that the students of both the private and public sector are burdened with private institutions accounting for greater burden than the public schools. The committee examined both the quantitative burden (in terms of hours of school, days of school and the weight of bags) and the qualitative (curricular) burden of schooling. The committee observed that the average weight of a primary school going child was 4kg in public schools and 1 kg in Municipal Cooperation of Delhi (MCD) schools. Talking on contemporary education and burden of children Professor Yashpal, in his preface, reflectively states that.
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‘After this study me and my colleagues on the committee are convinced that the more pernicious burden is that of non-comprehension. In fact, a significant fraction of children who drop out may be those who refuse to compromise with non-comprehension. They are potentially superior to those who just memorize and do well in examinations, without comprehending very much! [Yashpal Committee Report, DOE, 1993, Preface].

The committee was critical of the overall trend in curriculum and textbook preparation to package as much information as possible in a ‘highly compressed and abstruse manner’. Barring exceptions, our textbooks appear to have been written primarily to convey information or ‘facts’ rather than to make children think and explore. It further notes in its Report that:

‘The distance between the child’s every day life and the content of the textbook further accentuates the transformation of knowledge into load. Neither the mode of communication, nor the selection of objects depicted, nor the language conveys the centrality of the child in the world constructed by the text. Not just books used for the teaching of the natural and social science, but even those used for the teaching of the mother tongue are written in such stylized diction that children cannot be expected to see the language as their own. Words, expressions and nuances commonly used by children in their milieu are absent. So is humor. An artificial, sophisticated style dominates, reinforcing the tradition of distancing knowledge from life. The language used in text
books thus deepens the sense of 'tatiburden' attached to all school related knowledge'.

YASHPAL COMMITTEE RECOMMENDATIONS

The committee gave a set of recommendations which are as follows:

1. Discourage individual achievement and provide an opportunity for co-operative learning.
2. Teachers should be trained in book writings.
3. Textbooks treated as school property so that there is no need to carry books to school and back home.
4. Primary level children not to be given homework.
5. Teacher pupil ratio reduced to 1:30 instead of 1:40.
6. Create child centered social ethos in the country.
7. Practice of holding tests and interviews for admission to nursery class to be abolished.
8. Teacher’s involvement at all levels, i.e. curriculum, training of teachers in textbook writing.
   (i) Voluntary organization to be provided freedom and support in curriculum development.
   (ii) Educational committees at village, block and district level to supervise schools.
   (iii) Sufficient contingency grants to schools.
9. Appropriate legislative and administrative measures to be adopted to regulate the opening and functioning of school.
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10. Replacement of 'quiz type' questioning by concept based questioning in class X and XII examination.

Even after the recommendations and insights provided by the Yashpal Committee Report (1993), the recommendations have not been implemented nor have they triggered enough interest in the academic community to initiate research work. The Curricular aspect of the burden largely remains unattended by researchers. There is work on how and what a curriculum should comprise of but there has been little concerned regarding how the curriculum affects the life of a child.

A study was conducted to compare the findings of the Yashpal committee with the child’s situation in 2003\(^2\), a decade after the report of the Committee. It was found that the burden of childhood has not decreased in spite of the Yashpal Committee Report and recommendation. Figure 1.1 shows the increase in the bag weight from 1993 to 2003. Figure 1.2 shows the average weight carried by primary school students in government and private schools; the difference is negligible between the two which is a matter of further concern as government schools earlier had lighter bags. The study also reports that the burden has further increased in the form of extra curricular activity, teacher and parental expectations and the futuristic pressures due to these expectations and competition.

The important step that the GOI takes is the development of the National Curriculum Frameworks (NCF) discussing varied issues from the needs and goals of education to the curriculum requirements etc. This document is bought out by the apex

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educational body of India for research in education the National Council of Education Research and Training (NCERT) at intervals to guide the school education system. The curriculum framework that the NCERT makes is only advisory in nature so no school is legally bound by them. So even these small efforts made by the educational body are not effective enough to bear fruits. Another example of the state efforts is the attempt made by NCERT and others to make books look interesting with diagrams, tables and colored pages but little was done by way of reducing the overload of information burdening the child of today. What is required in not just a reduction in the monotony of learning but also in reducing the educational/work load?
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Fig. 1.1. Changes in weight of school bags from 1993 (Yashpal Committee Findings) and to 2003 (Shukla, 2003).

Source: Shukla, R. (2004). The Burdened Childhood: A Case Study of Educational Load Among Primary School Children in Delhi
Fig. 1.2. Average Weight Carried by Primary School Children of Government and Private Schools

(Shukla, 2003)

Source: Shukla, R. (2004). The Burdened Childhood: A Case Study of Educational Load among Primary School Children in Delhi
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The National Curriculum Framework for School Education (NCFSE, 2000) undertook as its objective 'reducing curriculum and load'. NCFSE addresses the issue of curriculum load in a manner which includes removal of obsolete and redundant content without affecting the overall continuity of the concept, removing the mismatch between the development capacities of the child and the curricular expectations, improving teaching learning methods, reducing emphasis on homework, discouraging memorization of large number of facts and shifting from the 'content' to the process of 'learning'.

The NCFSE (2000) was the first major curricular policy framework to follow the Yashpal committee recommendation of 1993. The NCFSE (2000), tried to implement through its curricular framework the recommendations of the Yashpal committee.

Table 1: Recommendations of the Yashpal Committee Report and the NCFSE 2000.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendation No.</th>
<th>Major Recommendations of Yashpal Committee</th>
<th>Provision in NCFSE-2000</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The culture of writing textbooks be changed so as to involve a much large number of teachers in the preparation of textbooks. The scientists and experts in various disciplines may be associated with the preparation of textbooks as consultants and not as writers of the books.</td>
<td>NCERT is following this recommendation in toto. We are inviting top most scientists, experts, and professionals in various disciplines and they are associated with the advisory committees for textbook preparation. Also number of practicing teachers is being associated in the developmental process for writing textbooks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (a)</td>
<td>Inadequate programme of teacher preparation leads to unsatisfactory quality of learning in schools.... Therefore B.Ed. degree courses by correspondence be de-recognized</td>
<td>NCFSE suggests professional support for teacher education system both at pre-service and in-service levels; besides networking of teacher education institutions and monitoring and evaluation of teacher education programmes to remove inadequacies in the teacher education programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (b)</td>
<td>Mathematics curriculum for primary classes in all parts of the</td>
<td>NCFSE has suggested integration of environmental concerns with mathematics and</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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| 2 (c) | Science syllabi and textbooks in the primary classes should provide greater room and necessity for experimentation that they do at present. In place of didactism in areas like health and sanitation, the texts should emphasis analytical reflection on real-life situations. A great deal of trivial materials included in primary-level science texts should be dropped. |
| 2 (d) | Besides imparting knowledge of history and geography, the social science curriculum for classes VI-VIII and IX-X should convey the philosophy and methodology of the functions of our socio-political and economic system and enable the students to analyze, understand and reflect on the problems and priorities of socio-economic development. The repetitious nature of history of ancient times should be introduced for systematic study in language curriculum in Grades I and II. It has also suggested to make mathematics curriculum more child-friendly and interesting for children at the primary stage. Such changes are being brought out by NCERT in the new instructional material. |

NCFSE has considered this recommendation very seriously and has recommended total integration of environmental studies in primary grades. There will not be EVS, I EVS II hence forth. From class III to V the whole strategy revolves around analytical reflections of real life situations. Activities suggested are likely to be more interesting for children and helpful in bringing about desirable changes in their skill, attitudes and habits. Trivial material would not find a place at all. NCFSE is busy translating this challenge in to a reality.

NCFSE has acted upon this recommendation in a realistic manner. An integrated subject under the title social studies has been introduced at upper primary and secondary stages which would enable children appreciate philosophy and methodology of the function of our socio, political and socio economic system in a holistic manner. History component of the social studies syllabus will be presented in such a interconnected manner so as to focus on freedom struggle on the one hand and the post independent developments on the other hand. Social Studies at secondary stage would help students to analyze, understand and reflect on
secondary classes (IX and X). The history syllabus for classes VI-VIII should focus on the freedom struggle and post independence development. Suggestions have been made to put curbs on repetitious nature of history syllabus, besides introducing systematic study of the ancient times at secondary level.

Source: Shukla, R. (2004). The Burdened Childhood: A Case Study of Educational Load Among Primary School Children in Delhi

The NCF 2000 curricular framework immediately following the committee report took some note of the recommendation. The NCF 2005 has made references to the report proposals but at large as the picture exist the policy level changes in line with Yashpal committee have been few and on the ground levels as the findings of the study Shukla,(2004) show that the burden has further increased. The NCF 2005 draws from the Yashpal Committee Report:

"To address this deep structural problem, the present document draws upon and elaborates on the insights of Learning Without Burden. Rather than prescribe, this document seeks to enable teachers and administrators and other agencies involved in the design of syllabi and textbooks and examination reform make rational choices and decisions. It will also enable them to develop and implement innovative, locale-specific programmes. By contextualising the challenges involved in curriculum renewal in contemporary social reality, this document draws attention to certain specific problems that demand an imaginative response. We expect that it will strengthen ongoing processes of reform, such as devolution of decision making to teachers and elected local-level bodies, while it also identifies new areas for attention such as the need for plurality of textbooks and urgent improvement in the examination system." (NCF 2005,p.3)
In spite of the committees and framework, the situation of the child largely remains unchanged. One of the major weaknesses of the attempts to bring about curricular reform in the past has been the lack of a comprehensive plan to link curricular changes with the process of teaching, learning, teacher training and examination reform. The total failure of the efforts is perhaps due to the fact that the committee recommendation and the NCERT curricular guidelines are purely advisory in nature and the government on its part has made no effort to pass legislation for effective implementation of these advises. Hence, the curriculum of today caters to the needs of the child as a learner and not a person. The learner too is not helped to understand and establish relation and association in his information but taught simply to memorise information and reproduce it on the answer sheets.

Research shows that the level of interest is an important determinant of learning. Interest based learning is said to be life long learning and one that brings about positive and healthy development (Krapp, 2002). Interest, off late has been distinguished into two categories, personal or individual and situational. Personal approach looks at individual differences in interest levels whereas situational approach centers on creating an environment conducive for the development and sustenance of interest and motivated learning (Hidi & Berndorff, 1998 and Mitchell, 1993). Motivated learning where the interest of the student is intact (intrinsically motivated learning) is the ideal condition for lifelong learning but motivation in learning can also be nurtured through the environment, though it is very difficult to achieve. Contemporary school system has no environment which supports and nurtures interest and motivation. They are completely
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based on external rewards. As research notes motivation is an important constituent in lifelong learning and also in reducing the burden of education.

1.4 UNDERSTANDING MOTIVATIONAL DYNAMICS OF SCHOOL LEARNING

Motivation refers to the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of human behavior. Motivation is a word used to refer to the reason or reasons for engaging in a particular behaviour. These reasons may include basic needs such as food or a desired object, hobbies, goal, state of being, or ideal. The motivation for a behavior may also be attributed to less-apparent reasons such as altruism or morality. Intrinsic motivation is defined as engagement in actions for their own sake with the only tangible benefit being outcomes such as pleasure, learning, satisfaction, interest, or challenge. Extrinsic motivation occurs when learners engage in activities for the purpose of reward from an external source, for example running a race to win a prize, attaining rewards, such as praise or high grades (Alderman, 1999). Engaging in behavior to avoid punishment is also regarded as an extrinsic motivation.

1.4.1 THE NATURE OF MOTIVATION

Motivation concerns energy, direction, persistence and equifinality—all aspects of activation and intention. Motivation has been a central and perennial issue in the field of psychology, for it is at the core of biological, cognitive, and social regulation. Perhaps more important, in the real world, motivation is highly valued because of the consequences that motivation produces. It is therefore of pre-eminent concern to those in roles such as teacher, coach and parent that involve mobilizing others to act.
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Although motivation is often treated as a singular construct, even superficial reflection suggests that people are moved to act by very different types of factors, with highly varied experiences and consequences. People can be motivated because they value an activity or because there is strong external coercion. They can be urged into action by an abiding interest or by a bribe. They can behave from a sense of personal commitment to excel or from fear of being surveilled. These contrasts between cases of having internal motivation versus being externally pressured are surely familiar to everyone. The issue of whether people stand committed to a behavior out of their interests and values, or do it for reasons external to the self, is a matter of significance in every culture (e.g., Johnson, 1993) and represents a basic dimension by which people make sense of their own and others’ behavior (deCharms, 1968; Heider, 1958; Ryan & Connell, 1989).

1.4.2 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation as concept has been discussed in psychology for long and was at one time regarded as the pivot around which human behaviour exists. The concept which was first understood in terms of need (primarily in the form of physical need) defined as the lack of something vital in the organ or as a lack of homeostasis in the body that produced a disturbance in the psyche that was expressed in the form of the dynamic properties of behaviour. The concept was widely researched and several theories were proposed on this dynamic property of behaviour on the basis of needs. Discussed below are some of the important theoretical propositions.

Drive reduction theories (1940’s Hull and others) are based on the concept of thermostat like that in Freudian system where there is a feedback control system which provides information to the organ about the development of a need and then its satiation
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and thus hampers and restores the normal functioning of the system. These theories have been criticized on the ground that they do not completely explain human behaviour. Example is that the drive theory states that the drive increases to such an extent that they require the organism to seek instant gratification, but if we observe human behaviour we will see that this is not exactly how humans behave.

The need hierarchy theory was proposed by Abraham Maslow (1954) and is also known as the hierarchical (physical needs to psychological needs) or prepotency (satisfaction of the lower need before the next one is achieved) theory of need. The theory states that needs develop in a sequential manner and for an individual to progress from one need to the other it is important that the previous need on the list of hierarchy be satisfied first. The needs stated in the theory in ascending order are physical needs (food and water), safety need, belongingness, esteem, and Self Actualization. The top most being Self-actualization is the need the only a few people can satisfy as most of the beings are caught in the satisfaction of the lower needs of food and shelter. Self Actualization is the “desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming.” This theory is the most popular and widely cited theories of motivation.

The theory is summarized as:

- Human beings have wants and desires which influence behavior: only unsatisfied needs can influence behavior, satisfied needs do not have the strength to influence behaviour.
- Needs are many so they are arranged from the basic need to the most complex.
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- The person advances from one need to the other after the lower level need is at least minimally satisfied.
- The greater the progress up the hierarchy ladder, the more individuality, humanness and psychological health a person will show.

Cognitive Dissonance Theory given by Leon Festinger (1956), deals with the experienced discomfort resulting from an incompatibility between two cognitions. For example, a person who wishes two contrary things at the same time would experience a discomfort as he needs both the things but can have only one and thus has to make a choice between the two.

Dissonance can be in three ways
1. Avoidance-Avoidance (two equally negative goals of which one has to be chosen).
2. Approach-Avoidance (two choices of which one is positive and one is negative).
3. Approach-Approach (to equally positive tasks of which one needs to be chosen).

David McClelland (1961) gave the Achievement Motivation Theory that suggests that every person has a need based on three things but every person differs in the degree to which these needs influence her/his behavior. The three needs that he suggested are Need for Achievement, Need for Power, and Need for Affiliation. Need for achievement or N-Ach is the basis for all human action that springs from the need to succeed, achieve and have social recognition. Need for power or N-Pow is the basis for all behaviour that is directed towards gaining of control over ones environmental and to be in control of ones life. Affiliation is a need to belonging, to be part of a social whole where one has relations and emotional support in inside and outside the family.
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These two theories are among the most important theories of motivation with need as its basic focus. After the need theories came the concept of drive in motivational research. Drive is conceptually understood to have its basis in the organic needs of the individual, but is more than needs by virtue of their tendency to push an organism to action. This push from the drives gains its strength from the length of deprivation of that need and as this length increases the capacity of that individual to focus on any other need decreases and the urgency to satisfy this particular drive becomes unavoidable. At this point the only focus of the individual is reduction of the drive.

Frederick Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory (1959) also known as Intrinsic/Extrinsic Motivation, concludes that certain factors in the workplace result in job satisfaction, while others do not, but if absent lead to dissatisfaction. The theory is sometimes called the "Motivator-Hygiene Theory" as he distinguished between:

- Motivators; (e.g. challenging work, recognition, responsibility) which give positive satisfaction, and
- Hygiene factors; (e.g. status, job security, salary and fringe benefits) that do not motivate if present, but, if absent, result in demotivation.

The name Hygiene factors is used because, like hygiene, the presence will not make you healthier, but absence can cause health deterioration.

Another theory of motivation is the ERG Theory or the Theory for Existence Relatedness and Growth. In the theory propounded by Clayton Alderfer (1969), Maslow’s hierarchy of needs was expanded, leading to his ERG theory (existence, relatedness and growth). Physiological and safety, the lower order needs, are placed in
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the existence category, Love and self esteem needs in the relatedness category. The growth category contained the self actualization and self esteem needs.

The next theory discussed is the Goal-Setting Theory based on the notion that individuals sometimes have a drive to reach a clearly defined end state. Often, this end state is a reward in itself. A goal's efficiency is affected by three features; proximity, difficulty and specificity. An ideal goal should present a situation where the time between the initiation of behavior and the end state is close. This explains why some children are more motivated to learn how to ride a bike than mastering algebra. A goal should be moderate, not too hard or too easy to complete. In both cases, most people are not optimally motivated, as many want a challenge (which assumes some kind of insecurity of success). At the same time people want to feel that there is a substantial probability that they will succeed. Specificity concerns the description of the goal in their class. The goal should be objectively defined and intelligible for the individual. A classic example of a poorly specified goal is to set the target to get the highest possible grade. Most children have no idea how much effort they need to reach that goal.

1.4.3 SUMMARY OF THE CONCEPTS OF MOTIVATION

There have been several theories of motivation such as need theories and drive theories. None of them however deal with the concept of intrinsic motivation in specific and were basically discussing what motivation is and how it can be enhanced, it was later that the concept of intrinsic motivation came into the theoretical framework. Koch (1956, 1961) was the first scholar to make assertions that motivational theory needs to include intrinsic motivation. The concept and some of the theories of Intrinsic Motivation have been further discussed.
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1.5 INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Woodworth (1918, 1956) developed the Behaviour-Primacy Theory in which he mentioned intrinsically motivating behaviour. He proposes that one’s behaviour is aimed at producing an effect on the environment around. He views people as competent organism that acts on the environment. He noted that behaviour is capable of producing its own drive like curiosity and self-assertion and constructiveness. He called them “native equipment” or innate capacity. Allport (1937) talked of “Functional Autonomy” i.e. an activity which irrespective of its initiating motive can become intrinsically interesting.

Some psychologists believe that a significant portion of human behavior is energized and directed by unconscious motives. According to Maslow: "Psychoanalysis has often demonstrated that the relationship between a conscious desire and the ultimate unconscious aim that underlies it need not be at all direct" in other words, he stated motives do not always match those inferred by skilled observers. For example, it is possible that a person can be accident-prone because he has an unconscious desire to hurt himself and not because he is careless or ignorant of the safety rules. Some workers damage more equipment than others because they harbor unconscious feelings of aggression toward authority figures.

Psychotherapists point out that some behavior is so automatic that the reasons for it are not available in the individual’s conscious mind. Compulsive cigarette smoking is an example. Sometimes maintaining self-esteem is so important and the motive for an activity is so threatening that it is simply not recognized and, in fact, may be disguised or repressed. Rationalization, or “explaining away”, is one such disguise, or defense
mechanism, as it is called. Repression of powerful but socially unacceptable motives may result in outward behavior that is the opposite of the repressed tendencies.

Intrinsic motivation is the natural inclination toward mastery, spontaneous interest, assimilation, and exploration that is so essential to social cognitive and development and that represents a principal source of enjoyment and vitality throughout life (Csikszentmihalyi & Rathunde, 1993; Ryan, 1995).

1.5.1 ENHANCING INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Some researchers believe that intrinsic motivation can be enhanced through the use of particular strategies, and have sought to correlate the design of specific educational materials and an increase in learning performance. Thus far, studies have found no evidence to establish that the interest value of material is a determinant--as opposed to a consequence--of learning (Parker & Lepper, 1992). However, some useful strategies that can promote intrinsic motivation have been proposed. Lepper and Hodell (1989) suggest four methods for enhancing intrinsic motivation:

**Challenge:** Design challenging activities which convey the message to the learners that they have competitive skills. It is essential to find a balance between learner competence and the difficulty of the goals. Overly difficult goals are unlikely to increase learner motivation to continue the task if the learners perceive they will never reach the goal. Similarly, goals that are too easily attained do not sufficiently challenge learners to encourage skill development.

**Curiosity:** Activities that create disequilibria for the learners can elicit curiosity. Presenting discrepant ideas--those that conflict with their prior knowledge or beliefs--can prompt students to seek information that will resolve the discrepancy. As with challenge,
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Moderate discrepancies are most effective because they are easily incorporated into an individual’s mental framework; large discrepancies may be rapidly discounted (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996, p.277).

Control: A sense of responsibility will be better fostered in learners if they are allowed to make meaningful choices in the learning process.

Fantasy: The design of simulations and games that involve fantasy can increase intrinsic motivation.

Unconscious motives add to the hazards of interpreting human behavior and to the extent that they are present, complicate the life of the administrator. On the other hand, knowledge that unconscious motives exist can lead to a more careful assessment of behavioral problems. Although few contemporary psychologists deny the existence of unconscious factors, many do believe that these are activated only in times of anxiety and stress, and that in the ordinary course of events, human behavior — from the subject’s point of view — is rationally purposeful.

Intrinsic motivation, researchers found that some intentional behaviours were initiated and regulated autonomously whereas others were initiated and regulated by coercive and pressuring environmental and intrapsychic forces (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1987).

Theories of Intrinsic Motivation

Fowler (1965, 1967), asserts that drive theories can account for intrinsically motivated behaviour only if they are modified to include the concept of optimal arousal. However much of the work related to intrinsic motivation has considered the need for a moderate level of stimulation to function effectively. Some theorists have been concerned
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with the psychological level, positing a need for an optimum of psychological incongruity, whereas others have been concerned with the psychological level positing need for an optimum of psychological arousal in the central nervous system.

The approach to conceptualizing intrinsic motivation which has received the most attention in the last two decades has discrepancy or incongruity as its central notion. Hebb (1945, 1946a, 1946b; Hebb and Riesen, 1943) implied that all incongruity inaversive. Hunt (1963, 1965, 1971a, 1971b) has been one of the strongest spokesman for this perspective.

Hunt (1965) gave the theory that centered on the notion of an optimal level of psychological incongruity ie. humans are motivated to maintain an optimal level of incongruity. This notion, has also been supported by McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953), Hebb (1955), Leuba (1955), Dember and Earl (1957), Fiske & Maddi (1961), and Berlyne (1967, 1969). All of them suggested that there is a characteristic (i.e. optimal) level of arousal and that organism seek to maintain this level. The optimal level, however, is not stationary, but rather, it varies with the stage of a person’s sleep-waking cycle. The optimum however is a continuous variable and is a function of the organism’s degree of wakefulness.

Another approach to explaining intrinsically motivated behaviour involves uncertainty reduction. Kagan (1972) has asserted that this is the goal of one class of human motives. Kagan believes that resolving uncertainty is one of the important classes of motives, and that it can explain a considerable amount of behaviour. “Uncertainty is characterized, in part, by incompatibility between (two or more) cognitive structures,
between cognitive structures and experience, or between cognitive structures and behaviour "(Kagan, 1972, p.54).

Another important perspective in intrinsic motivation is that of competence and self-determination. White (1959) conceptualized competence as one's ability or capacity to deal effectively with his surroundings. This conception compasses such things as exploration, manipulation, attention, perception, thought, and communication, since all these activities are necessary for acting effectively on one's environment. Angyal (1941) preceded White in attaching considerable importance to the notion of competence in dealing with one's environment. Kagan (1972) proposed that humans have a motive for mastery which has its origins in their desire to achieve standards, predict the future, and define their selves. Deci (e.g., 1972a: Deci, Cascio & Krusell, 1973) has also assessed that people engage in many behaviour in order to feel a sense of competence and self-determination.

Table 2: Approaches to intrinsic motivation and there primary proponents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches</th>
<th>Proponents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drive naming</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Exploratory</td>
<td>Montgomery, 1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Manipulation Sensory</td>
<td>Harlow, 1953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Visual</td>
<td>Isaac, 1962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Butler, 1953</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optimal Incongruity (Psychological Processes)</td>
<td>Hunt, 1955; Dember &amp; Earl, 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optimal Arousal (Physiological Processes)</td>
<td>Hebb, 1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty Reduction</td>
<td>Kagan, 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Festinger, 1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence and Self-Determination</td>
<td>Deci et. Al., 1973</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The intrinsic motivation theories account for that behavior is motivated by desires that both reduce and induce stimulation. The fact has been handled in the three approaches to intrinsic motivation namely (1.) Optimal Arousal (e.g. Hebb 1955; Leuba 1955); (2.) Optimal Incongruity Theories (e.g., Hunt 1965; Dember and Earl, 1957; Berlyne, 1973); and (3.) Competence and Self-Determination Theories (e.g. White, 1959; de Charms, 1968; and Deci, 1972).

The Reduction-of-Uncertainty approaches (Kagan, 1972; Lanzetta, 1971), however, failed to consider that many behaviors are intended to induce stimulation or uncertainty. Therefore, the postulate of a need to reduce uncertainty has been useful in accounting for a considerable amount of research data; it is less useful than other approaches for integrating the work on intrinsic motivation.

Drive theories too have proved relatively inadequate for explaining intrinsic motivation or developing an understanding of the concept. Optimal incongruity, optimal arousal, and competence theories are the ones holding the greatest potential.

Competence and optimal-incongruity approaches are psychological theories of intrinsic motivation focusing on psychological or physiological aspects.

To choose between the two approaches which more or less talk about the same phenomenon. The difference is that the competence theories talk of a positive affect end state whereas in optimal incongruity theory the organization achieves the optimum. Competence and self-determination approach deal with the aspect of humans of managing the environment or feeling able to deal with the challenging situation of the environment.
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According to White competence and self-determination is the feeling of being effective in the interactions with the environment. Therefore, the competence and self-determination approach explain intrinsic motivation better and therefore should be preferred over others.

1.5.2 INTRINSIC MOTIVATION AND EDUCATION

Children by nature are intrinsically motivated to learn; this is because they want to learn about the surroundings they live in so that they can deal effectively with the environment. The intrinsic motivation to learn also exists because children want to know about themselves, develop a sense of Self-efficacy in order to effectively handle and manipulate the environment. However, this natural curiosity or intrinsic motivation in the child often remains curbed and results in a disinterested student at school. One of the important ways that have been seen to be effective in sustaining and nurturing this intrinsic motivation is by leaving the child free of the external rewards and punishments Bruner (1962). It is found that giving reward and punishment to a child leads them into a pattern of doing things because they bring reward and this pattern leads to “learning” being viewed as something they do for the sake of the reward that it brings. As cognitive evaluation theory says the locus of causality of learning which originally is internal gradually through reward and punishment becomes external. Bruner states “... to the degree that one is able to approach learning as a task of discovering something rather than ‘learning about’ it, to that degree there will be a tendency for the child to work with the autonomy of self-reward or, more properly, be rewarded by discovery itself” (1962, pp.88). The intrinsically motivated child in the long run learns to interpret success and
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failure as information, rather than reward and punishment and is therefore less ruled and hence not stressed.

Contemporary educational system has burdened the child so much that it has affected their mental health and also totally changed the lifestyle of children. Most of their time is spent on academic activities and the remaining time is spent on several other structured activities of learning such as dance or a musical instrument. The rigid time bound and disciplined way of doing nearly everything around the child has made activities and specially education very mechanical. Moreover, the increased number of rules, do's and don’t in a child’s life has made things very externally determined. The joy of just doing things or intrinsic motivation is totally lacking. It is partly because of this that schooling and education have become a burden to the child as they are externally determined. The self-determination theory discusses intrinsic motivation and its role in education.

Social psychological impact of educational load and current problems with early childhood education can be understood within the existing psychological theories of personality and motivation etc., such as Bandura’s theory of personality and concept of self-efficacy, concepts like competence, mastery and locus of control also help in understanding the processes of stress in early childhood education and the impact of the same on children’s mental health. A theory which has been specifically found to be suitable for educational context is Ryan and Deci’s Self-Determined Theory (STD). To differentiate autonomous from controlled intentions, Deci (1980) adopted the term self-determination (in contrast to intentions that were externally other determined, reward determined, guilt determined etc).
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1.6 BANDURA’S THEORY OF SELF

Bandura’s theory emphasizes the social origins of behavior in addition to the cognitive thought processes that influence human behavior and functioning. Bandura’s social-cognitive/learning approach represents learning as independent of direct reinforcement i.e. learning can occur simply through observation of models and in the absence of reinforcement. The Social Learning Theory has self-efficacy as one of its major concepts and is also the most popular, and is sometimes also known as the Theory of Self-Efficacy.

Albert Bandura’s (1986, 1993, and 1997) theory of self-efficacy has important implications with regard to motivation (Schunk, 1991, 1996). Bandura’s basic principle is that people are likely to engage in activities to the extent that they perceive themselves to be competent at those activities.

Self-efficacy affects some of the factors that predict motivation. According to Bandura (1982), self-efficacy is a self-judgment of one’s ability to perform a task in a specific domain. However, a high degree of self-efficacy in one domain does not necessarily transfer to other areas of endeavor. High self-efficacy positively affects performance; this good performance will in turn enhance self-efficacy.

Sources of self-efficacy:

Bandura (1997) identified four factors that affect self-efficacy:

- Mastery experiences: one’s personal experience with success or failure.
- Vicarious experiences: The learners can imitate their models’ skills, or copy the strategies that the models use.
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- Verbal persuasion: Learners can be motivated by using verbal feedback to convince or encourage them to accomplish their tasks.
- Physiological state: Anxiety, nervousness, rapid heart rate, sweating; these symptoms often occur when learners face challenges that require competence to overcome.

Improving self-efficacy: There are various means of strengthening self-efficacy.

- **Feedback**: Encouragement and in-depth, informative feedback from teachers are important influence on self-efficacy.
- **Model**: Exposing learners to a non-expert model (peer model) conquering the challenges successfully can help learners increase their motivation and self-efficacy.
- **Successful experience**: It is the teachers' responsibility to help learners achieve academic success by providing challenging, yet attainable tasks.

With regard to education, this means that learners will be more likely to attempt, to persevere, and to be successful at tasks at which they have a sense of efficacy. Learners' failure may occur because they lack the skills to succeed or because they have the skills but lack the sense of efficacy to use these skills well.

Bandura (1989) has identified factors that are likely to reduce students' feelings of positive self-efficacy:

1. Lock-step sequences of instruction that may cause some children to get lost along the way,
2. Ability groupings that further diminish the self-efficacy of those in lower ranks, and
3. Competitive practices in which many students are doomed to failure from the start.

Schunk (1989) has conducted experiments that successfully applied self-efficacy principles to instruction that foster perceptions of self-efficacy by

- helping learners set specific, attainable goals;
- modeling cognitive strategies that include statements of self-efficacy;
- helping the students focus feedback on the successful application of effort to achieve useful sub skills;
- supplying positive incentives; and
- Encouraging students to verbalize effective task strategies.

Social learning or self-efficacy theory focus motivated behavior as a product of the outcomes and feelings generated. The theory sees autonomy of behavior as controlled behavior or behavior which is a product of a perceived locus of causality. Therefore self-efficacy theory sees the human agency as neutral or agentic because they involve people acting only when they feel they can attain desired outcomes. Bandura also suggests that one of the most important aspects of self-efficacy is the person's perception of self-regulatory efficacy. In other words, students will learn better if they believe that they are good at managing their thinking strategies in a productive manner. The self-efficacy theory views human agency as agentic which limits the understanding of human behavior and presents a very simplistic and therefore unrealistic picture of human behavior. The theory also does not acknowledge the intrinsic activity and growth tendencies of the individuals thus further limiting the human agency.
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1.7 SELF-REGULATION: CONCEPT AND ITS INFLUENCE ON MOTIVATION

Self-regulation as a concept is understood as the feeling within an individual that s/he is the source or origin of their behavior.

1.7.1 SELF-REGULATION AND VOLITION

Volition is one of the most important factors contributing to self-regulation. According to Corno (1994, p. 229), volition is "the tendency to maintain focus and effort toward goals despite potential distractions". As in the context of education one can see that for some reason, some learners overcome barriers and difficulties to ensure that academic goals are reached.

Some independent learners require little attention from their teachers. They know how to adopt learning strategies; they understand their competencies in specific domains, and commit to their academic goals. These students have volition and can be described as "self-regulated" learners. Zimmerman (1989) pointed out that students can be described as self-regulated to the degree that they are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own learning processes. Three assumptions are involved in the definition: self-regulated learning strategies, self-efficacy perceptions of skill performance, and a commitment to academic goals. Self-regulated learning is determined by personal, environmental, and behavioral events: Personal influences--students' knowledge and goals; Behavioral influences--self-observation, self-judgment, and self-reaction; Environmental influences--verbal persuasion and modeling.
1.7.2 POSSIBLE SELF

A vision of a possible self is the first step in developing self-regulation (Alderman, 1999). Possible selves are how one "images" the self and the future. Possible selves represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become (positive possible selves), and especially what they are afraid of becoming (negative possible selves) (Markus & Ruvolo, 1989). Examples of positive possible selves might be earning a master's degree, becoming a good baseball player, or getting an "A" on a math exam. Negative possible selves could include fear of becoming homeless or failing a physics exam. Developing a positive view of the future helps learners enhance their motivation and commitment to academically supportive personal goals.

Alderman (1999) indicated that the formation of possible selves is influenced by developmental factors, socio cultural factors, attributional history and self-efficacy judgments. For example: 'A' has an interest in media. He is influenced by his music teacher and decides to become a keyboard player. 'A' tries to enhance his keyboard playing skills; his playing continually improves with practice. Encouragement from others and the positive experience of playing the keyboard increase his self-efficacy, which helps him to develop a concrete goal for the future. 'A' attributes his success to internal, controllable, and stable causes. He stresses the value of effort over other factors.

Como and Zimmerman (1994) developed a volitional control activities and enhancement list as mentioned below:

Activities in Volitional Enhancement Curriculum

1. Teacher and students list possible distractions when studying.
2. Teacher and students make a master list of the most frequent distractions and categorize them as to where they occur or if they were distracting thoughts.

3. Teacher and students list ways that students usually use to handle distractions; then match the response with the distraction and evaluate how well it works. The most effective way is to refocus on the task.

4. Teacher models and demonstrates both effective and ineffective responses to a distracting situation.

5. Teacher leads students through a 20-item quiz requiring identification and classification of more effective strategies.

6. Using written scenarios, small groups of students role play more effective strategies for handling distractions. Peer audience evaluates actors' strategies.

7. Teacher reminds students that he or she will be looking for evidence of the students using strategies to handle distractions and do their work. The teacher selects key tasks to observe and records the amount of time on task by groups and individuals. Students self-evaluate; then results are discussed with students.

Self-regulation is not a fixed characteristic of learners. Employing appropriate strategies can help learners to develop self-regulation and volition. Zimmerman (1998) designed a table to compare experts' methods of self-regulation across different disciplines. Familiarity with these self-regulated methods is not only useful in learning, but once mastered, the techniques can be useful throughout life to function effectively in informal contexts (Corno, L., 1994).
Table 3. Self-regulatory Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-regulatory Processes</th>
<th>Writers</th>
<th>Musicians</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goal setting</td>
<td>Setting daily word or page goals</td>
<td>Setting daily practice session goals</td>
<td>Making lists to accomplish during studying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Strategies</td>
<td>Creating outcomes or generative cues</td>
<td>Playing a piece slowly and softly</td>
<td>Creating mnemonics to remember facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagery</td>
<td>Imagining a plot in visual detail</td>
<td>Imagining the presence of an audience</td>
<td>Imagining the consequences of failing to study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Instruction</td>
<td>Saying aloud what will be written</td>
<td>Verbally praising or prompting oneself</td>
<td>Rehearsing steps in solving a math problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Management</td>
<td>Scheduling daily writing, especially time in the morning</td>
<td>Scheduling daily practice to avoid extremes</td>
<td>Scheduling daily studying and homework time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Monitoring</td>
<td>Keeping records of literary production</td>
<td>Keeping daily records of performance, for example, stress levels</td>
<td>Keeping records of completed assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Evaluation</td>
<td>Putting off text self-judgments during creation</td>
<td>Listening to self-recording, setting realistic standards</td>
<td>Checking work before handing it to the teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Consequences</td>
<td>Putting off pleasurable events until writing is completed</td>
<td>Refusing to end practice until passage is played flawlessly</td>
<td>Making TV or telephoning contingent on homework completion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Structuring</td>
<td>Controlling writing setting and conditions</td>
<td>Performing with specific tools or instruments, i.e., a metronome</td>
<td>Studying in a secluded place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help Seeking</td>
<td>Obtaining literary advice or feedback from colleague</td>
<td>Returning to teachers when techniques slip</td>
<td>Using a study partner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Self-regulation Learning Strategies

| Table 4. Self-Regulated Learning Strategies | Statements indicating student-initiated evaluations of the quality or progress of their work; e.g., "I check over my work to make sure I did it right". |
| 1. Self-evaluating | Statements indicating student-initiated overt or covert rearrangement of instructional materials to improve learning; e.g., "I make an outline before I write my paper". |
| 2. Organizing and transforming | Statements indicating students' setting of educational goals or sub-goals, and planning for sequencing, timing, and completing activities related to those goals; e.g., "First, I start studying two weeks before the exams, and I pace myself." |
| 3. Goal-setting and planning | Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to secure further task information from nonsocial sources when undertaking an assignment; e.g., "Before beginning to write the paper, I go to the library to get as much information as possible concerning the topic." |
| 4. Seeking information | Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to record events or results; e.g., "I took notes of the class discussions"; "I kept a list of the words I got wrong." |
| 5. Keeping records and monitoring | Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to select or arrange the physical setting to make learning easier. e.g., "I isolate myself from anything that distracts me"; "I turn off the radio so I can concentrate on what I am doing." |
| 6. Environmental structuring | Statements indicating student arrangement or imagination of rewards or punishment for success or failure; e.g., "If I do well on a test, I treat myself to a movie." |
| 7. Self-consequating | Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to memorize material by overt or covert practice; e.g., "In preparing for a math test, I keep writing the formula down until I remember it." |
| 8. Rehearsing and memorizing | Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to solicit help from peers (9), teachers (10), and adults (11); e.g., "If I have problems with math assignments, I ask a friend to help." |
| 9-11. Seeking social assistance | Statements indicating student-initiated efforts to reread notes (12), tests (13), or textbooks (14) to prepare for class or further testing; e.g., "When preparing for a test, I review my notes." |

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In terms of its importance, self-determination relates not only to intrinsic motivation but also to other educationally important phenomenon, such as optimal functioning, personality integration, social development, internationalization of extrinsic motivation, and personal well being (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1987, 1991, 2000 Deci, Vallernad, Pelletier, and Ryan, 1991; Grolinck and Ryan, 1987; Ryan & Deci, 2000, Sheldon & Nasser, 1998; Vallerand, Fortier & Guay, 1997). Self determination as a concept has been difficult both to define theoretically and to assess psychometrically. The term self-determination has the underlying theoretical concept of autonomy along with three other qualities of perceived locus of causality (deCharms, 1968, 1976, Deci & Ryan, 1985, Ryan & Groluick, 1986.), volition and perceived choice.

1.8 SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY (SDT)

Self-determination theory, developed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (1985), focuses on the importance of intrinsic motivation in driving human behavior. Like Maslow's hierarchical theory and others that built on it, SDT posits a natural tendency towards growth and development. Unlike these other theories, however, SDT does not include any sort of "autopilot" for achievement, but instead requires active encouragement from the environment. The primary factors that encourage motivation and development are autonomy, competence feedback, and relatedness they also sustenance and improvement of the intrinsic motivation in persons Self-Determination Theory suggests that motivation actually is a need based concept with effects on the person's cognitions and vice versa. SDT focus on how human behaviors are volitional or self-determined – ie. the degree to which people endorse their actions at the highest level of reflection and engage in the actions with a full sense of choice.
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SDT is an approach to human motivation and personality that uses traditional empirical methods while employing an organismic Meta theory that highlights the importance of humans' evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation (Ryan, Kuhl, & Deci, 1997). One of the Meta theories Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) addresses the effects of social contexts on intrinsic motivation. This theory argues that intrinsic motivation is maintained only when actors feel competent and self-determined. Second sub theory Causality Orientations Theory describes individual differences in people's tendencies towards self-determined behavior and towards orienting to the environment in ways that support their self-determination. The third sub theory Basic Needs Theory elaborates the concept of basic needs and its relation to psychological health and well-being. Within SDT, the nutriments for healthy development and functioning are specified using the concept of the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence feedback, and relatedness. These needs are innate, natural, universal, and essential for health and well-being of all people, regardless of gender, group, or culture. To the extent that the needs are ongoingly satisfied, people will function effectively and develop in a healthy way, but to the extent that they are thwarted, people will show evidence of ill-being and non-optimal functioning.

Thus, the focus is on investigation of people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs that are the basis for their self-motivation and personality integration, as well as for the conditions that foster those positive processes. Inductively, using the empirical process, these three needs have been identified- the needs for competence (Harter, 1978; White, 1963), relatedness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Reis, 1994), and autonomy (deCharms, 1968; Deci, 1975)- that appear to be essential for
facilitating optimal functioning of the natural propensities for growth and integration, as well as for constructive social development and personal well-being. In the case of education it puts these three aspects in the classroom to intrinsically motivate students to experience lower stress and perform better. It addresses the motivational aspects of the school system and the learning patterns of the school going child.

1.8.1 **THE THREE NEEDS OF SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY**

The self-determination theory as mentioned above revolves around the three needs of Autonomy, Relatedness and Competence. These needs according to SDT are basic and fundamental to human psyche. These needs provide the basics for the categorization of the environment as one that is supportive or antagonistic to integrated and vital human functioning. The three needs like all other human needs are universal and must be fulfilled so that each can persist and thrive (Jacob, 1973). The concept of needs provides criterions for the understanding of what exactly is essential to life and also reflects on the nature of the organism which is “built for the satisfaction of the needs ie. they have evolved functional structures and sensitivities that can lead to sustenance and integrity” (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The three needs as defined by SDT are:

**Competence:** The feeling of being effective in one's environment when one interacts with it at a given point in time. It also implies the sense of experiencing opportunities to exercise and express one's self and one's capabilities (Deci, 1975; Harter, 1983; Wgite, 1959). It is a felt sense of effectance and confidence in one's actions that leads people to seek challenges in accordance to this felt capability. On realizing one's capacity or competence one tries to maintain and enhance the capacity by continued action and activity of those skills. According to White (1959) the energy source in
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humans/mammals that does not follow deficit principles and works between episodes of homeostatic crisis is motive and this understanding fits completely with the SDT conceptualization of competence. It is effectance focused motivation i.e. a propensity to have an effect on the environment and get valued outcomes within it.

Relatedness: As understood literally it is the feeling of being connected to the people around ones own, to be cared for and to be able to return the same care. In short it is the sense of belongingness towards people and the community at large (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Bowlby, 1979; Harlow, 1958; Ryan, 1995). This need according to SDT is reflective of the integrative tendency of life which shows itself in the human tendency to connect with and be accepted by others. Relatedness as a need has been discussed earlier in the area of attachment.

Autonomy: According to SDT, it is the feeling of being the reason and origin of ones own behaviour (deCharms, 1968; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Connell, 1989). It is the tendency to act from ones interest rather than any other externally determined factor. Autonomy is reflective of volition which is the persons’ desire to self-organize their experiences and have their activities consistent with their sense of self (Angyal,1965;deCharm,1968;Deci,1980;Ryan &Connell,1989;Sheldon &Elliot,1999). Autonomy of the three needs in SDT is least discussed in empirical psychology. Autonomy is most of the times wrongly understood as meaning Independence, internal Locus of control or individualism. However, in SDT autonomy refers to the individuals experience of integration and freedom and is considered essential for healthy human existence.
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These three needs according to SDT are universal and fundamental psychological needs that energize human behaviour and must be satisfied for long term psychological health.

1.8.2 RELATIONSHIP OF INTRINSIC MOTIVATION TO AUTONOMY, COMPETENCE AND RELATEDNESS.

The theory of self-determination is based on the concept that the three needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness are central to intrinsically motivated behaviour and therefore personal growth (Deci, 1975). According to SDT Intrinsic motivation is when an individual engages in an activity or task that s/he finds interesting and one that promotes growth of the individual. These activities are novel or what Berlyne (1971) calls “collative stimulus property,” and provide optimal challenge to the individual (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Danner & Lonky, 1981; Deci, 1975). Intrinsically motivating activities according to SDT are neither those that satisfy the basic needs of Autonomy, Competence and Relatedness and nor behaviors that are directed towards these need fulfillment. Intrinsically motivating behaviour are necessarily those that are engaged in through interest and free will. The theory proposes that intrinsic motivation is facilitated by conducive conditions that promote psychological need satisfaction and undermined by those conditions that thwart the satisfaction of these basic psychological needs. Based on this understanding several studies confirm that intrinsic motivation promotes better health, well-being, performance and learning (Benware & Deci, 1984; Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Valas & Sovik, 1993).

Intrinsic Motivation and Autonomy: Deci (1975) suggests that intrinsically motivated behaviour represents the prototype of self-determined activities: people indulge in these activities spontaneously and freely because of their interest. A meta analysis done over a period of three decades on 128 students revealed that monetary rewards are not the only
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hindrances to intrinsic motivation but all contingent tangible rewards undermine the intrinsic motivation of an individual (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999a). Threats (Deci & Cascio, 1972), Surveillance (Lepper & Greene, 1975), evaluation (Harackiewicz, Manderlink, & Sansone, 1984) and deadlines (Amabile, DeJong, & Leepar, 1976) also led to intrinsic motivation being thwarted. However providing choice (Zuckerman, Porac, Lathin, Smith, & Deci, 1978) and when the inner experiences of people are acknowledging (Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri, & Holt, 1984) enhance the intrinsic motivation of people. This also increases the confidence people have in their performance (Tafarodi, Milne, & Smith, 1999).

Intrinsic Motivation and Competence:

Positive feedback is known to have a positive impact on intrinsic motivation (Boggiano & Ruble, 1979; Deci 1971) and negative feedback is known to have a negative impact (Deci & Cascio, 1972). The belief of an organization that s/he has the potential to have an impact on the environment comes from the feedback they receive for their actions on the environment. This has been in the researches of Deci and Ryan’s (1980) researches that show that positive feedback gives a feeling of effectance and therefore satisfies the need for competence.

Intrinsic Motivation and Relatedness:

Intrinsic motivation is seen to be influenced most by autonomy and competence and relatedness influences the maintenance of intrinsic motivation. Studies show that intrinsic motivation flourishes more due to relatedness factors as one progress on the life span. Context that provides secure relatedness motivates intrinsically (Ryan & La Guardian) and experiments that ignored this aspect reported low intrinsic motivation (Anderson, Manoogian, & Reznick, 1979). One may argue however that people engage in
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intrinsically motivating behavior like trekking, travelling all on their own without company. So how is this behavior intrinsically motivating without any relatedness dimension to it? SDT explains this by arguing that proximal availability of relatedness factors is not necessary for an activity to be intrinsically motivating. Instead a distant secure relational base provides a backdrop for intrinsic motivation. This is how soldiers fight on the battle field without any apparent sense of relatedness and also the reason for students living away from family and being able to perform extraordinarily well.

1.8.3 Integrated Self-Regulation: The process of internalization of extrinsic motivation

Internalization which is understood as a socialization process (Kelman, 1958; Leeper, 1983; Meisser, 1988; Schafer, 1968) has been explained by SDT as the process that also leads to the internalization of external regulations into inner values (Ryan, 1993; Schafer, 1968). SDT views internalization as the process that is active and natural by which the individual tries to transform socially sanctioned mores or requests into personally endorsed values and self-regulations (Ryan et al., 1985). SDT suggests that this process of internalization goes through four stages. Each stage moves from lower to higher levels of internalization. The four stages which progress from external regulation to internal regulation are 1. External regulation, 2. Introjection, 3. Identification, 4. Integration. These four stages are on a continuum that progresses from non self-determined to Self-determined regulation. As an individual moves from a state of nonself determined to self-determined regulation, s/he also moves from a state of Amotivation to intrinsic motivation with the former having an impersonal locus of causality to the later having an internal locus of causality.
Fig. 1.3. The Self-Determination Continuum, showing the motivational, self-regulatory, and perceived locus of causality base of behavior that vary in the degree to which they are self determined.

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In the case of education the continuum puts the three needs autonomy, competence and relatedness in the classroom as major contributors to the students’ intrinsic motivation and the satisfaction of these needs resulting in experiencing lower stress and better perform. It addresses the motivational aspects of the school system and the learning patterns of the school going child.

The self determination continuum when applied to educational setup or the school system suggests that a student who is intrinsically motivated works on internal regulations and has a high perceived autonomy, competence and relatedness in the educational setup. SDT suggests that a student may over the course of time internalizes the external motivators and come to derive intrinsic satisfaction from them. This internalization may be at any of the four levels suggested in the continuum. The closer it is to the intrinsic motivation the more affective it will be in reducing stress and hence improving the performance of the student. Based on the understanding drawn from the continuum one could appreciate better the individual differences in the experienced stress and adjustment that students have in the educational setup. It is because of the differences in where a student is in on the continuum of internalization that determines their self-determination and therefore stress and performance.

1.8.4 SELF DETERMINATION THEORY AND EDUCATION

Self-determination as a concept means internally controlling one’s behaviour, acting on the basis of personal beliefs and values rather than on the basis of social norms or group pressures. Deci and Ryan used the self-determination theory in education.
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Self-determination theory when applied to education is about fostering in students an interest in learning, a valuing of education and a confidence in personal capabilities (Deci et al., 1991.). According to this theory students become actively engaged in educational activities to the extent that classroom endeavors affirm their competencies and prove themselves to be interesting and relevant to students’ lives. The basic needs of competence and self-determination explain the motivational source underlying students’ experiences of becoming interested in school and internalizing school-related values. As needs, both competence and self-determination represent energizing states that, if nurtured, facilitate interest enjoyment, engagement and well-being (Ryan and Deci, 2000.). Competence represents the need for seeking out optimal challenges and for perceiving oneself as efficacious in mastering those challenges. Self-determination represents the need to experience choice in the initiation and regulation of one’s behaviour such that the students’ choice rather than environmental events determine his/her action (Deci and Ryan, 1985.). Thus, to promote an interest in learning, valuing of education, and an affirmation of personal capabilities, educational climate need to find way to support students need for competence and self-determination.

According to self-determination theory, students become engaged in school related activity when instructional activities are interesting and relevant to their lives, and affirm their competencies, i.e. perceptions of self-determination and competence constitute students’ internal motivational resources that support their engagement and persistence in school. Learning to learn and knowing that mastery brings joy and a sense of achievements. Through play child sets the confidence to say “I can do it for myself”
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which illustrate the link between emotions and learning between cognitive (thinking) and affective (feeling) experiences. (Pringle, 1974). One important role teacher’s play in helping students develop these internal motivational resources is through the provision of autonomy supportive classroom, which support and nurture students needs for self determination and competence. There is also a third psychological need emphasized in addition to self-determination and competence, namely relatedness. Relatedness also explains some of the motivational underpinnings of students’ engagement and commitment of school (Goodenow, 1993; Ryan and Powerlson, 1991; Shinner and Belmont, 1995). Thus the self determination theory very explicitly shows what exactly is needed by the child and how the educational system can provide it to them.

1.9 CORRELATION BETWEEN THE CONCEPTS OF COMPETENCE AND SELF-ESTEEM

Competence according to SDT is the feeling of effectiveness that an individual derives from his/her interactions with the social environment at a given time. Competence is enhanced by the person experiencing that the environment provides an opportunity to express and exercise ones capabilities (Deci, 1975; Harter, 1983; White, 1959).

Self-esteem is the acceptance of ourselves for what we are at any given time in our lives. The sense of worth that one attaches to one self is Self esteem, this worth of self is derived from the external environment by the results we get for the effort we make and the opinion that the significant others hold of us. Self esteem is relatively stable over a period of time but is prone to fluctuations during the various stages of development. It
can be seen on the basis of the definitions that the two concepts competence and self-esteem are very much overlapping in their impact on human nature.

As William James (1890) puts it, it is the feeling of self-worth that derives from the ratio of our actual successes to our pretensions. Pretention according to James is our expectation or estimate of our potential success and this is informed by our values, goals and aspirations. According to this definition provided by W. James our self-esteem is our sense or self-worth derived by comparing how we are at a point in time and what we aspire to be in future? Self-esteem is a hierarchical concept with various subtypes or categories like self-esteem related to family, peer group, school/academic, social etc.

Self-esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of the self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioral aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). While the construct is most often used to refer to a global sense of self-worth, narrower concepts such as self-confidence or body-esteem are used to imply a sense of self-esteem in more specific domains. It is also widely assumed that self-esteem functions as a trait, that is, it is stable across time within individuals. Self-esteem is an extremely popular construct within psychology, and has been related to virtually every other psychological concept or domain, including personality (e.g., shyness), behavioral (e.g., task performance), cognitive (e.g., attributional bias), and clinical concepts (e.g., anxiety and depression).

While some researchers have been particularly concerned with understanding the nuances of the self-esteem construct, others have focused on the adaptive and self-protective functions of self-esteem (see Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991, for a review of conceptual and methodological issues).
Self-esteem has been related both to socioeconomic status and to various aspects of health and health-related behavior, as has a related construct, self-efficacy. Self-efficacy, a term associated with the work of Bandura, refers to an individual's sense of competence or ability in general or in particular domains. It seems the relationship between self-esteem and stress is significant since the former has been linked to health and well-being. Research on both constructs as they related to SES and to health will be reviewed next.

Self-Esteem and Health

Much of the research about the relationship between self-esteem and health appears to have been done in terms of the influence of self-esteem on health-related behaviors. Self-esteem has been related to such health practices as the use of birth control (Herold, Goodwin, & Lero, 1979), doing breast self-exam (Hallal, 1982), and exercise (e.g., Lih-Mei Liao, Hunter, & Weinman, 1995; Vingerhoets, Croon, Jeninga, & Menges, 1990). Self-efficacy has been related to smoking cessation, pain management, weight control, and adherence to health prevention programs (Pervin, 1993). Rodin and McAvay (1992) found that older adults’ decline in perceived health was associated with decreased self-efficacy. At least one study did not find a linear relationship between self-esteem and health behaviors. Hollar and Snizek (1996) found that young adults with high self-esteem and high levels of knowledge about AIDS employed safer practices for non-conventional sexual practices than those with lower self-esteem, but were riskier than those with lower self-esteem for more conventional sexual practices.

Abood and Conway (1992) found a relationship between self-esteem and health values, and between self-esteem and general wellness behavior, but not between self-esteem and tobacco or alcohol use. The relationship between self-esteem and general
wellness behavior remained significant even when health values were controlled for. Rivas Torres and colleagues (Rivas Torres & Fernandez Fernandez, 1995; Rivas Torres, Fernandez Fernandez, & Maceira, 1995) examined the relationship among self-esteem, health values, and health behaviors among adolescents. They found a significant relationship between self-esteem and general health behavior for both younger and older adolescents, and that self-esteem accounted for a significant percent of the variance in mental health behavior, social health behavior, and total health behavior.

Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger & Vohs (2003) in a review of the self-esteem literature conclude that the benefits of high self-esteem fall into two categories enhanced initiative and pleasant feelings. They conclude that self-esteem has little association with health behavior. High self-esteem does not appear to prevent children from drinking, taking drugs, smoking or engaging in early sex. In fact, they suggest that high self-esteem tends to foster experimentation possibly leading to early initiation of sexual activity or drinking but that in general the effects of self-esteem are negligible with the one exception being a reduction in chances of bulimia in females in the presence of high self-esteem.

Based on the work of Brown and McGill (1989) and DeLongis, Folkman, and Lazarus (1988), Lyons and Chamberlain (1994) expected that self-esteem would mediate the relationship between minor life events and health. While they found a direct correlation between self-esteem and health at two time periods in their study, they found no interaction of self-esteem and minor events for any health outcome.

The well-established relationship between self-esteem and psychological well-being (e.g., depression, social anxiety, loneliness, alienation; see Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991) may be an important factor in understanding the self-esteem/health relationship.
Bernard, Hutchison, Lavin, and Pennington (1996) found high correlations among self-esteem, self-efficacy, ego strength, hardiness, optimism, and maladjustment, and all of these constructs were significantly related to health.

The concepts of self-esteem and competence in SDT terms seem related and important to motivation and hence the self-esteem measure can be safely used as one of the variables to understand the link between stress and intrinsic motivation. It has also been reported on the basis of research that the two concepts of stress and self-esteem have an inverse relationship and this relationship has an influence on the academic performance of the student.

1.10 SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS DIFFERENCES: IN PERCEIVED STRESS AND RELATED FACTORS.

Socio Economic Status (SES) has been shown to be an important mediating influence in a wide range of psychological factors. Researchers have seen its influence on educational performance as well, this is because the SES is to a great extent a reflection on the family background ranging from the educational qualification of parents to the aspirations the children have for life.

Self-esteem. Perhaps the most famous investigation into the relationship of self-esteem to SES is Rosenberg and Pearlin's (1978) assessment of social class and self-esteem among children and adults. In an effort to clarify decades of inconclusive work on what many thought would be an obvious connection between one's social status or prestige and one's personal sense of worth, Rosenberg and Pearlin suggested that age was a critical factor in teasing apart this relationship. Indeed, they found virtually no association between social class of parents (measured by the Hollingshead Index of Social Position) and self-esteem among younger children, a modest association among adolescents, and a moderate
association among adults based on their own social class. They rely on theories about social comparison processes, reflected self-appraisals, self-perception theory, and psychological centrality to explain the age graded relationship. Because the salience of class in the interpersonal context differs for children and adults, and because the social class of children is ascribed while that of adults is generally considered achieved, Rosenberg and Pearlin argue, the extent to which the sense of inequality inherent in the meaning of social class is mirrored within individuals is not the same for children as it is for adults.

Figure 1.4: Ecological Perspective on Poverty

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Coopersmith's (1967) work was designed to assess the origins of self-esteem in children. The results of this work in which children filled out the Self-Esteem Inventory and provided ratings of their parents, staff members interviewed mothers, and mothers filled out questionnaires, indicated that "external indicators of prestige [of the parents] such as wealth, amount of education, and job title did not have as overwhelming and as significant an effect on self-esteem as is often assumed" (Pervin, 1993, P. 189). Parental attitudes and behaviors - acceptance of their children, clear and well-enforced demands, and respect for actions within well-defined limits -- were the primary antecedents of children's sense of self-worth (Pervin, 1993).

Since the work by Rosenberg and Pearlin (1978) and Coopersmith (1967), others have explored the relationship of self-esteem to SES, especially among adolescents. With some exceptions, Rosenberg and Pearlin's results have been replicated (though it appears that more people have studied adolescents than adults). Filsinger and Anderson (1982) found no relationship between own SES (Duncan SES Index) and self-esteem (Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale) among adolescents, but a significant relationship between the SES of the person's best friend and self-esteem. They attribute this to a heightened sense of self-efficacy among those who interact with friends who are of a higher social status than themselves, as it may be the social status of significant others from which adolescents derive their own sense of social status (p. 383). Demo and Savin-Williams (1983) replicated and extended Rosenberg and Pearlin's findings, and demonstrated that the relationship between SES (father's occupation) and self-esteem (Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, plus two others to assess reflected appraisals and academic self-esteem) was greater among eighth-graders than among fifth-graders.
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Richman, Clark, and Brown (1985) found a main effect for the relationship between self-esteem and SES among adolescents, but demonstrate complicated interactions of gender, race, and social class: white females (including high SES individuals) were significantly lower in general self-esteem than white males and black males and females. There has been considerable research on the relationship between race and self-esteem. As for social class, in which the expectation is that the social order will be reflected in individual self-assessments, people of color are hypothesized to have lower self-esteem than are white people. In research comparing whites and blacks, blacks often have equal or higher self-esteem than whites, and a number of theories, including those related to self-protection and disidentification, have been offered to explain these findings (see Crocker, Voelkl, Testa, & Major, 1991; Steele, 1992).

Using both traditional and non-traditional measures of social class (including father's unemployment status, neighborhood unemployment, family welfare status, and neighborhood evaluation), Wiltfang and Scarbecz (1990) found that father's education had a small positive relationship with adolescents' self-esteem and non-traditional measures had moderate to strong (neighborhood unemployment) associations with self-esteem (items from both Rosenberg and Coopersmith), all in the expected direction; they also found, however, that adolescent achievement variables (school grades, group leadership, report of many close friends) contributed significantly more to their self-esteem than did parental social class variables (P. 180).

In a study of 711 sixteen-year-olds in England, Francis and Jones (1995) found that the relationship of SES and self-esteem varied with the measure of self-esteem.

Self-efficacy. Clark (1996) suggested that resources, assessments of ability, and expectations about the environment all make up a sense of control, which combines with
Figure 1.5: Schematic model of the relationship between poverty its psychological consequences and their outcomes

outcome expectations, physiologic states, primary and secondary experiences, and verbal persuasion, to affect self-efficacy. More specifically, he noted that individual components of SES may influence efficacy through a sense of control and active problem solving (associated with higher levels of education and occupation) and that sense of control is affected by income through material resources. In an empirical investigation of the effect of SES on exercise self-efficacy, Clark, Patrick, Grembowski, and Durham (1995) found direct effects of age and education on exercise self-efficacy, and indirect effects of age, education, income, and occupation that generally operated through previous exercise experience, satisfaction with amount of walking, depression, and outcome expectations.

A family's socioeconomic status is based on family income, parental education level, parental occupation, and social status in the community (such as contacts within the community, group associations, and the community's perception of the family), note Demarest, Reisner, Anderson, Humphrey, Farquhar, and Stein (1993). Families with high socioeconomic status often have more success in preparing their young children for school because they typically have access to a wide range of resources to promote and support young children's development. They are able to provide their young children with high-quality child care, books, and toys to encourage children in various learning activities at home. Also, they have easy access to information regarding their children's health, as well as social, emotional, and cognitive development. In addition, families with high socioeconomic status often seek out information to help them better prepare their young children for school.

Crnic and Lamberty (1994) discuss the impact of socioeconomic status on children's readiness for school:
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"The segregating nature of social class, ethnicity, and race may well reduce the variety of enriching experiences thought to be prerequisite for creating readiness to learn among children. Social class, ethnicity, and race entail a set of 'contextual givens' that dictate neighborhood, housing, and access to resources that affect enrichment or deprivation as well as the acquisition of specific value systems." (Gniec, K. & Lamberty, G. (1994). p.100)

Ramey and Ramey (1994) describe the relationship of family socioeconomic status to children's readiness for school:

"Across all socioeconomic groups, parents face major challenges when it comes to providing optimal care and education for their children. For families in poverty, these challenges can be formidable. Sometimes, when basic necessities are lacking, parents must place top priority on housing, food, clothing, and health care. Educational toys, games, and books may appear to be luxuries, and parents may not have the time, energy, or knowledge to find innovative and less-expensive ways to foster young children's development.

Even in families with above-average incomes, parents often lack the time and energy to invest fully in their children's preparation for school, and they sometimes face a limited array of options for high-quality child care--both before their children start school and during the early school years.


Families with low socioeconomic status often lack the financial, social, and educational supports that characterize families with high socioeconomic status. Poor families also may have inadequate or limited access to community resources that promote
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and support children's development and school readiness. Parents may have inadequate skills for such activities as reading to and with their children, and they may lack information about childhood immunizations and nutrition. Zill, Collins, West, and Hausken (1995) state "low maternal education and minority-language status are most consistently associated with fewer signs of emerging literacy and a greater number of difficulties in preschoolers." Having inadequate resources and limited access to available resources can negatively affect families' decisions regarding their young children's development and learning. As a result, children from families with low socioeconomic status are at greater risk of entering kindergarten unprepared than their peers from families with median or high socioeconomic status.

1.11 SUMMING UP: MOTIVATIONAL DYNAMICS OF EDUCATIONAL STRESS

One can sum up the preceding review, to suggest that mental health and stress among students, particularly those in the adolescence phases, facing major school related burden and pressures of examination (Grades IX to XII), can be understood from a motivational perspective. Among the various approaches to student motivation, the SDT by Ryan and Deci (1985) seem to be quite promising in offering a framework of motivational dynamics in terms of variables like self-esteem, competence, sense of autonomy and relatedness. The review of literature relating to SDT and also the studies seeking to relate specific variables with mental health, well-being and stress clearly show that one can understand educational stress by examining how the different need aspects of intrinsic motivation are interrelated and how they function to mediate the level of experienced stress by individual students.
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Analysis of the relationship between schooling experiences and parental expectations and the experience of educational stress can be understood in the SDT framework in which sense of autonomy, self-efficacy or competence and relatedness can be said to affect the degree of internalization of the motivation for school related performance which in turn would be related to experiencing of educational stress. Ryan and Deci suggest that children’s school experience is both a cause and consequence of the degree to which they assume agency of their academic endurance, or the degree to which their academic efforts continue to be regulated by external contingencies of reward and punishment. To the extent that the child is able to perceive the outcomes of academic effort as externally controlled they will lead to a sense of uncertainty and stress. However the closer the child moves into the direction of internal self-regulation and intrinsic motivation, a child would ascribe school related effort to internal satisfaction and interest. Thus, persistence in academic task can be clearly related to the degree of intrinsic motivation amongst students.

The SDT recognizes the inevitable condition of academic performance as externally regulated. That school performance could continue to be associated with external reward conditions such as marks and grades and tangible future returns, is an inescapable aspect of modern schooling. Therefore, assumption of internally driven agency is not possible by simply negating or ignoring the external contingencies, rather as SDT suggests it is necessary to internalize through cumulative processes of introspection and self-regulation to progressively internalize the causation of academic effort. In other words, while emphasis on marks/grades competition and other indicators of school success is a fact of modern school experience, the key to a sense of well-being
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and moderate stress experience of children lies in the extent to which conditions favorable for motivational internalization are available to children.

According to SDT the degree of internal regulation of any motivated action springs from three need sources- Autonomy, competence and relatedness to the extent that the child has a sense of self-efficacy, belief in ones competence and perception of self-esteem. A child would be prone to deriving internal satisfaction and assuming greater autonomy, when perception of self-efficacy, competence is higher. As has been discussed earlier a number of studies show a clear relationship between competence and intrinsic motivation. Apart from the theoretical formulations of Ryan and Deci (1985) and the empirical research in the SDT framework, there is also a substantial body of literature relating overlapping concepts such as Self-efficacy as in Bandura's theory discussed earlier and self-esteem, relating them to intrinsic motivation and sense of well-being. It is also necessary to appreciate that agentic self perception is possible only when a persons actions are perceived to be under internal rather than external control. The more one is able to take initiatives and to feel that one is able to decide, engage in or refrain from specific action, the more would be the sense of self control and agentic belief. Thus, when a classroom experience is such that a child is able to exercise independent choice it would promote a greater degree of internalization. Independent choice would be reflected in belief of self control. In the SDT, this as a source of internal self regulation comes from perception of autonomy. When a child feels that s/he has some autonomy in engaging in classroom and academic activities, greater internalization of the motivational contingencies would be possible. Thus, the degree of intrinsic motivation in academic activities would depend on the extent to which a child's academic environment is
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autonomy supportive. Such autonomy support is primarily related to two sources for a
school going child. Sense of autonomy in classroom activities is related to the degree to
which the teacher is able to create a classroom wherein the pupils feel that they have
some independence and initiative in engaging in specific academic activities. Thus, an
autonomy supportive classroom is likely to lead to higher levels of intrinsic motivation.
The other source for autonomy perception is the family itself. Parenting styles are known
to be either authoritarian or liberal and parents either exercise greater control over child’s
actions or allow the child a greater freedom of choice. When a child perceives autonomy,
rather than parental control, agentic self-beliefs would lead to intrinsic motivation. Thus,
autonomy support both in the family and classroom is a major contributing factor to the
degree of internalization in academic efforts. The third need state Ryan and Deci relate to
intrinsic motivation is the need for a sense of relatedness. A greater degree of
interpersonal relationships and a sense of security in the availability of social support
would facilitate greater degree of intrinsic motivation. Thus, SDT offers a framework to
understand how the experience of academic stress and internal motivation are inter
related through the mutual interacting effect of the three contributing factors in the
child’s environment, namely autonomy, competence and relatedness.

The three factors that SDT proposes as important in determining intrinsic
motivation of individuals have been taken as variables in the study where Learning
Climate Questionnaire (LCQ) measures the perceived autonomy among students,
Activity feelings Scale (AFS) measures the relatedness, competence and self
determination in students and Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ-A)
measures the regulation style (Intrinsic or extrinsic) of the school system. SRQ-A shows
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the motivational level of the student and the position of internalization that the student has acquired. The SRQ-A and AFS are the two tools of the study that reflect on the perceived intrinsic motivation of the student.

The relationships between the major variables with intrinsic motivation and academic stress is represented in Fig.1.3 in the next page.
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Fig. 1 A Motivational Model of Experienced Academic Stress

Nature of Schooling
- Autonomy through Teachers and parents.

Socializations
- Competence
- Self-esteem
- Efficacy belief

Academic Success/Failure Experience
- Relatedness

Degree of Internalization of Internal Control

Self Determination

Intrinsic Motivation

Academic effort and Performance

Experience Stress
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The study conceptualizes the relationship between the experienced stress and intrinsic motivation of the school going child based on the self-determination theory. The nature of the schooling, the socialization of the child, his/her academic success and failure are some of the important factors that determine the satisfaction or thwarting of the three psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness and competence considered as important by the self-determination theory. Once competence is satisfied Self-esteem and Self-efficacy are also high. The satisfaction of the three needs is a product of the level of internalization of regulation. The regulation style when internalized leads to self-determination and therefore intrinsically motivated behaviour, which in the case of school students is reflects in their academic performance and experienced stress.