

CHAPTER –I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Education in its broadest sense may be defined as a process designed to inculcate the knowledge, skill and attitudes necessary to enable individuals to cope effectively with their environments. Its primary purpose is to foster and promote the fullest individual self-realization for all people. Achieving this goal requires understanding of commitment to the proposition that education is a primary instrument for social and economic advancement of human welfare (Verma, 1990).

The study of education system in any society is an important aspect of sociology of education. College has a special system has to be responded to the demands of the society arising out of changes in other aspects of society like technology, state policies and economic changes due to planning and market changes especially in recent decades. In general education as a system is meant for the survival of society.

Teacher education is recognized as a vital component in economic competition and growth. In teacher education, where learning from theory and practice is combined, student teachers also need to regulate their learning (Endedijk, Vermunt, Verloop, & Brekelmans, 2012). Regarding both demographic changes and evolving school instructional policies, many teachers experience an increasingly wide range of student learning differences regarding academic, behavioral, physical, and cultural perspectives in their classrooms. This concern significantly requires teacher education that helps teachers become the innovators and researchers in education, laying the educational foundation for the continuous learning and the practical change in the workplace (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005).

The use of technology in teaching requires the integrated knowledge among technology, pedagogy, and subject content, and this highly blended knowledge is developed through the methods courses of a teacher education program toward improving preservice teacher's technological skills (Zhou & Xu, 2013). Preservice teachers are required to enroll in the instructional technology courses in partial fulfillment of graduation requirements (Blankson, Kyei-Blankson, & Keengwe, 2012). Educational technology

experiences in teacher education programs should place the heavy emphasis on learning the content-specific uses of technology that can be transferred to future classroom experiences (Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2012). Teacher educators concerned with building technology-rich preservice teacher education seek inspiration in many places (Norton & Hathaway, 2012).

The primary way of enhancing teacher quality is to base teacher education on the issue of robust research (Cooney, 1994). Educational change, such as shifts toward technology-rich teaching and learning, will only be successful with a concerted change effort in teacher education programs (Hughes, Gonzales-Dholakia, Wen, & Yoon, 2012). Preservice teachers' professional vision is an important indicator of their initial acquisition of integrated knowledge structures within university-based teacher education (Stürmer, Könings, & Seidel, 2015). The 21st century practices and ethical approaches regarding technological utilization are important and should be added in the teacher education program to prepare preservice teachers. Goeze et al. (2014) stated that the ability to analyze and understand the classroom situations can be recognized as an essential aspect of teachers' professional competence.

It is very important to prepare teachers with an education model that develops the pedagogical and psychological skills and supports them to effectively operate in a perspective of lifelong learning (Selmo & Orsenigo, 2014). Teacher quality and educating high-quality teachers have emerged as the fundamental problems to be solved by nations since the correlation between education and economy is becoming more apparent, and the principal factor in student achievement is teacher quality (Cochran-Smith, 2008). Teacher quality has been a continual issue in the field of education (Wang, 2012). When measurement procedures are introduced into the education system to improve the quality of its teaching force, the beginning teachers often have to adapt to these new concepts of what constitute a high-quality teaching (Goh & Wong, 2014).

1.2 NEED AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As in the present scenario, teachers must be social and emotional competent to deal with all kinds of students. Teacher's social emotional competence mainly affects classroom environment, good integration, student's interests, academic achievement etc., so, it is necessary to measure the level of teachers' social and emotional competence. This is very important to investigate the socio-emotional competence and abilities of student teachers. According to Miller and Wiltse (1979) advocated for the incorporation of classes on self-discover and personal development in teacher preparation programs, to identify teachers who may be at risk for developing mental health problems in the classroom, in order to provide additional support for these teachers and also to maintain student-teacher relationships.

Greenberg proposed that deficits in social-emotional competence or lack of appropriate social-emotional supports may contribute to the high burnout and attrition rate seen in the teaching profession. Teachers are constantly exposed to emotionally provocative situations but have limited options for self-regulation when situations cause strong emotional reactions. This constant exposure to negative emotionally charged events might reduce a teacher's intrinsic motivation and feelings of self-efficacy leading to high rates of teacher burnout.

Therefore this study is necessary for the student teachers to know the socio-emotional competence such as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, responsible decision making, teaching skills, teaching goals and classroom management while handling school students which is essential for teachers.

1.3 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The theoretical background of the selected variables has been presented hereunder.

1.3.1 SOCIAL COMPETENCE

Social competence is the broader term used to describe a child's social effectiveness. It defines a child's ability to establish and maintain high quality and mutually satisfying relationships and to avoid negative treatment or victimization from others. In addition to social skills and emotional intelligence, factors such as the child's self-confidence or social anxiety can affect his or her social competence. Social

competence can also be affected by the social context and the extent to which there is a good match between the child's skills, interests and abilities and those of peers.

According to Tower (1982) social competence is "the possession of the capability to generate skilled behavior". White (1959) defined social competence as "an organism's capacity to interact effectively with its environment". Goldfried and Zurilla (1969) conceptualized social competence as "the effectiveness or adequacy with which an individual is capable of responding to various problematic situations which confront him". Zigler (1973) defined social competence as "an individual's everyday effectiveness in dealing with his environment". Mc Fall (1982) conceptualized social competence as "a judgment by another than an individual has behaved effectively". Ford (1982) defined social competence as the "attainment of relevant social goals in specified social contexts, using appropriate means and resulting in positive developmental outcomes."

Social competence is a complex, multidimensional concept consisting of social, emotional (e.g., affect regulation), cognitive (e.g., fund of information, skills for processing acquisition, perspective taking), and behavioral (e.g., conversation skills, prosocial behavior) skills, as well as motivational and expectancy sets (e.g., moral development, self-efficacy) needed for successful social adaptation. Social competence also reflects having an ability to take another's perspective concerning a situation, learn from past experiences, and apply that learning to the changes in social interactions. Social competence is the foundation upon which expectations for future interaction with others are built, and upon which individuals develop perceptions of their own behavior. Often, the concept of social competence frequently encompasses additional constructs such as social skills, social communications and interpersonal communication.

❖ **APPROACHES TO SOCIAL COMPETENCE/THEORIES**

Peer regard/status approaches

These approaches define social competence based on how popular one is with his peers. The more well-liked one is, the more socially competent they are.

Social skills approaches

These approaches use behaviors as a guideline. Behaviors that demonstrate social skills are compiled and are collectively identified as social competence.

Relationship approaches

According to these approaches, social competence is assessed by the quality of one's relationships and the ability to form relationships. Competence depends on the skills of both members of the relationship; a child may appear more socially competent if interacting with a socially skilled partner.

Functional approaches

The functional approach is context-specific and concerned with the identification of social goals and tasks. This approach also focuses on the outcomes of social behavior and the processes leading to those outcomes. Information-processing models of social skills are important here, and based on the idea that social competence results from social-cognitive processes.

❖ MODELS OF SOCIAL COMPETENCE

Early models of social competence stress the role of context and situation specificity in operationalizing the competence construct. These models also allow for the organizing and integration of the various component skills, behaviors and cognitions associated with social competence. Whereas global definitions focus on the "ends" rather than the "means" by which such ends are achieved, a number of models directly attend to the theorized processes underlying competence. These process models are context specific and seek to identify critical social goals and tasks associated with social competence. Other models focus on the often overlooked distinction between social competence and the indices (i.e., skills and abilities) used to gauge it.

❖ BEHAVIORAL-ANALYTIC MODEL

Goldfried and D'Zurilla (1969) developed a five-step behavioral-analytic model outlining a definition of social competence.

The specific steps proposed in the model include (1) situational analysis, (2) response enumeration, (3) response evaluation, (4) measure development, and (5) evaluation of the measure.

Situation analysis-a critical situation is defined on the basis of certain criteria, which include:

1. Occurs with some frequency
2. Presents a different response decision
3. Results in a range of possible responses in a given population. Situation identification and analysis is accomplished through a variety of methods, including direct observation by self or others, interviews and surveys.
4. Response enumeration-sampling of possible responses to each situation is obtained. Procedures for generating response alternatives include direct observation, role plays and simulations in video and /or written formats.
5. Response evaluation-the enumerated responses are judged for effectiveness by “significant others” in the environment. An important element is that a consensus must emerge or the particular item is removed from future consideration.

In the last two steps (4 and 5) a measure for assessing social competence is developed and evaluated.

❖ **SOCIAL INFORMATION –PROCESSING MODEL**

A social information-processing model is a widely used means for understanding social competence. The social information-processing model focuses more directly on the cognitive processes underlying response selection, enactment, and evaluation. Using a computer metaphor, the reformulated social information-processing model outlines a six-step nonlinear processes with various feedback loops linking children’s social cognition and behavior. Difficulties that arise at any of the steps generally translates into social competence deficits.

The six steps are:

- Observation and encoding of relevant stimuli-attending to and encoding non-verbal and verbal social cues, both external and internal.

- Interpretation and mental representation of cues-understanding what has happened during the social encounter, as well as the cause and intent underlying the interaction.
- Clarification of goals-determining what one's objectives is for the interaction and how to putforth an understanding of those goals.
- Representation of situation is developed b accessing long-term memory or construction-the interaction is compared to previous situations stored in long-term memory and the previous outcomes of those interactions.
- Response decision/selection
- Behavioral enactment and evaluation

❖ **TRI-COMPONENT MODEL**

Another way to conceptualize social competence is to consider three underlying subcomponents in a hierarchical framework.

- Social adjustment
- Social performance
- Social skills

The top of the hierarchy the most advanced level, social adjustment. Social adjustment is defined as the extent to which an individual achieves society's development ally appropriate goals. The goals are conceived of as different "statuses" to be achieved b members of a society (e.g., health, legal, academic or occupational, socioeconomic, social emotional, familial and relational statuses). The next level is social performance-or the degree to which an individual's responses to relevant social situations meet socially valid criteria. The lowest level of the hierarchy is social skills, which are defined as specific abilities (i.e. overt behavior, social cognitive skills, and emotional regulation) allowing for the competent performance within social tasks.

❖ **THE QUADRIPARTITE MODEL**

The essential core elements of competence are theorized to consists of four super-ordinate sets of skills, abilities and capacities (1) cognitive skills and abilities, (2) behavioral skills, (3) emotional competencies, and (4) motivational and expectancy sets.

1. Cognitive skills and abilities-cultural and social knowledge necessary for effective functioning in society (i.e., academic and occupational skills and abilities, decision making ability, and the processing of information)
2. Behavioral skills-knowledge of behavioral responses and the ability to enact them (i.e., negotiation, role- or perspective-taking, assertiveness, conversational skills, and pro social skills)
3. Emotional skills-affect regulation and affective capacities for facilitating socially competent responding and forming relationships
4. Motivational and expectancy sets-an individual's value structure, moral development and sense of efficacy and control.

❖ **FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO SOCIAL COMPETENCE**

The factors contributing to social competence are:

- **Temperament**

Temperament is a construct that describes a person's biological responses to the environment. Issues such as soothability, rhythmicity, sociability and arousal make up this construct. Most often sociability contributes to the developmental of social competence.

- **Attachment**

Social experiences rest on the foundation of parent-child relationship, and are important in the later development of social skills and behaviors. Attachment of an infant to a care-giver is important for the development of later social skills and behaviors that develop social competence. Attachment helps the infant learn that the world is predictable and trustworthy or in other instances capricious and cruel. Ainsworth describes four types of attachment styles in infancy, including secure, anxious-avoidant, anxious-resistant and disorganized/disoriented. The foundation of the attachment bond allows the child to venture out from his/her mother to try new experiences and new interactions. Children with secure attachment styles tend to show higher levels of social competence relative to children with insecure attachment, including anxious-avoidant, anxious-resistant and disorganized/disoriented.

- **Parenting style**

Parents are the primary source of social and emotional development in infancy, early, and middle/late childhood. The socialization practices of parents influence whether their child will develop social competence. Parenting style captures two important elements of parenting: parental warmth/responsiveness and parental control/demandingness. Parental responsiveness (warmth or supportiveness) refers to “the extent to which parents intentionally foster individually, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children’s special needs and demands”. Parental demandingness (behavioral control) refers to “the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, b their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to comfort the child who disobeys”. Categorizing parents according to whether they are high or low on parental demandingness and responsiveness creates a typology of four parenting styles: indulgent/permissive, authoritarian, authoritative and indifferent/uninvolved. Each of these parenting styles reflects patterns of parental values, practices and behaviors and a distinct balance of responsiveness and demandingness.

Parenting style contributes to child well-being in the domains of social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development, and problem behavior. Research based on parent interviews, child reports and parent observations consistently find that:

Children and adolescents whose parents are authoritative rate themselves and are rated b objective measures as more socially and instrumentally competent than those whose parents are non authoritative.

Children and adolescents whose parents are uninvolved perform most poorly in all domains.

Others factors that contribute to social competence include teacher relationships, peer groups, neighborhood and community.

❖ **PROBLEM BEHAVIORS RELATED TO SOCIAL COMPETENCE**

An important researcher in the study of social competence, Voeller, states that there are three clusters of problem behaviors that lead to the important of social competence. Voeller clusters include:

- (1) an aggressive and hostile group,
- (2) a perceptual deficits subgroup , and
- (3) a group with difficulties in self-regulation.

1. Children with aggressive and hostile behaviors are those acting out behaviors negatively influences their ability to form relationships, and sustain interpersonal interactions. Aggressive and hostile children tend to have deficiencies in social information-processing, and employ inappropriate social problem solving strategies to social situations. They also tend to search for fewer facts in a social situation and pay more attention to the aggressive social interactions presented in an interaction.
2. Children with perceptual deficits do not perceive the environment appropriately and interpret interpersonal interactions inaccurately. They also have difficulty reading social cues, facial expressions and body gestures.
3. Children with self-regulation deficits tend to have the classic difficulties in executive functions.

❖ **ASSESSMENTS OF SOCIAL COMPETENCE**

While understanding the components of social competence continue to be empirically validated, the assessment of social competence is not well-studied and continues to develop in procedures. There are a variety of methods for the assessment of social competence and often include one (or more) of the following:

- Child-adolescent interview
- Observations
- Parent report measures
- Self-report measures
- Socio metric measures (i.e., peer nominations)
- Teachers report measures
- Interventions

Following the increased awareness of the importance of social competence in childhood, interventions are used to help children with social difficulties. Historically, intervention efforts did not improve children's peer status or field long-lasting effects.

Interventions did not take into account that social competence problems do not occur in isolation, but alongside other problems as well. Thus, current intervention efforts target social competence both directly and indirectly in varying contexts.

1.3.2 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Emotional competence is defined as “the ability to effectively regulate one’s emotions to accomplish one’s goal (Squires, Bricker & Twombly, 2003, p.6). Emotional competence is what results and enhances our personal, relational and professional performance, and what ultimately helps us attain an overall increase in our quality of life. According to Daniel Goleman, emotional competence is a learned ability grounded in emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence influences our potential for learning the practical emotional competencies, and developing the emotional literacy necessary for quality of life, life satisfaction, and overall happiness. Such skills include the development of the following: self/social/relational awareness and competence, and self/social/relational management and competence.

Emotional competence as efficiency to deal effectively in several situations is a blend of many competencies (Coleman, 1970). The need for competence is considered innate part of human nature. The person functioning competently is characterized by the capacity to enjoy success and suffering failures and building from both. They encompass mastery, maintenance and protective activities. An emotionally competent teacher learns and applies skills to manage stress, improve self-esteem, confidence, personal change, decision making, leadership, assertion, comfort and commitment which raise the quality of teaching along with health and well-being (Nelson et al., 2005). But unfortunately many teachers often experience negative emotions, than positive ones. Negative emotions such as anxiety interferes in cognitive capacity for processing information, while positive emotions increase creative capacity for generating new ideas and ability to handle difficulties (Frederickson, 2001). So the teachers need to be emotionally competent to balance both positive and negative emotions.

The concept of emotional competence is rooted in understanding emotions as normal, useful aspects of being human. Anger is a reaction to aggression and gives a person the strength to repel the aggression. Grief is a reaction to abandonment or feeling

unloved and it has the effect of eliciting sympathetic responses from others. Fear is a response to danger and has a clear physiological effect of heightening our senses and speeding up our reactions.

From this it can be seen that the suppression of emotion can be useful to avoid injury, embarrassment and arrest, but teaching people to suppress their inappropriate emotions is part of normal society. Suppressing other people's emotions to avoid conflict or discomfort in one can lead to controlling them, which may be unhealthy for all concerned. Emotionally competent people do express emotions appropriate to the situation, to their needs and to others, and they attempt not to suppress appropriate emotions, reactions and communications of feelings by others.

Some psychologists believe that if appropriate emotions are not expressed on a regular basis, a misplaced or unresolved memory of them becomes stored. Alternatively, this may also lead to an inability to process emotional clues in others, or have emotionally appropriate behaviors in oneself. Events in the future may trigger old emotions resulting in inappropriate emotional responses, or may trigger nothing, leaving one with a lack of emotional competence. This often applies to emotions that children may be experiencing, or are prevented from expressing, when an adult simply wishes to avoid dealing with feeling that may be very real to the child, who has yet to learn that feelings and facts are not mutually exclusive, or that emotionalism can be misunderstood or misused. Releasing childhood emotions, or pent up adult emotions can be useful tool in co-counselling.

Emotional competence can lead to improved health through avoiding stress that would otherwise result from suppressing emotions. It can also lead to improved relationships since inappropriate emotions are less likely to be expressed and appropriate behavior is not avoided through fear of triggering some emotion.

The concept is distinct from emotional intelligence which, while recognizing the importance of emotions, gives emphasis to controlling or manipulating them.

❖ **SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING**

Durlak et al. (2011) stated that the framework for social-emotional learning researchers and program designers came from Waters and Sroufe's (1983) description of competent people; these are people who have the abilities "to generate and coordinate

flexible, adaptive responses to demands and to generate capitalize on opportunities in the environment”. Daniel Goleman (1995) described social-emotional intelligence as the ability to be effective in every critical arena of life, including school.

Elias et al. (1997) defined social-emotional learning as the process of acquiring competencies in managing emotions, setting and achieving goals, appreciating others perspectives, establishing and maintaining positive relationships, making responsible decisions, and handling interpersonal situations in socially and emotionally skilled ways.

❖ **STUDENT TEACHER’S SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL COMPETENCIES**

- **Self-awareness**

Self-awareness refers to the ability to assess one’s feelings, interests, values and strengths accurately and to maintain a well-grounded sense of self-efficacy (Payton et al., 2008). In the classroom context, teachers are not only required to understand one’s own attitudes and opinions, but also are expected to recognize the limitations of self and how different self-aspects influence their teaching.

Socially and emotionally competent teachers understand that their behaviors are influenced by multiple personal factors, such as their background experiences, personality, emotions, knowledge base, opinions, and attitudes. They are aware that their students behaviors are influenced by equally distinct personal factors and that teachers must bridge differences with their students to build strong interpersonal relations and engage students in learning.

- **Self-management/Emotion Regulation**

Emotion regulation is often defined as the ability to manage emotional arousal successfully and possessing the skill to change emotions, including the valence, intensity, or tie course of the emotions (Gross, 1998). Although the expressions of positive and negative emotion are both regulated, the need for managing emotion is the greatest when negatively valanced emotions occur (Barrett, Gross, Christensen, & Benvenuto, 2001). Teachers, like other adults, do not experience the same emotion under the same social situation and vary in their ability to regulate such emotion. For example, one teacher may be furious and show anger when a child does not do the work, while another teacher may feel sad but does not display it. They also may use different strategies when regulating

their emotions. Because teachers are expected to regulate their own emotions and emotional displays as well as the emotions of their students constantly, teachers with higher emotional regulation capacity may be better equipped to handle the emotion provoking demands of teaching than teachers with a lower capacity for doing so.

Socially and emotionally competent teachers can identify their own positive and negative emotions in interactions with students, parents and colleagues, and manage their emotions as necessary to promote classroom differences. In particular, socially and emotionally competent teachers recognize that perspectives differ according to age, gender, and social, ethnic, educational and economic backgrounds. They recognize and appreciate the commonalities and uniqueness that exist among their students and colleagues. They manage students' pro-social behaviors and focus on learning. They model behaviors and focus on learning. They model behaviors to help students regulate their own emotions, establishing guidelines and setting boundaries for students to enable them to do this.

- **Social-Awareness**

Social awareness refers to the awareness of others, including social perspectives taking (see also Zins & Elias, 2006). This construct involves viewing the world from another's perspective (Selman, 1971) and making inferences about other people, including their capacities, attitudes, expectations, feelings, and potential reactions. Social awareness refers to one's ability to take the perspective of and empathize with others and to recognize and appreciate individual and group similarities and differences.

In particular, socially and emotionally competent teachers recognize that perspectives differ according to age, gender, and social/ethnic/educational/economic backgrounds. They recognize and appreciate the commonalities and uniqueness that exist among their students and colleagues.

- **Relationship/Social Skills**

Interpersonal skills are another important dimension of social emotional learning. Positive social interactions flow from strong interpersonal skills. Social skills are a specific class of behaviors that an individual exhibits to complete a social task successfully (Gresham & Elliott, 2008). They are often manifested in prosocial behaviors, cooperation,

empathic responses, social engagement, respect for others, as well as the absence of problematic interactions (Cooper & Farran, 1991; Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998).

Socially and emotionally competent teachers establish and maintain health establish and maintain rewarding relationships with students, parents and colleagues. They are able to prevent, manage, and resolve interpersonal conflict between themselves and students, parents and colleagues, and deal with conflict among students, through exhibiting prosocial, cooperative behaviors and respecting and being empathic to others.

- **Responsible Decision Making**

Decision making is a process in which an individual scans an array of options and tries to decide which option is the best way to produce some desired outcome. Teachers must often make split second, in-the-moment decisions that govern their interactions with students and reactions to other factors inside and outside of the classrooms is often enacted in the moment as teachers consider and process clues, draw information from long-term memory, and make a “decision” that is “enacted” through words and behavior. One influence of teachers’ decision making process is their ability to attend to the needs and behaviors of an entire classroom while also trying to remember and implement a lesson plan” (Feldon, 2007, p.123). Feldon’s analysis of several studies of veteran and novice teachers suggests that veteran teachers retain the capacity to filter out extraneous stimuli and focus on pertinent social cues (Swanson, O’connor, & Cooney, 1990).

Socially and emotionally competent teachers use multiple forms of evidence to make decisions about instruction, classrooms management, and interactions with students, parents and colleagues. They objectively consider the well-being needs and academic goals of individual students and of their class as a whole, and they balance awareness of student’s emotional and academic needs when making both long-term plans an in –the-moment decisions.

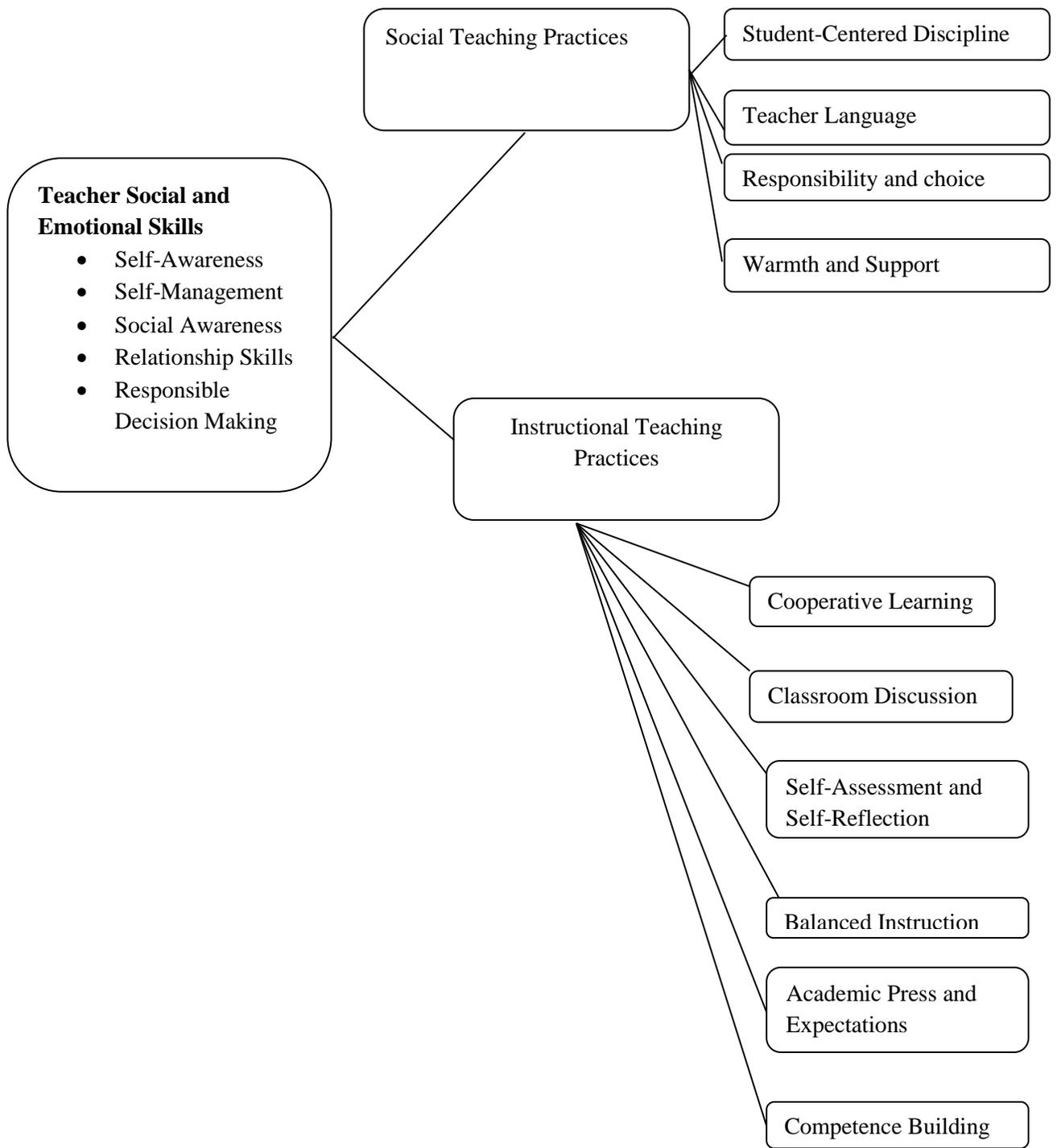


Fig 1.1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING SKILLS AND THE SOCIAL EMOTIONAL LEARNING TEACHING PRACTICES

Figure 1.1 illustrates the relationship between teacher social emotional learning skills and the social emotional learning teaching practices. To implement these practices successfully, teachers must strengthen their own social and emotional skills. In order to model and encourage positive student interactions, teachers themselves need the social and emotional skills required to communicate effectively with students and to handle stressful situations that can occur in classroom (Brackett et al., 2009). Teachers who are socially and emotionally competent develop supportive relationships with students; create activities that build on the strengths of students, and help students develop the basic social and emotional skills necessary to participate in classroom (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

❖ **COMPETENCE BUILDING-MODELING, PRACTICING, FEEDBACK, COACHING**

Competence building occurs when teachers help develop social-emotional competencies systematically through the typical instructional cycle: goals/objectives of the lesson, introduction practice, and conclusion/reflection. Each part of the instructional cycle helps reinforce particular social-emotional competencies, as long as the teacher integrates them into the lesson. Throughout the lesson, the teacher should model prosocial behavior (i.e., positive relationship skills) to the students. When students are participating in group work, the teacher is encouraging positive social behaviors and coaching students on how to use positive social behavior when they practice their prosocial skills in a group setting. The teacher also provides feedback to students on how they are interacting with their peers and how they are learning content. If problems arise between students and in guided practice or if problems arise with content, the teacher guides the students through problem-solving and conflict-resolution strategies.

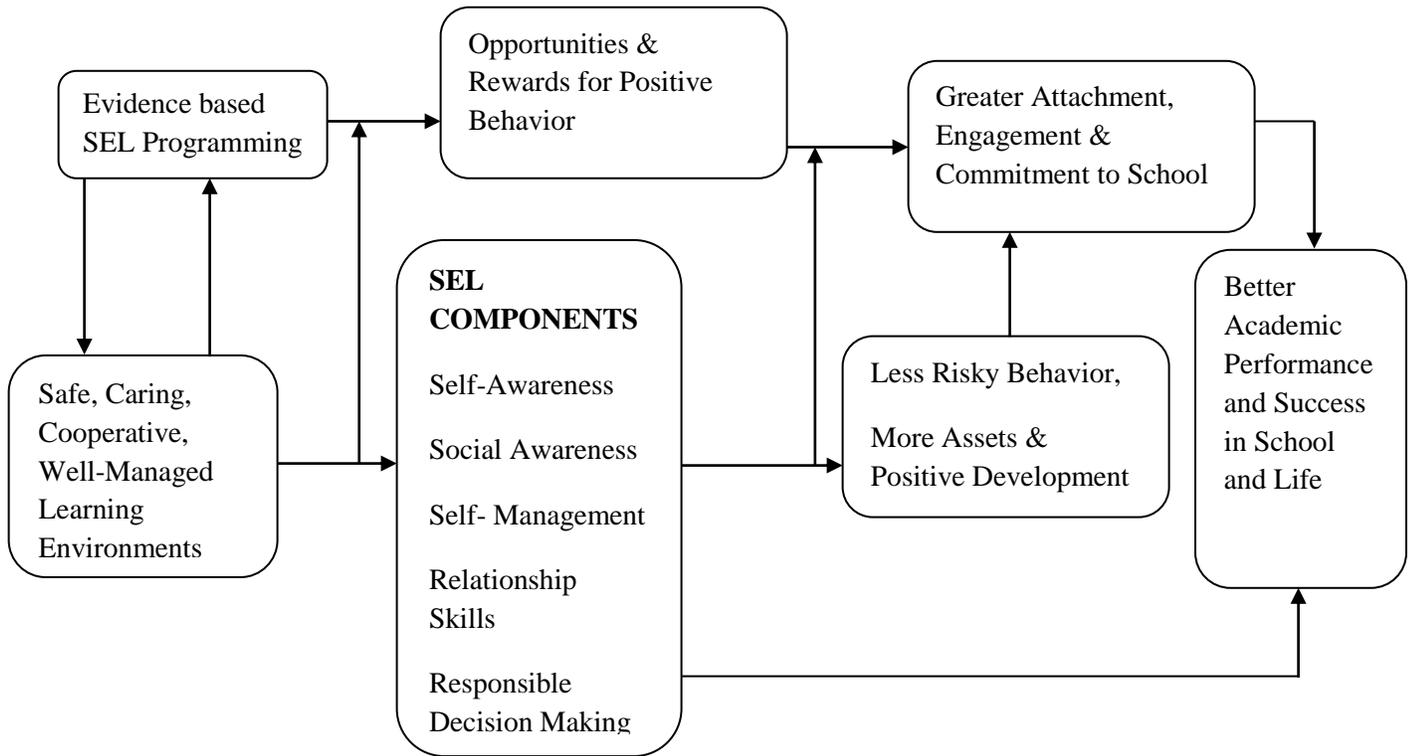


Figure 1.2. Relationship between Social-Emotional Skills and Academic Outcomes

The relationship between social-emotional skills and academic outcomes. Evidence based socio emotional learning interventions and skill development should occur within a supportive learning environment, as well as help to produce such a climate. As a result, opportunities for reward are created and socio emotional learning competencies are developed and reinforced. These factors, in turn, lead to more risk reduction, asset building, and greater attachment and engagement in school. The final outcomes is improved performance in school and life. This model is most applicable when learning is defined as children gaining knowledge to put to use in the real world. Embarrassingly little is known about the relationship between high stakes test score performance and knowledge –for-everyday use, even while the proliferation of various “proficiency” test continues. However, the empirical evidence supporting the basic socio emotional learning-academics relationship is growing.

CASEL's (2003) ESSENTIAL SKILLS FOR ACADEMIC AND SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING

Know ourselves and others

Identify feelings-recognize and label one's feelings;

Be responsible-understand one's obligation to engage in ethical, safe and legal behaviours;

Recognize strengths-identify and cultivate one's positive qualities.

Make responsible decisions

Manage emotions-regulate feelings so that they aid rather than impede the handling of situations;

Understand situations-accurately understand the circumstances one is in;

Set goals and plans-establish and work toward the achievement of specific short- and long-term outcomes;

Solve problems creatively-engage in a creative, disciplined process of exploring alternative possibilities that leads to responsible, goal-directed action, including overcoming obstacles to plans.

Care for others

Show empathy-identifying and understanding the thoughts and feelings of others;

Respect others-believing that others deserve to be treated with kindness and compassion as part of our shared humanity;

Appreciate diversity-understanding that individual and group differences complement one another and add strength and adaptability to the world around us.

Know how to act

Communicate effectively-using verbal and non-verbal skills to express oneself and promote effective exchanges with others;

Build relationships-establishing and maintaining healthy and rewarding connections with individual and groups;

Negotiate fairly-achieving mutually satisfactory resolutions to conflict by addressing the needs of all concerned;

Refuse provocations-conveying and following through effectively with one's decision not to engage in unwanted, unsafe, unethical behaviour;

Seek help-identifying the need for and accessing appropriate assistance and support in pursuit of needs and goals;

Act ethically-guide decisions and actions by a set of principles or standards derived from recognized legal/professional codes or moral or faith-based systems of conduct.

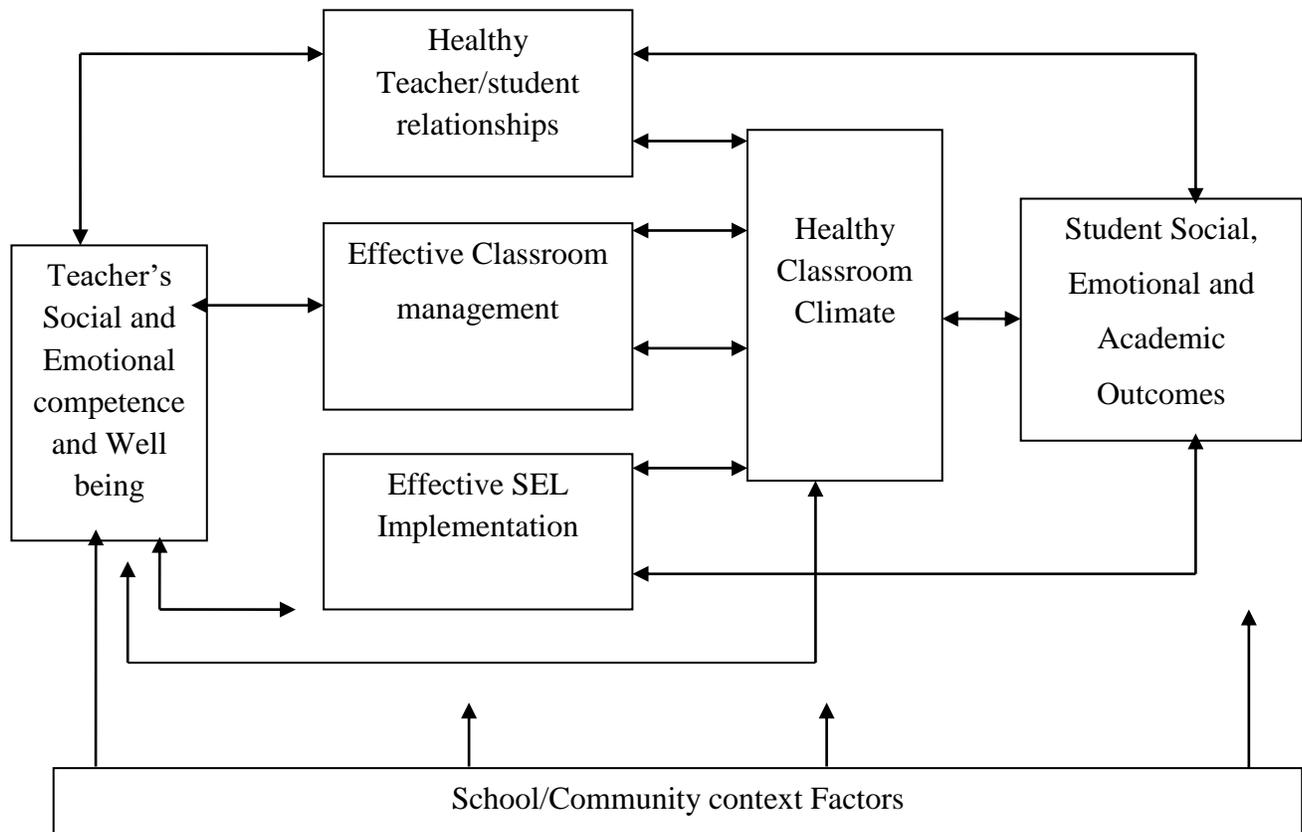


Figure 1.3 PRO-SOCIAL CLASSROOMS: A MODEL OF TEACHER SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Figure 1.3 illustrates a model in which teachers' socio emotional competence and well-being influences the pro-social classroom atmosphere and student outcomes. First, they view teacher socio-emotional competence as an important contributor to the development of supportive teacher–student relationships. A teacher, who recognizes an individual student's emotions, understands the cognitive appraisals that may be associated with these emotions, and how these cognitions and emotions motivate the student's behavior can effectively respond to the student's individual needs.

Second, teachers higher in SEC are likely to demonstrate more effective classroom management; they are likely to be more proactive, skillfully using their emotional expressions and verbal support to promote enthusiasm and enjoyment of learning and to guide and manage student behaviors. Their SEC also supports more effective classroom management by understanding the dynamics of classroom conflict situations. For example, students with self-regulation problems often become classroom scapegoats and may be intentionally provoked by their peers in ways that can be very subtle. Because of their more obvious aggressive response to this subtle yet effective provocation, teachers often reinforce these students' scapegoat status by punishing them without noticing and addressing the behavior of the provocateur. A more socially and emotionally aware teacher may notice this dynamic and handle this situation in a way that responds to both behaviors more effectively.

Third, they propose that teachers with higher SEC will implement social and emotional curriculum more effectively because they are outstanding role models of desired social and emotional behavior. Their social and emotional understanding supports their ability to apply extensive process-based activities in everyday situations as they naturally occur in the classroom. In addition, we conceptualize a transactional relationship between these three aspects of the model and the outcome of a healthy classroom climate. In turn, a healthy classroom climate directly contributes to students' social, emotional, and academic outcomes. Improvements in classroom climate may reinforce a teacher's enjoyment of teaching, efficacy, and commitment to the profession, thereby creating a positive feedback loop that may prevent teacher burnout.

Finally, they recognize that various contextual factors, inside and outside the school building, may influence teachers' socio emotional competence. These factors include co-teacher support, principal and district leadership, school climate and norms, school district values and in-service opportunities, community culture, and local and federal education policy and demands. A teacher's overall well-being and efficacy as well as factors such as friendships, marital relations, and degrees of life stress in a teacher's personal life might also affect the performance of social and emotional abilities in the classroom.

❖ **CHARACTERISTICS OF SOCIALLY AND EMOTIONALLY COMPETENT TEACHERS**

Socially and emotionally competent teachers have high self-awareness. They recognize their emotions, emotional patterns, and tendencies and know how to generate and use emotions such as joy and enthusiasm to motivate learning in themselves and others. They have a realistic understanding of their capabilities and recognize their emotional strengths and weaknesses.

- Socially and emotionally competent teachers also have high social awareness. They know how their emotional expressions affect their interactions with others. Such teachers also recognize and understand the emotions of others. They are able to build strong and supportive relationships through mutual understanding and cooperation and can effectively negotiate solutions to conflict situations.
- Socially and emotionally competent teachers are culturally sensitive, understand that others may have different perspectives than they do, and take this into account in relationships with students, parents, and colleagues.
- Socially and emotionally competent teachers exhibit prosocial values and make responsible decisions based on an assessment of factors including how their decisions may affect themselves and others. They respect others and take responsibility for their decisions and actions.
- Socially and emotionally competent teachers know how to manage their emotions and their behavior and also how to manage relationships with others. They can manage their behavior even when emotionally aroused by challenging situations. They can regulate their emotions in healthy ways that facilitate positive classroom outcomes without compromising their health. They effectively set limits firmly, yet respectfully. They also are comfortable with a level of ambiguity and uncertainty that comes from letting students figure things out for themselves.

Based on current research, there are three ways in which teachers SEC affect students and the learning environment:

- Teachers' socio emotional competence influence the quality of teacher-student relationship.
- Teachers who are calm, positive and content are more likely better equipped for treating students warmly and sensitively, even when students behave in challenging ways.
- Teachers model SEC for students, intentionally or not.
- Teachers navigate stressful situations every day and students are paying attention! They learn from how their teachers manage frustration, deal with conflicts, or maintain control in the classroom.
- Teachers SEC influence classroom organization and management.
- Teachers must maintain a sense of calm, be organized and develop social trust if they want a well-organized classroom that encourages creativity or student autonomy.

Thus in the present study, socio-emotional competence scale for student teachers has been developed by the investigator based on CASEL (2014)'s five core socio emotional competencies namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills and responsible decision making.

Self-Awareness: Recognizing feelings as they occur; having a realistic assessment of one's own abilities and a well-grounded sense of self-confidence

Social Awareness: Sensing what others are feeling; being able to take their perspective; appreciating and interacting positively with diverse groups.

Self-Management: Handling emotions so they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand; delaying gratification to pursue goals; persevering in the face of setbacks.

Relationship Skills: Handling emotions in relationships effectively; establishing and maintaining healthy and rewarding relationships based on cooperation; negotiating solutions to conflict; seeking help when needed.

Responsible Decision Making: Accurately assessing risks; making decisions based on a consideration of all relevant factors and the likely consequences of alternative courses of actions; respecting others; taking personal responsibility for one's decisions.

1.3.2 ABILITIES OF STUDENT TEACHERS

- **CONCEPT OF ABILITY**

Ability is a general creativity possessed by all essentially healthy individuals to some degree. All people think in terms of different levels of ability. A great deal of mist surrounds the word ability. Since a person can behave ability in many ways, it is not strange that there are many definitions of ability but there is no universally accepted definition of ability.

To give bird's eye view of the overall functions of ability, its definitions may broadly be divided into five groups. They are as follows:

- i) **Ability as a Talent: Carl Roger** (1975) defined creative process as an action of the rational and novel product.
Rhodes (1961) defined ability as a process and as a talent found in some individuals.
- ii) **Ability as a process: Maslow** (1966) stated that ability is a process which is preconscious rather than conscious process and included something of checking and corrective process.
Taylor Chamber (1973) described creative thinking as a process which has been considered as bipolar in which the interaction between the person and the environment will be studied.
- iii) **Ability as a novel Idea: Thurston** (1952), **Stein** (1953), and **Raina** (1989) described ability as a novel idea. Ability involved responses to that of novelty, statistically frequent to some extent of adoption. It is concerned with something which is new rather than unexpected or non-traceable area.
- iv) **Ability as a new thinking: Getzel** (1972) held the view that ability consisted of two important components-convergent thinking and divergent thinking. Convergent thinking referred to intellectual ability whereas divergent thinking referred to the method adopted by the individuals to attain goals and objectives.
- v) **Ability as a problem solving capacity: Kilpatrick** (1906) defined ability as a problem solving method. According to him it was the best method to solve the

problems of our daily life. **According to Guilford (1952)**, ability is essentially problem solving method. It is this aspect that is gaining utmost attention.

- **ELEMENTS OF ABILITY THINKING**

According to Guilford (1966), ability is a form of divergent thinking. Divergent thinking is a kind of mental operation in which we think in different directions, sometimes searching and sometimes seeking variety. Divergent thinking leads to novel responses to a given stimuli. The unique feature of divergent thinking is that a variety of responses are produced.

Guilford (1966) and his students undertook to discover and define the complex of abilities that together make up ability thinking. They devised tests to explore each of a number of possible components, and eventually established somewhat different but related abilities as follows:

1. **Sensitivity to problems**

This means awareness of defects, needs and deficiencies in the environment

2. **Fluency**

- (2a) **Associative Fluency**

This is the ability to think of words rapidly that meet certain requirements, such as being synonymous or being opposite.

- (2b) **Ideational Fluency**

This is the rate at which a person can think of ideas. For example, a person may be asked to think of as many uses as possible for a common brick.

3. **Flexibility:**

It is a matter of fluidity of information or a lack of fixedness or rigidity. Flexibility is the basis of originality, ingenuity and inventiveness.

- (3a) **Spontaneous Flexibility:**

This is the ability to strike out in a number of different directions in one's thinking.

- (3b) **Adaptive Flexibility:**

It is the ability to change the direction of one's thinking in order to keep up with a changing problem situation.

4. Originality:

It is a quality which can be demonstrated in several ways, one being the uncommonness of ideas a person has, another the ability to produce clever.

5. Elaboration:

It is a facility for adding a variety of details to information that has already been produced. Ability productions very often progress from a vague outline or theme, through development of a more clearly organized structure or system with its essential aspects, then to the more elaborate finished affair, whether it be a poem, a novel, a painting or a scientific theory. There are implications to be followed up and finishing touches to be added in order to round out the final product.

❖ PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS OF ABILITY

Ability is the abilities to go beyond present knowledge, resist the persistence of set, and produce something new. Ability people recognize that problems are often solvable in more than one way. They exercise divergent thinking: instead of stubbornly sticking to one tried and true path, they explore some side alleys.

Ability and intelligence are only weakly correlated (Barron & Harrington, 1981). A certain level of intelligence (as measured by IQ tests) seems necessary for ability in most fields but a high IQ does not guarantee that the individual will be able. Personality characteristics seem more important and include the following (McCrae, 1987, Mackinnon, 1962, 1968; Schank, 1988): creative problem solving requires divergent as well as convergent thinking. Ability people generally are willing to risk ridicule prefer working independently; are confident enough to enjoy working on difficult problems; are curious about the world; and are able to persist at a task without becoming discouraged.

➤ Ability in Relation to Educational Goals

Ability thinking is a powerful force for lifting man to higher levels of intellectual functioning, human dignity and achievement. It has given us the alphabets, printing, radio, television, computers, and spacecraft. It has given us great art, architecture, music and literature.

Teachers and educators must have a better understanding of the ability process and the influence of the personality pattern on the ability of the individual. They should find out how educational institutions can liberate the creative potential of the individual and initiate him into ability way of life. They should strive towards providing an educational environment that would free the individual from the shackles of prejudice, fear of the unknown and from ignorance.

Schools are the proper and fertile ground for the release of the creative potential, but it is only in a liberated atmosphere that productive ability will manifest itself.

➤ **Ability of Teacher**

A ability teacher will have adequate mastery over all subject and a strong desire to acquire more and more of it. In fact, teacher is an explorer of 'truth'. Teacher strives continuously to grow professionally. Occasionally, teacher does self-educational analyses of shortcomings and tries utmost to get rid of them. Teacher is always prepared to welcome the knowledge acquired as a consequence of new experiences and is always very cautious not to develop any sort of prejudice. Teacher makes sincere efforts to learn something from all types of experience.

An abled teacher very well understands the laws of learning and keeping in view these laws, teacher makes appropriate and desirable changes in methods of teaching.

Teachers also tries to understand each and every student and plans teaching in accordance with the interests and abilities of students whom has to teach. In addition to it, teacher studies the maladjustments present in the student's personalities and strives hard to release their creative potential by making a multi-prolonged attack on the problem.

Thus teacher tries to enable them to lead life with sound mental and physical health. Ability teacher always yearns that the students should become broadminded instead of becoming rigid and obstinate, that is, they should always be receptive to the ideas and opinions of others. Teacher also tries to develop among the students, the habits like keeping the decisions suspended until full information is assembled, analysing the causes of a problem by plunging deep into it, evaluating an event or

behaviour on the basis of available facts, which in turn helps to develop positive values.

In ability teaching, rote memory and blind imitation are not encouraged, whereas special emphasis is laid on independent thinking. Besides protecting the ability of children, creative teaching helps further development of their creative potential. The teaching of an “ability teacher” can be labelled ‘as creative teacher’. An ability teacher possesses abilities included in ability syndrome in abundance and makes use of them in various teaching-learning situations.

Ability teaching is always constructive. Efforts are made to ensure that students do not remain passive listeners only. On the other hand, they are encouraged to acquire knowledge actively. According to Torrance (1970) creative teaching usually results in increased creative growth, involvement and participation in creative activities and liking for school.

Developing abilities attitude, encouraging creative thinking enabling the students to approach their activities ability. Developing feeling of self-confidence in them and enabling them to adapt themselves to changed circumstances, are some of the aims of ability teaching. The future of the society, the nation and the mankind will certainly become bright if we succeed in achieving these aims because it will enable the ability individuals to make maximum use of their creative potential for the progress and prosperity of mankind.

❖ **TEACHING ABILITY**

Undoubtedly, teachers are the core figures in all teaching-learning processes. Thus, it is of paramount significance to select teachers, to train them, to designate them with teaching positions, and to offer chances for self-improvement during their professional life. A perfect school, a perfect curriculum, and perfect students would make sense only with teachers doing their best at work. Teachers contribute dramatically to the learning settings not only with their skills and expertise, but also with their up-to-date world knowledge, values and philosophical backgrounds, and with their personal characteristics. Therefore, teachers have to be trained thoroughly and multi-functionally.

An important factor in the determination of a teacher's sense of ability is, not surprisingly, experience, or what Bandura (1977), a leader in the development of self-ability theory, calls performance accomplishments. Teachers has been able to make a difference in student learning? Hoy (2000) suggests that "some of the most powerful influences on the development of teacher ability are mastery experiences during student teaching and the induction year." Thus, "the first years of teaching could be critical to the long-term development of teaching ability."

Good teachers are trained via good training programs. (MEB, 1982; Küçükahmet, 2001). The first institution to raise teachers was established in 1848, approximately 160 years ago, in our country. Meanwhile, tremendous changes have taken place in the training. Because the quality of education is highly correlated with the quality of teachers, they have to be trained well both during pre-service years and in-service years, which is crucial for the quality of educational services (Şisman, 2001). Sönmez (2007: p. 149) underlies that teaching profession is an important occupation requiring special knowledge, skills, and interest, and that no one should be allowed to teach without proper pedagogic training. Ministry of National Education (1999) also underpins that teachers' features are directly influential on the quality of educational processes since they are the ones who constantly communicate with students, apply the instructional programs, manage learning, and who assess both the students and the instruction. Each component of teachers' characteristics has a crucial impact on students.

So far, countless studies have been designed to determine the qualities that a teacher should bear. These are as follows: a solid command of field and world knowledge, ability to use different techniques and methods, advanced communication skills to build up efficient and cozy atmosphere that is interesting for students, adaptive, hard-working, well-groomed, affectionate, a good organizer, open-minded, self-confident, tolerant, and fair. According to Güneş (2003), effective teachers are those who think, question, criticize, who are innovative and open-minded, and who constantly update themselves with a great love for their profession. Likewise, Good and Brophy (1997) state that good teachers are innovative, democratic, enthusiastic, eager, and good at establishing positive relations with others. Based on their research, Çelikten and Can (2003) report that ideal teachers are

tolerant, trustworthy, objective, innovative, open to criticism, success-oriented, time-efficient, cooperative with administrators and colleagues, and they build a constructive and educational discipline in the class where they include the students into all activities of class management.

Chang, Lin and Song's (2011) classification has served as the basis for the dimensions of teaching efficacy studied in this research. As for Chang, Lin and Song (2011), the concept of teaching efficacy bases itself onto Bandura's (1997) social-cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory. The first element of teaching efficacy as described by Chang, Lin & Song (2011) is course design. Saban (2000) discusses that the success of teaching is highly dependent on the consistency between planning of the goals in a course and the practice. Instructional methods/strategies applied by teachers are the second element in teaching efficacy, and they are mostly accountable for an effective learning process (Şahinel, 2003). Instructional methods are listed among the factors influencing students' success. The core responsibility of choosing and applying relevant instructional methods and techniques falls onto the teacher. The increase in the efficiency and productivity of any program is directly correlated with teachers' skills to fulfill this responsibility. On the other hand, there are many other factors affecting how teachers carry out the expected responsibilities. Among these is the awareness and implementation of teaching principles and methods by teachers (Erden,1998). What comes as the third in teaching efficacy is technology use, which is crucial for all current disciplines. It is common knowledge that technology use enhances the quality of learning and the efficiency of teaching, decreases the time both students and teachers need to attain their goals, lessens the cost of education without any loss of quality, and activates the students in the learning environment (Uşun, 2007). Öğüt, Altun and Koçer (2003) note that advances in info-communication technologies have also positively influenced the quality of education. Apart from enriching the quality of education, use of technology also helps raising individuals who are familiar with and able to use technology in their lives (Köseoğlu et al., 2007). Class management is the fourth element of teaching efficacy. Establishing quality education and learning settings can be linked to efficient school and class management, which later can also be attributed with class management skills

teachers have. Therefore, the quality of education is considerably dependent on the quality of class management (Şenturk& Oral, 2008). Interpersonal relations can be taken as the fifth element of teaching efficacy. Especially teachers, students, administrators, and other workers should be communicating effectively in order for education to properly actualize (Çilenti, 1998). A teacher with efficient communicative skills understands the students better, accepts them, and bears positive feelings. In such a setting, students, too, develop more positive attitudes and behaviours towards their teachers and peers (Kısaç, 2002). The quality of in-class communication plays a crucial role on students' personality development and academic success (Ergin & Birol, 2000). As for Chang, Lin and Song (2011), learning assessment is the final component of teaching efficacy. Assessment is regarded as the most important element of teaching process. Proper, trustable, and objective assessment requires valid and reliable evaluation tools, methods, and standards (Kayabaşı, 2007). According to Daniel and Colleagues (1998), another feature that teachers should possess is a good command of skills and knowledge about assessment and evaluation.

Schools currently use a number of frameworks that describe the core elements of effective teaching. The problem is that these attributes are so broadly defined that they can be open to wide and different interpretation whether high quality teaching has been observed in the classroom. It is important to understand these limitations when making assessments about teaching quality.

Educational leaders and researchers agree that teachers have an immense impact on student success. An analysis from the Texas Schools Project, found that teacher quality differences explain the largest portion of the variation in reading and math achievement (Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain, 2005).

Teaching ability-“teachers’ confidence in their ability to promote students’ learning” (Hoy, 2000)-was first discussed as a concept more than 30 years ago when these two items were included in studies conducted by researchers at the Rand Corp

- ❖ “When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can’t do much because most of a student’s motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment.”

- ❖ “If I try really hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students” (Armor et al., 1976, in Henson, 2001).

Teachers were asked to express their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of the two statements and their responses initiated the concept of teaching ability. From the beginning, this “early work suggested powerful effects from the simple idea that a teacher’s belief in his or her ability to positively impact student learning is critical to actual success or failure in a teacher’s behavior” (Henson, 2001). Some researchers suggest that the more precise term “teaching sense of ability” be used, as what is being discussed is a teacher’s sense of competence-not some objective measure of actual competence. From a practical standpoint, there are two important questions related to this theoretical construct.

- ❖ How does a teacher’s sense of efficacy affect his or her teaching?
- ❖ Can it, through its impact on teaching, affect student achievement?

Over the years, since the concept was first developed, researchers have helped to provide answers to both these questions. In his review of research, Jerald (2007) highlights some teacher behaviors found to be related to a teacher’s sense of ability. Teachers with a stronger sense of ability.

- ❖ Tend to exhibit greater levels of planning and organization;
- ❖ Are more open to new ideas and are more willing to experiment with new methods to better meet the needs of their students;
- ❖ Are more persistent and resilient when things do not go smoothly;
- ❖ Are less critical of students when they make errors; and
- ❖ Are less inclined to refer a difficult student to special education.

Teachers who set high goals, who persist, who try another strategy when one approach is found wanting-in other words, teachers who have a high sense of efficacy and act on it-are more likely to have students who learn (Shaughnessy, 2004).

Researchers interested in the topic have worked to develop longer and more focused instruments to get at the beliefs the first two Rand items were intended to measure. Their work has also increased our understanding of the concept. It is now generally thought

that two types of beliefs comprise the construct of efficacy. The first, personal teaching efficacy, relates to a teacher's own feeling of confidence in regard to teaching abilities. The second, often called general teaching efficacy, "appears to reflect a general belief about the power of teaching to reach difficult children" (Hoy, 2000). Researchers have also found that these two constructs are independent. Thus, a teacher may have faith generally in the ability of teachers to reach difficult children, while lacking confidence in his or her personal teaching ability.

❖ **THREE TEACHING ABILITIES**

The three teaching abilities are:

- Classroom management: the ability to manage discipline.
- Teaching skills: the ability to impart knowledge.
- Teaching goal: the knowledge to impart.

➤ **Classroom management**

Classroom management is largely about discipline. It is about maintaining order and control, which is based on students acting in ways that support their own learning as well as that of others.

Many young students act in disruptive ways, mostly due to the difficult psychology of maturation and learning to live in society. This knowledge seems little help to the teacher struggling to be heard but getting inside their heads is a powerful process. Just like negotiation, if you can get inside their heads you are most of the way there. If you can go from 'me vs. them' to 'me with them' (not, however, an undifferentiated 'us') then you can make a huge difference.

Classroom management is very difficult for some teachers in some situations. It can, however, be learned. Indeed it must be, if the teacher is to retain sanity and be allowed to teach.

Classroom management and management of student conduct are skills that teachers acquire and hone over time. These skills almost never "jell" until after a minimum of few years of teaching experience. To be sure, effective teaching requires considerable skill in managing the myriad of tasks and situations that occur in the classroom each day. Skills

such as effective classroom management are central to teaching and require "common sense," consistency, an often undervalued teacher behavior, a sense of fairness, and courage. These skills also require that teachers understand in more than one way the psychological and developmental levels of their students. The skills associated with effective classroom management are only acquired with practice, feedback, and a willingness to learn from mistakes.

Research has shown us that teachers' actions in their classrooms have twice the impact on student achievement as do school policies regarding curriculum, assessment, staff collegiality, and community involvement (Marzano, 2003a). A comprehensive literature review by Wang, Haertel, and Walberg (1993) amply demonstrates the importance of effective classroom management. These researchers found that of all the variables, classroom management had the largest effect on student achievement. This makes intuitive sense—students cannot learn in a chaotic, poorly managed classroom.

Research not only supports the importance of classroom management, but it also sheds light on the dynamics of classroom management. Stage and Quiroz's meta-analysis (1997) shows the importance of there being a balance between teacher actions that provide clear consequences for unacceptable behavior and teacher actions that recognize and reward acceptable behavior. Other researchers (Emmer, Evertson, & Worsham, 2003; Evertson, Emmer, & Worsham, 2003) have identified important components of classroom management, including beginning the school year with a positive emphasis on management; arranging the room in a way conducive to effective management; and identifying and implementing rules and operating procedures.

Teaching Skills: There are three key attributes of the teaching skill that the teachers need. At the minimum teaching is of basic functional skills, showing them how to do things by rote, repeating actions and words until, given a suitable stimulus, they are able to reproduce an effective response.

Beyond learning to do is learning to think. If they know how to go about understanding and solving problems, then teaching has been of a higher order. Beyond even learning to think is developing a passion for the subject that drives the student to

actively learn for themselves. The best teachers thus infect their students with a love of the subject that will sustain their interest for many years to come.

In its broadest sense, teaching is a process that facilitates learning. Teaching is the specialized application of knowledge, skills and attributes designed to provide unique service to meet the educational needs of the individual and of society. The choice of learning activities whereby the goals of education are realized in the school is the responsibility of the teaching profession.

In addition to providing students with learning opportunities to meet curriculum outcomes, teaching emphasizes the development of values and guides students in their social relationships. Teachers employ practices that develop positive self-concept in students. Although the work of teachers typically takes place in a classroom setting, the direct interaction between teacher and student is the single most important element in teaching. Teachers need a variety of professional development skills along with knowledge of their subject matter and experience in order to be an effective teacher.

Likewise, as the rapid developments in technology infuse into our lives, they affect the way students learn and the way teachers teach. Modern teachers need to be competent in not only basic skills, but new skill sets.

MODERN SKILLS THAT TODAY'S TEACHERS SHOULD POSSESS.

- Professional Development: Adaptability
- Confidence
- Communication
- Continuous Learner
- Imaginative
- Leadership
- Organization
- Innovative
- Commitment
- Ability to Manage Online Reputation

- Ability to Engage
- Understanding of Technology
- Know When to Unplug
- Ability to Empower

Teaching Goals: Teaching goals are the ability of the teachers to strive excellence in education and in teaching. Achieving the greater proficiency and with set ambitions to cater the demands of the learners.

“Nothing pushes students to do their best work like a professor who takes pride not in his or her own accomplishments, but in helping others realize their potential. “

-Jason Dent, Philosophy, '05

Classroom is a training ground not only for future study in the field but also for many aspects of life. Great teachers can help students master the fundamentals of their subject matter, which will pay off both for advanced study in their field and for students' everyday

Classroom websites aren't anything new, they have been around for years. The difference between creating and maintaining a classroom website ten years ago to now, is that today, it is easy to do in a matter of minutes. Years ago creating a website involved a lot of hard work and took someone who had specialized knowledge in computers. Today, technology has made it so easy that even a child can create a web page. At this day and age, it's hard to keep up with the must-have tech tools for education. It seems like a new device to help us learn quicker and better comes out every week. With the ever-changing technology, it can seem like an uphill battle to know what is the best way to integrate the latest technology into the classroom.

As a teacher, one should strive for a classroom that would be conducive to learning. I feel that linear seating allows for more structure in the classroom. However, interest should be stimulated by the display of attractive bulletin boards that are pertinent to the material being taught. The use of supplemental materials such as videos and computers are a must in educational programs. In today`s society everything moves rather quickly and the future generations must be able to keep pace. The world is at our fingertips through

these devices. I would also assign projects to reinforce learning. This, of course, would depend on the ability of the groups being taught.

Interpersonal Goals: Teaching is an interactive profession. Students learn best from teachers who demonstrate they care. One has to determine to find the right balance between being liked and being respected. Make it a goal never to damage the self-esteem of a student and to always be patient, fair and kind. Appreciate the value of maintaining a close relationship with students' parents; recognize them as allies and enlist their support when necessary.

Intrapersonal Goals: As a teacher, one should learn from the mistakes. One has to set the goal of being a good person as well as a great teacher. The teacher should be the role model to the students.

Time Management Goals: Student teachers often find themselves exhausted because they invest so much time preparing original and creative lessons. Although this is important, it is equally important to take care of themselves. They have to plan time to be involved in life outside the classroom.

Most student teachers aren't in it for the money (and indeed there are many grants available for teachers to make funding a bit easier). They're not in it for the time off or the recognition they're in it to make a difference, to learn and to inspire, and they teach because they realize the value of education. The principal goals for student-teachers are:

- Educate
- Inspire
- Learn
- Change

Hence for the present research, considering the importance of abilities of teachers to improve the quality of teacher education, abilities of student teachers' scale has been developed based on the three dimensions namely, classroom management, teaching skills and goals which are necessary to mould the present generation of students.

1.3.3 SOCIAL CAPITAL

There has been considerable and increasing interest in social capital theory in recent years, evidenced by its application to various disciplines and numerous subject areas. This interest stems from the appeal of the concept as it integrates sociology and economics, and combines a number of ideas including civic tradition, civicness, civic involvement and social cohesion. Existing studies have suggested that social capital has considerable benefits for a range of economic and sociological outcomes. These purported benefits, and the concept behind social capital, are not new but rooted in the work of early economic and sociologic thinkers. The contemporary authors, who are responsible for bringing the social capital debate to its current popularity, include Pierre Bourdieu, James Coleman and Robert Putnam. Many authors have since contributed to the rudimentary conceptualization of the complex theory.

There is no set and commonly agreed upon definition of social capital and the particular definition adopted by a study will depend on the discipline and level of investigation. There is still debate over the appropriateness of the term ‘capital’ and this has led to a general weakening of the conceptualization. These definitional and ideological problems have resulted in considerable diversity in theory, particularly in discussion of dimensions, levels, types, determinants, benefits, and downsides. The result is a number of conceptualization approaches, each attempting to simplify the complex social world while maintaining validity. The result to date has largely been poor operationalization of the concept that lacks rigor and strong theoretical links to a thorough conceptualization of social capital. Of particular interest to this study is the interaction of social capital and natural resource management. Few authors have previously made this connection with the most closely related work being on environmental management and development.

❖ SOCIAL CAPITAL THEORY

Nahapiet & Ghoshal (1998) defined social capital as “the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit”. Adler & Kwon (2002) stated that social capital is a durable asset in which resources are invested so that they may return the benefits in future. It is an advantage that exists because of location of an individual or a

group in the social structure (Widén-Wulff & Ginman, 2004). Social capital is not necessarily context specific i.e. network formed in one context may be transformed to another (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Jones & Taylor, 2012; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). For example the network formed in academic environment of a university can be used by the students later in their professional lives. Social capital is similar to the other forms of capital in that it; is productive, leads to achievement of certain objectives which otherwise would not be achievable (Coleman, 1988), can substitute or complement other resources, and requires “upkeep” (Adler & Kwon, 2002). It differs however from the other forms of capital in that it cannot be traded easily (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) as it is not residing in a social member (person or an organization) but a network of members (Coleman, 1988). It is not the exclusive property of any one member in a social network, rather it is jointly owned by the whole network (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). It can be accumulated just like knowledge or other types of capital (Tyman & Stumpf, 2003).

Social capital provides benefits related to information (Burt, 1997; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) such as; access to information which is outside ones grasp alone, timing: availability of the information at the time when it is most useful, and referrals that a person receives from ones network that present a person in a positive way in the right places; and control benefits that result from ones central position in the network and lead towards control over whose interests get the priority (Burt, 1997). Managers with a higher social capital know about and are able to control lucrative opportunities. They are able to gather and direct information where it is required with higher level of effectiveness (Burt, 1997). Through social capital efficiency of the action that a person takes is increased (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The structure of interactions in a social network affects the shaping of a common vision. These interactions not only lead to the adoption of the organizations’ vision, language, norms and practices but also to the formation of new ones (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). More social capital is also associated with early promotions and higher bonuses (Burt, 1997).

Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) suggested that social capital is a construct consisting of structural, relational, and the cognitive dimensions. These dimensions have been discussed in the following sections.

Structural Dimension: Structure is important for the formation and utilization of social capital (Widén-Wulff & Ginman, 2004). Structural dimension refers to the pattern of connections between the members of the network. Important aspects of this dimension are ties between the members of a social network; network structure based on density, connectivity and hierarchy; and multipurpose use of networks (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Bolino, et al. (2002) proposed: structural holes (absence of connection between network members), concentration (amount of connections concentrated amongst few network members), and density (potential versus existing connections amongst the network members) as the indicators of structural dimension. Interactions between the organization members by physical or electronic means such as meetings, teamwork, emails or online discussion forums facilitate the access to knowledge amongst various members. As a result the overall knowledge creation increases (Chua, 2002). The location of a member's contacts in the social relationships is also a source of certain advantages. These contacts can be used to gain information, resources and jobs (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) suggested that structural dimension of social capital is associated with the knowledge sharing and associated activities. Current study employs social interaction ties as the indicator of structural dimension of social capital.

Relational Dimension: Relational dimension of social capital consists of assets which are created through, and can be benefited from, by relationships. It is based on relationships that the people have which can affect their behavior e.g. respect and friendship. These relationships are the source of fulfillment of social needs such as sociability, approval and prestige (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) and lead to the development of trust and identification with another (Bolino, et al., 2002). It also describes the degree of trust ensuing from social interaction (Chow & Chan, 2008). Along with the network of relationships, trust and norms are important sources of social capital (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Thus the key aspects of this dimension are trust, norms, obligations and expectations and identification (Chow & Chan, 2008; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

Cognitive Dimension: Cognitive Dimension relates to the resources that allow the formation of shared interpretations and meanings within a network or organization (Chow & Chan, 2008; Wasko & Faraj, 2005). This dimension of social capital is embedded in the

properties such as common language or vision that support a common understanding of shared goals and norms of action in a social setting. Within large, complex organizations, shared vision and values facilitate the development of cognitive dimension of social capital that by supporting individual and joint actions, benefit organization (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). Cognitive social capital of individuals is the outcome of frequent interactions while sharing the same practices, which lead the individuals to learn skills, knowledge and common conventions (Wasko & Faraj, 2005). Current study uses shared language and shared vision as indicators of cognitive dimension of social capital.

❖ **DEFINITIONS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL**

The commonalities of most definitions of social capital are that they focus on social relations that have productive benefits. The variety of definitions identified in the literature stem from the highly context specific nature of social capital and the complexity of its conceptualization and operationalization.

Social capital does not have a clear, undisputed meaning, for substantive and ideological reasons (Dolfsma and Dannreuther 2003; Foley and Edwards 1997). For this reason there is no set and commonly agreed upon definition of social capital and the particular definition adopted by a study will depend on the discipline and level of investigation (Robison et al. 2002). Not surprisingly considering the different frameworks for looking at social capital there is considerable disagreement and even contradiction in the definitions of social capital (Adler and Kwon 2002). Because of the difficulties in defining social capital, authors tend to discuss the concept, its intellectual origin, its diversity of applications and some of its unresolved issues before adopting a school of thought and adding their own definition (Adam and Roncevic 2003). It has been suggested that a cross disciplinary definition would be less important if scholars were to redefine and appreciate other discipline's definitions (SCIG 2000). SCIG (2000) further identified that all studies must discuss social capital in relation to the particular discipline, study level and context and that a set definition for such is not required, only an identification of operationalization or conceptualization (SCIG 2000). Other authors have identified that definitions vary depending on whether they focus on the substance, the sources, or the effects of social capital (Adler and Kwon 2002; Field et al. 2000; Robison et al. 2002).

Grootaert and Van Bastelaer (2002b) supported this view identifying that the main cause of variance in definitions is caused by focusing on the form, source or consequence of social capital. Social capital is multidimensional and must be conceptualized as such to have any explanatory value (Eastis 1998). Some authors see social capital as an economic term and do not adequately take account of its multi – dimensional and multi – disciplinary nature, for example Day (2002).

Social capital is about the value of social networks, bonding similar people and bridging between diverse people, with norms of reciprocity (Dekker and Uslaner 2001; Uslaner 2001). Sander (2002, p. 213) stated that ‘the folk wisdom that more people get their jobs from whom they know, rather than what they know, turns out to be true’. Adler and Kwon (2002) identified that the core intuition guiding social capital research is that the goodwill that others have toward us is a valuable resource. As such they define social capital as ‘the goodwill available to individuals or groups. Its source lies in the structure and content of the actor’s social relations. Its effects flow from the information, influence, and solidarity it makes available to the actor’ (Adler and Kwon 2002, p. 23), Dekker and Uslaner (2001) posited that social capital is fundamentally about how people interact with each other.

There are therefore numerous definitions of social capital found in the literature. A considerable number of definitions have been listed in the table below (adapted from Adler and Kwon 2002). They vary depending on whether their focus is primarily on (1) the relations an actor maintains with other actors, (2) the structure of relations among actors within a collectivity, or (3) both types of linkages (Adler and Kwon 2002). A focus on external relations have also been called ‘bridging’ (Woolcock 1998) or ‘communal’ (Oh et al. 1999) and a focus on internal relations ‘bonding’ or ‘linking’. Similar categorization could be done according to other criteria such as strong or weak ties, horizontal or vertical, open or closed, structural or cognitive, geographically dispersed or circumscribed, and instrumental or principled (further discussion of these types and categorizations can be found in the types of social capital section).

TABLE 1.1 DEFINITIONS OF SOCIAL CAPITAL

External versus Internal	Authors	Definitions of Social Capital
External/ Bridging/ Communal	Baker	‘a resource that actors derive from specific social structures and then use to pursue their interests; it is created by changes in the relationship among actors’; (Baker 1990, p. 619).
	Belliveau, O’Reilly, Wade	‘an individual’s personal network and elite institutional affiliations’ (Belliveau et al. 1996, p. 1572).
	Bourdieu	‘the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition’ (Bourdieu 1986, p. 248).’made up of social obligations (‘connections’), which is convertible, in certain conditions, into economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of a title of nobility’ (Bourdieu 1986, p. 243).
	Bourdieu Wacquant	‘the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition’ (Bourdieu and Wacquant 1992, p. 119).
	Boxman, De Graai. Flap	‘the number of people who can be expected to provide support and the resources those people have at their disposal’ (Boxman et al. 1991, p. 52).
	Burt	‘friends, colleagues, and more general contacts through whom you receive opportunities to use your financial and human capital’ (Burt 1992, p. 9).’The brokerage opportunities in a network’ (Burt 1997, p. 355).

	Knoke	‘the process by which social actors create and mobilize their network connections within and between organizations to gain access to other social actors’ resources’ (Knoke 1999, p. 18).
	Portes	‘the ability of actors to secure benefits by virtue of membership in social networks or other social structures’ (Portes 1998, p. 6).
Internal/ Bonding/ Linking	Brehm Rahn	‘the web of cooperative relationships between citizens that facilitate resolution of collective action problems’ (Brehm and Rahn 1997, p. 999).
	Coleman	‘Social capital is defined by its function. It is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities having two characteristics in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structure, and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within the structure’ (Coleman 1990, p. 302).
	Fukuyama	‘The ability of people to work together for common purposes in groups and organizations’ (Fukuyama 1995, p. 10). ‘Social capital can be defined simply as the existence of a certain set of informal values or norms shared among members of a group that permit cooperation among them’ (Fukuyama 1997).
	Inglehart	‘a culture of trust and tolerance, in which extensive networks of voluntary associations emerge’ (Inglehart 1997, p. 188).
	Portes Sensenbrenner	‘those expectations for action within a collectivity that affect the economic goals and goal’ seeking behavior of its members, even if these expectations are not oriented toward the economic sphere’ (Portes and Sensenbrenner 1993, p. 1323).

	Putnam	‘features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit’ (Putnam 1995, p. 67).
	Thomas	‘those voluntary means and processes developed within civil society which promote development for the collective whole’ (Thomas 1996, p. 11).
Both types	Loury	‘naturally occurring social relationships among persons which promote or assist the acquisition of skills and traits valued in the marketplace. . . an asset which may be as significant as financial bequests in accounting for the maintenance of inequality in our society’ (Loury 1992, p. 100).
	Nahapiet and Ghoshal	‘the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital thus comprises both the network and the assets that may be mobilized through that network’ (Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998, p. 243).
	Pennar	‘the web of social relationships that influences individual behavior and thereby affects economic growth’ (Pennar 1997, p. 154).
	Schiff	‘the set of elements of the social structure that affects relations among people and are inputs or arguments of the production and/or utility function’ (Schiff 1992, p. 160).
	Woolcock	‘the information, trust, and norms of reciprocity inhering in one’s social networks’ (Woolcock 1998, p. 153).

As previously identified, all studies must discuss social capital in relation to the particular discipline, study level, and context and that a set definition for such is not required, only an identification of operationalization or conceptualization. Therefore this

study will not create a new definition of social capital and will not select an existing definition from the literature as doing so limits the application and understanding of the concept. This study will identify an appropriate operationalization and conceptualization for social capital in following sections. The above discussion of definitions should provide ample understanding of the social capital concept.

❖ **Operationalisation of Social Capital**

Social capital is poorly conceptualised, so putting the concept into operation is problematic. Social capital cannot be measured directly as it exists between people, and within social interactions. Previous attempts to measure the current or past status of social capital have used proxies or indicators of social capital; measuring determinants of social capital or its manifestations rather than social capital directly.

Regardless of how detailed the instrument for measuring social capital is, even if it is a 300 question survey, there is still low certainty between the result and reality. Further, if the intent is to find a single number representing the structure of social capital in a particular group this is almost completely pointless.

Another problem is that any measurement activity requires interaction with the social setting, which changes the nature and structure of the social capital. This is a serious problem for measurement, but an opportunity for building social capital. If the individuals emersed in the social setting are involved in identifying the structural elements that are important, then they can positively enhance these aspects of social capital and this also provides the means to monitor progress.

The topic of using measurement initiatives to build social capital appropriately has not yet been thoroughly explored, and is in need of further research.

1. Building social capital
2. Measurement of social capital

❖ **TYPES OF SOCIAL CAPITAL**

The structural perspective has become the dominant conceptualization of social capital,

- **STRUCTURAL DIMENSION OF SOCIAL CAPITAL**

The structural dimension of social capital relates to the properties of the social system, the various forms of social organisation that make up society. It is the impersonal configuration of linkages between people or units. It is roles, rules, precedents and procedures. It facilitates collective action by making peoples' behaviour more predictable and beneficial. This lowers transaction costs and encourages interaction, exchange, and collaboration. The roles, rules, precedents and procedures together with incentives for conformity and punishments for nonconformity provide a powerful incentive for productive behaviours. The structural dimension of social capital is a construct of society, thus it is social organisation. Rules, roles, etc mostly resides in our minds (we have common understanding of the rules, roles, etc) although some aspects are obvious from the institutions and the documents they create. Common understanding is frequently hard to articulate in precise language but is intuitively understood by actors embedded in the social context.

- **COGNITIVE DIMENSION OF SOCIAL CAPITAL**

The cognitive dimension of social capital is the social setting, or culture, that dictate how one should act in any given setting or situation. It relates to the proper ways of acting in a social system. It is the shared representations, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties. It predisposes people to collective action. The norms, values, attitudes, and beliefs involved in cognitive social capital rationalise cooperative behavior and make it respectable, and even expected. It includes common understandings, shared language, shared purpose, and belonging. Common values and beliefs provide the harmony of interests that reduce the possibility of opportunistic behaviour. While the structural dimension can be observed in tangible roles, rules, etc, the cognitive dimension is intangible as it relates to interpretations of what is appropriate, and attitudes and beliefs, ie what people think and how people feel. It relates to Bourdieu's theory of *habitus* – a set of dispositions, reflexes and forms of behaviour people acquire through acting in society. Or Habermas' theory of *lifeworld* – the “background” environment of competencies, practices, and attitudes representable in terms of one's cognitive horizon.

- **RELATIONAL DIMENSION OF SOCIAL CAPITAL**

The relational dimension of social capital relates to the personal relationships people have developed with each other through a history of interactions, and the nature of these relationships. It is the assets created or leveraged through relationships. It is the flow of resources through interaction in social relationships. The key factors of the relational dimension of social capital are trust and trustworthiness, norms and sanctions, obligations and expectations, and identity and identification. This is not to be confused with similar factors of the cognitive dimension since in the relational dimension they are embedded in, or relate specifically to, social relationships.

In view of the significance of social capital for student teachers, it has been chosen as one of the dependent variable for this present study.

1.3.4 KNOWLEDGE SHARING

Knowledge is a social phenomenon (Brown and Duguid, 2002) and hence it involves people. Knowledge is comprised of experience, values, contextual information, and insights acquired through experience. Together, these serve all as a basis for evaluation and integration of new information and experience. Knowledge is created and implemented in the brain of a person. In organisations, knowledge is incorporated into documents, databases, business procedures and organisational norms (Davenport and Prusak, 2000). Beerli (2002) asserts, knowledge can be regarded as the only unique resource that grows when shared, transferred, and managed skillfully. Knowledge is one of the most important intangible assets possessed by human beings. Unlike other finite resources like land, capital and labour, knowledge is an infinite resource that can generate increasing returns through its systematic use and application. In the 21st century, knowledge is being considered to be the primary production resource and managing knowledge is the main focus of modern organisations. It is widely recognised that knowledge is the critical asset to individual as well as organisation to succeed in the increasingly competitive environment (Syed-Ikhsan and Rowland, 2004; Alavi and Leidner, 1999; Van den Hooff and De Ridder, 2004; Yang, 2007). Social knowledge is shared among organisational members. Based on individual experiences of shared organisational events, social knowledge allows organisational members to share rules in the form of practices.

Social knowledge brings forth an organisational world that is accessible to the individual organisational member and lends itself to individual knowledge development. Individual knowledge is needed for the creation of an organisational world, and this world, in the form of social knowledge, is in turn needed for the creation of individual knowledge about this world (Yuen and Ma, 2004). The importance of efficient knowledge sharing is especially vital in where knowledge brings the value to the organisation. While human knowledge can be the most valuable asset of an organisation often a lot of that knowledge is never shared. Knowledge sharing can define as a social interaction culture, involving the exchange of individual knowledge, experiences, and skills through the whole organisation. Knowledge sharing comprises a set of shared understandings related to providing employees access to relevant information and building and using knowledge networks within organisations (Hogel et al., 2003). According to Keith (1989), quality of work life refers to “the favourableness or unfavourableness of a job environment for people”.

American Society of Training and Development (1979) defines quality of work life as a process of work organisations, which enables its members at all levels to participate actively and efficiently in shaping the organisations environment, methods and outcomes. In the life of a working individual, the quality of work life occupies a significant role. Though the quality of work life has always been of paramount importance, its significance came into realisation during late 1960’s, when various researchers (for example, Lawler and Porter, 1966) expressed their viewpoints emphasising the importance of understanding the factors influencing work life and its behavioral impact on performance of individuals. Since then organisations have been continuously striving to understand the determinants of quality of work life (Glasier, 1976; Elizur and 3 Shye, 1990). An individual’s work experience can have positive or negative effects on other spheres of his or her life. The more direct relevance of work to the total life space is perhaps best expressed by Walton (1975) by the concept of balance. Higher education has significant role in developing a knowledge driven economic growth in any country. The quality of a nation depends upon the quality of its citizens. The quality of the citizens depends on quality of education. The quality of their education depends upon effective teacher. The keystone in the educational

edifice is the teacher. The quality or effectiveness of teachers is considered to be associated with his satisfaction towards his profession, his satisfaction with his values (Rao, 1989).

Much of the literature on knowledge sharing focuses on business organisations and attempts to identify ways in which technology can help employees share knowledge more efficiently in order to increase a business' profitability (Hour, Sung, and Chang, 2009). Furthermore, benefits of knowledge sharing are often associated with businesses gaining competitive advantage (Leibowitz, 2007). In addition to research on business practices, some knowledge sharing research has been conducted in the medical community. In these instances, knowledge sharing has been cited as having benefits such as quality and efficiency for medical professionals (Ryu, Ho, and Han, 2003).

Knowledge sharing studies that focus on education are very rare (Hou, Chung, and Chang, 2009). This could be because academic institutions do not utilise knowledge management strategies to the same extent that other professions tend to (Saba and McDowell, 2007), which means that knowledge sharing is then not studied at the same rate in education as it is in fields such as business. Therefore, there is less information regarding "knowledge sharing in an academic environment" (Kim and Ju, 2008). So far, however, there has been little discussion about the underlying factors influencing intrinsic (enjoyment in helping others, commitment) and extrinsic motivators (reputation, organisational rewards), the key determinants of knowledge sharing intentions in higher education institutions.

Higher education in India is considered as a powerful tool to build knowledge based information society of the 21st Century. Competent faculty is a must for any higher education institution aspiring for quality. Knowledge sharing is important to promote the professional skill and competence of university teachers in knowledge age (Huo, 2013; Semradova and Hubackova, 2014).

Knowledge sharing practices of teachers in higher education are important because individual and collective knowledge is the foundation of the teaching profession. Individually teachers in higher education may gain experience of teaching or knowledge that helps them serve their institution and students, but if not shared, that knowledge is only worthwhile to the individual. Knowledge sharing practices of teachers could

potentially impact student outcomes, future professional initiatives, education related legislation, collaborative agencies, and researchers. Understanding more about how teachers in higher education share knowledge, what types of knowledge are shared, and influential factors that impact their knowledge sharing seems an important step for exploring knowledge sharing as a relatively new concept for the higher education field.

According to Davenport and Prusak (2000), knowledge sharing involves the interaction of activities that include dissimilation, feedback and absorption between individuals. With this, higher education institutions are aiming to help and assist their academics in generating new ideas by encouraging them to work together, to facilitate the exchange of knowledge and to further enhance the institutional learning competency and ability of its faculty members, particularly in achieving institutional goals (Dyer and Nobeoka, 2000).

Higher education institutions are making sure that their faculty members not only continue to generate new knowledge, but should at the same time share their existing knowledge with others. As a consequence they should be able to achieve long term institutional success and increase competitiveness and responsiveness in attaining greater university standards and excellence (Howell and Annansingh, 2012). Indeed, the sharing of knowledge is recognised as a main and vital component of knowledge management, which requires academics' willingness to exchange and disseminate knowledge, consequently ensuring knowledge becomes available and is made known to academics (Sohail and Daud, 2009). Once begun, educators' and researchers' intention to share their knowledge would be further intensified to boost academic and research excellence. Higher education institutions are eager to carry out knowledge sharing practices to improve the quality of knowledge in each of their institutional settings in order to improve competitiveness.

The teacher is considered the key element for the success of any system of education (Yin, 1996). By sharing their knowledge, teachers gain more than they lose. Sharing knowledge is a synergistic process-we get more out than they put in. When teachers share an idea or a way of doing things with another teacher-then just the act of putting their idea into words or writing will help them shape and improve that idea. If they

get into dialogue with the other person, then they would benefit from their knowledge, from their unique insights and improve their ideas further.

Teaching profession involves complex sets of skills, intellectual functioning and knowledge those are not easily acquired and not widely held. For this reason, professions are often referred to as the “knowledge-based” occupations (Hodson and Sullivan, 1995). For different industries, organisations and individuals there exist different set of factors, which influence the quality of work life and in turn motivate or demotivate the employees. A study of these factors is of extreme importance since a direct relationship between quality of work life and motivation; and motivation and productivity is known to exist (Danna and Griffin, 1999). Further, an in depth comprehension of these factors can also help in reducing the ever escalating levels of conflict and subsequently attrition in the workplace (Li and Yeo, 1979). Quality of work life is one of the most important factors influencing the quality and efficiency of the teachers. The quality of work life of teachers working in higher education sector has to be managed in such a way that it should contribute to the quality of higher education.

❖ IMPORTANCE OF KNOWLEDGE SHARING

Today, the creation and application of new knowledge is essential to the survival of almost all businesses. There are many reasons. They include: Intangible products - ideas, processes, information are taking a growing share of global trade from the traditional, tangible goods of the manufacturing company Increasingly the only sustainable competitive advantage is continuous innovation

When anyone leaves an organization their knowledge lost to the organization.” “Our problem as an organization is that we don't know what we know”. Large global or even small geographically dispersed organizations do not know what they know. Expertise learnt and applied in one part of taxation is not leveraged in another.

The focused, unidirectional communication of knowledge between individuals, groups, or organizations such that the recipient of knowledge (a) has a cognitive understanding, (b) has the ability to apply the knowledge, or (c) applies the knowledge “. Contradictions and discrepancies between the definitions can be found on several levels:

- Sharing taking place between individuals only versus between individuals, teams, units or organizations
- Focused or unfocused versus clearly focused
- A transaction versus saying that knowledge can never be shared
- Unidirectional versus multidirectional
- **Benefits of Knowledge Sharing**
 - Expertise can be shared
 - Turnover and job changes don't cripple the system
 - Reduces Cycle time
 - Reduces Costs
 - More Efficient use and reuse of Knowledge assets
 - Enhances functional effectiveness
 - Increases value of existing products and services

Knowledge sharing can be classified as

a. Explicit Knowledge sharing

Knowledge which can be shared externally and can be documented. Explicit knowledge sharing can happen successfully when the following criteria are met as follows:

Articulation: the knowledge provider can describe the information.

Awareness: the recipient must be aware that knowledge is available

Access: the knowledge recipient can access the knowledge provide

Guidance: the body of knowledge must be defined and differentiated into different topics or domains so as to avoid information overload

Completeness: the holistic approach to knowledge sharing in the form of both centrally managed and self-appraised knowledge.

b. Tacit knowledge sharing

Knowledge which cannot be documented unless otherwise it is identified and observed by others. It is a kind of knowledge which is difficult to share with others and it

occurs through different types of socialization. Although tacit knowledge is difficult to identify and codify, relevant factors that influence tacit knowledge sharing includes

Informal networks such as daily interactions between people within a defined environment (work, school, home, casual meet etc.).

The provision of space where people can engage in unstructured or unmonitored discussions, thereby fostering informal networks.

Unstructured, less-structured or experimental work practices that encourage creative problem solving, and the development of social networks.

c. Embedded knowledge sharing

Knowledge which can be shared through clearly delineated products, processes, routines. This knowledge can be shared in different ways, such as: Scenario planning and debriefing: providing a structured space to create possible scenarios, followed by a discussion of what happened, and how it could have been different.

- **TRENDS IN KNOWLEDGE SHARING**

A pattern of gradual change in a condition, output, or process, or an average or general tendency that move in a certain direction over time, is known as trends. A general direction in which knowledge sharing develops or changes is known as Trends in Knowledge Sharing Culture. Earlier tool for interaction and ICT alone plays a key role in knowledge sharing culture. Then gradually trends get changed and now more variables and factors are contributing fro effective Knowledge Sharing Culture.

- ❖ **ROLE OF TECHNOLOGY IN SHARING KNOWLEDGE**

Generally people will argue that employers do not need technology to implement a Knowledge Management programme. To certain extent they are right - Knowledge Management is fundamentally about people but not technology. There is absolutely no way that employees can share knowledge effectively within an organisation even a small one, least mind a large geographically dispersed one without using technology.

In the past it was impossible to share knowledge or work collaboratively with co-workers around the globe. But now technology plays a crucial transformational role and is

a pivotal part of changing the corporate culture to knowledge sharing one. In many ways it is technology⁴ that has made knowledge sharing a reality.

Technology is not all good however. There are many pitfalls to its effective use. Information overload is one that comes readily to mind. Flaming wars (destructive heated electronic arguments) is another. Time wasting - browsing irrelevant stuff are other technology related issues.

Technology plays a crucial transformational role and is a key part of changing the corporate culture to knowledge sharing one. In many ways it is technology that has made knowledge sharing a reality in the past it was impossible to share knowledge or work collaboratively with co-workers around the globe. Today it is a reality.

Technology is not all good however. There are many pitfalls to its effective use. Information overload is one that comes readily to mind. Flaming wars (destructive heated electronic arguments) is another. Time wasting - browsing irrelevant stuff is yet another.

❖ COMPONENTS OF KNOWLEDGE SHARING

Learning Environment to support knowledge sharing: Educators can now choose content from any source and share it on the knowledge sharing platform. They can also share documents, videos, links and a lot more to increase their corporate knowledge base and also the social learning experience by allowing a large number of students to access the content together.

Social Interaction: Social interaction is also shown to play an important role in the development of shared vision and shared language (i.e. cognitive social capital) in learning net-works.

Communication Flow: Information flows in an organization both formally and informally. The term formal refers to communication that follows the official hierarchy and is required to do one's job. It flows through formal channels- the main lines of organizational communication.

Knowledge sharing awareness: Knowledge sharing is unavoidable as it is evident that all organisations require some level of cooperation and contribution of multiple knowledge sources to produce a product or service. The goal of knowledge sharing is simply to

increase productivity, innovation and creative output in order to outdistance the competition.

Attitude towards Knowledge Sharing: An individual's behavior of knowledge sharing with respect to information systems/information technology by investigating their attitude towards knowledge sharing.

Degree of enjoyment in helping others: Enjoyment in helping others has the strongest influence on intention to share knowledge.

ICT/WEB 2.0 Technology Factor: Web 2.0 technologies such as social networks are easy to use and familiar, allowing learners to share and generate knowledge within the small group environment. Web 2.0 technologies as platforms for sharing knowledge between the educational institutions among students.

Because of the development in information and communication technology, it becomes necessary for every student teacher to equip the knowledge of how to retrieve and share the information through web technology. Due to the dire need of knowledge sharing, the investigator has chosen it as one of the criterion variable for the present study.

1.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Social and Emotional Learning is the process through which children and adults acquire and effectively apply the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to understand and manage emotions, establish and achieve positive goals, feel and show empathy for others, establish and maintain positive relationships and make responsible decisions. social emotional learning is critical to developing competencies besides academic content knowledge that are necessary to succeed in college and in careers. Social and emotional learning programming is based on the understanding that the best learning emerges in the context of supportive relationships that make learning challenging, engaging, and meaningful.

Social and emotional skills are critical to being a good student, citizen, and worker. Workforce demands aside, many call for the 21st century classroom to be student-centered and to support individual learning needs. Moreover, students' ability to learn well depends not just on instruction, but also on factors such as the school climate, a sense of belonging

with peers, positive relationships with educators, and the feedback they receive. Neuroscience research demonstrates that emotion and cognition are inextricably linked; emotions are critical for all people to understand, organize and make connections between even “pure” academic concepts.

The identification of abilities by scientific methods is a complex process. An ability is, in fact, a configuration of abilities, identified through correlational and experimental research. Any single ability needs consistency among separate performances involving that ability. In that sense ability is a mediator which helps the individual to interpret the ideas and actions of others as well as to take action all by himself. Ability of a teacher educator is to possess the best teaching skills which are related to the way in which the teacher has performed the activities in the classroom. The role of a teacher is in continuous evolution since its origin in human society. The society itself undergoing to changes regularly. At the beginning the society was learning society. The social roles were determined by social learning. Teacher has the role as information processor and knowledge synthesizer, Guide, director, facilitator, role models and philosopher. From the roles of a prospective teacher, the most specific aspects of teaching, the essential teaching skills, required for every teacher for success in teaching. No problem concerns beginning teachers more than the problem of classroom management. Most new teachers are worried about not being able to control their students and are aware that lack of control will impede effective instruction. Few areas in teacher education curricula have been neglected as much as classroom management. The major reason for this neglect has been that educators formerly had a poor systematic understanding of classroom dynamics; however, our knowledge in this area has expanded to the point where systematic instruction in classroom management is now possible. The emphasize that teachers need to establish and maintain proper learning environments. While the purpose of teaching is to stimulate desired student learning, the purpose of classroom management is to establish the conditions that best promote student learning. Classroom management skills are necessary for effective teaching to occur, but they do not guarantee such behavior.

Knowledge sharing is very individualistic behaviour. They have suggested looking from the perspective of salient beliefs which affect the attitudes towards knowledge

sharing. Thus, knowledge sharing is one of the important knowledge activities in the knowledge management process. This will help to explain, in the next section, knowledge sharing in the context of knowledge management to adapt with these research issues. This social interaction consists of individual interactions and participation. It happens when both of these important elements are involved, making the knowledge sharing effective. Communication is an essential element to ensure the knowledge sharing process is involved actively. The sharing experience can happen when the individuals spend time together in the same environment. Some individuals will see this term as knowledge transfer. In addition, it can also happen through an apprenticeship or mentoring programme. However, if the situation occurs with informal interaction and outside of the workplace, it should return to the knowledge sharing context.

Social Capital research has emerged as a focus of contemporary behavioural epidemiology due to the need for more effective measures aimed at increasing protective health behaviours and decreasing risk behaviours. Therefore, Social Capital has become particularly important, as social contexts can influence health related behaviours.

Social Capital can be simply understood as the resource embedded in the social relationship and can be explored and used for some specific goals, however, since Social Capital is mainly intangible, there is still no uniform understanding, neither precise definition (Nahapiet et al., 1998), for instance, Burt defined Social Capital as the structure of relationship networks and information available to an individual (Burt, 1992), while Coleman even simply defined Social Capital as a type of capital, and can be developed when the relationship between individuals is utilized to facilitate their actions (Coleman, 1998). However, despite the diverse definitions, it is not difficult to find that Social Capital can be used as an instrument for some specific purpose; undoubtedly, this will influence the individual and organizational performance.

The concept is extrapolated from the available theoretical approaches on socio-emotional competence and abilities of student teachers. The strong theory and researchers output has formed the basis for the investigator to conceptualize a model for the study.

Thus, the conceptual framework developed by the investigator explains justification and the inter-linkage of the variables selected. The conceptual framework for the present study is presented below.



Figure 1.4. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

1.5 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Today's schools are essentially passive experiences. Teachers teach and children listen. In an ideal world, every student would learn the same content in exactly the same way. Teachers could teach a lesson once and all students would learn and understand the concept before moving on to the next topic of the day. Unfortunately, students are not like this; rather, each student has their own preferred way of learning. Learning is better when there is an opportunity provided for students' to understand the concept and to become more active and involved learners. Therefore, it is increasingly important for teachers, to differentiate their classroom instruction using different methods and materials to teach each lesson.

The literature review will define the teaching strategy of differentiated instruction and the use of social capital and knowledge sharing module as a method to differentiate instruction. Social capital and knowledge sharing module research will be reviewed and analyzed to determine if it is an effective method to accomplish differentiated instruction. Social capital and knowledge sharing module is the need of the hour to improve socio-emotional competence and abilities of student teachers.

Hence the problem is entitled as:

“Enhancing socio-emotional competence and abilities of student teachers through social capital and knowledge sharing interventions”.

1.6 FORMULATION OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In any scientific study, the research problem has focus, direction and an element of planning. Relevant questions focus the researcher's attention on the aspects that should be scientifically described. This will provide a direction factor for the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The objective of the study is to enhance the socio-emotional competence and abilities of student teachers through the intervention modules of social capital and knowledge sharing. Based on this objective and the review of related literature, the following research questions were formulated to guide this study.

Research Question 1

Whether the intervention module of social capital and knowledge sharing is effective or not in enhancing socio-emotional competence and abilities of student teachers?

Research Question 2

Is there any significant difference in the pre-test and post-test scores of experimental group in socio-emotional competence and abilities of student teachers?

Research Question 3

Is there any significant difference in the pre-test and post-test scores of experimental group in socio-emotional competence and abilities of student teachers based on their marital status?

1.7 MAJOR OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

After considering the theoretical perspectives and review of the related literature, the following objectives were formulated.

1. To select appropriate tools to measure socio-emotional competence, Abilities of student teachers and to develop tools to measure social capital and knowledge sharing.
2. To design module based on social capital and knowledge sharing suitable for student teachers.
3. To assess the impact of the designed social capital and knowledge sharing intervention on socio-emotional competence and abilities of student teachers.
4. To investigate differences in socio-emotional competence and abilities with respect to marital status of student teachers.

1.8 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- The present research study is confined to student teachers in Chennai district only.
- The population of the sample is restricted only to 600 student teachers.
- Although there may be many factors that affect the socio-emotional competence and abilities of students teachers, this study will be restricted to those factors that are chosen for the present research.
- The sample is restricted to women student teachers only.

1.9 CONCLUSION

The problem of the present study has been discussed briefly in this chapter bringing out the definition of social capital and knowledge sharing, the theoretical background, evolution of the study, objectives, need and importance of the study. The terms socio-emotional competence, abilities of student teachers, social capital and knowledge sharing in this study have been reviewed theoretically from the related literature available so as to give a broader theoretical perspective, in the light of which appropriate hypothesis could be framed and tested. A detailed discussion of the related literature having a bearing on the problem in hand follows in chapter II. Chapter III explains the research design, hypotheses and method of investigation. Data analysis and the discussion pertaining to the results have been presented in chapter IV. Inferences based on the results and discussions have been presented in the summary and conclusion in chapter V.