CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Introduction

Education may be defined as the integration of cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions of learning across intrapersonal, interpersonal and social contexts. It refers to the process of holistic learning involving body, mind and emotion. In a restricted sense, education consists of methods of teaching traditional subjects such as languages, mathematics, science, social studies, physical educational, and fine arts by applying cognitive, affective, introspective, intuitive (body/mind) and kinesthetic type of activities to the lessons being taught.

The core components of Mahatma Gandhiji’s Basic Education emphasise the development of body, mind and spirit. He criticized the overemphasis on knowledge acquisition alone. In this context, he says, “Unless the development of the mind and body goes hand in hand with a corresponding awakening of the soul, the former alone would prove to be a poor lop-sided affair”. To him, briefly, education means “all round – drawing out of the best in child and man-body, mind and spirit”. Revisiting the educational ideas of Swami Vivekananda echoes the similar man-making, character – building education for India.

Educationists and policy makers today are becoming aware of the importance of providing all children with educational opportunities that develop their body, mind, emotion and spirit and thereby enhancing their emotional and social competence, along with academic achievement.

Effective efforts to address students’ emotional and social needs would promote academic performance and responsible citizenship, as strongly advocated by Secondary Education Commission (1952). Ultimately this harmonious blending of
cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions of education will result in the wholesome development of personality of students.

1.2 Secondary Education

Secondary education is the education of adolescents. It is a formative education for them and herein lies its need and importance. It is a connecting link between the primary and the higher education, but in any country only a handful of students join higher education and it is for the reason that the education of the secondary level is developed as a complete unit. It provides them with that minimum knowledge and understanding of the world around them which is essential for their successful participation in social, economic, political and the areas of life. It facilitates occupational mobility and social mobility and it is the stage of education which is considered as minimum level of attainment for people to survive in modern technological world. At the secondary level, students are made complete men, their ability to think and judge and to do work is cultivated and in this way the manpower of a country is developed. It is a very crucial phase in human development. It is the period which makes the growth of human being. If the feeling of responsibility for the society and country is developed among them at this age level, many prove to be good members of the society and good citizens of the country. To provide proper direction to restless adolescents and to help them proceed in proper direction is one of the most important tasks of the secondary education.

Secondary education is the basis of higher education, after its completion the students enter into higher education and prepare themselves to work in different specialized of life. In case if their mental level is not developed through secondary education and the habit of study and hard work is not inculcated among them, they fail to achieve higher education. For a vast mass of population, in any country secondary education is a complete
education and only the intelligent and able students go for higher education. It is for the reason that secondary education in most countries of the world is developed as a complete unit, such that it may develop the personality of children and may make them proficient in some vocation and may prepare them as responsible citizens.

1.3 Academic Achievement

There are a number of factors which determine the quality of education, the most vital one that attracts the attention of one and all is the level of achievement. These levels of achievement for any nation are so important that they need to be known periodically to keep a tab on the general health of the education system. Such a requirement warrants the conduct of periodical achievement surveys at different stages of school education in order to initiate remedial measures to improve the quality of learning. National Policy on Education (NPE) - 1986 recommended the conduct of periodical achievement surveys at all stages of school education. This has also been reiterated in the National Curriculum Framework for School Education-2000.

Academic Achievement is the index of a student on the academic front. It is supported by various factors. It is strengthening the individual student and others who are with the individual. It has divisions and dimensions as the nature of academic situation allows. It gives a strong hope to the individual student and the teacher who teaches the student. It is the nature of trend in one’s academic process. It has been affected by various factors such as personal factors, social factors, institutional factors, economic factors and so on. It is essential for a teacher, teacher-educator, course designer, curriculum designer, planners in educational endeavors, experts, evaluators, and administrators in educational institutions at different levels to understand the nature of achievement among the students.
1.3.1 Definitions of Academic Achievement

There are many definitions on Academic Achievement focusing on various aspects of learning. According to Good, (1959) in Dictionary of Education (Good, 1959) defines academic achievement as “The knowledge attained and skill developed in the school subjects which are usually determined by test scores or marks assigned by the teacher or both”.

Taylor (1964) discusses predictive validity of academic achievement. He defines “school achievement scores as the best predictive of future success of the students”. According to Chaplin (1968) achievement is defined as “the specified level of attainment of proficiency in academic work as evaluated by the teacher or standard test or combination of both”.

Proficiency can also be measured by achievement tests. A comprehensive definition was given by Freeman (1969). “A test of educational achievement is one that is designed to measure knowledge, understanding or skills in a specified subject”. Achievement tests are concerned with quality and quantity of learning attained in that particular subjects.

1.3.2 The Importance of Achievement in Adolescence

Adolescence is a critical juncture in achievement (Eccles and Wigfield, 2000; Henderson and Dweck, 1990; Wigfield and others, 2006). New social and academic pressures force adolescents toward different roles that often involve more responsibility. Achievement becomes a more serious business in adolescence, and adolescence begins to sense that the game of life is now being played for real. They even may begin to perceive current success and failures as predictors of future outcomes in the adult world. And as demands on adolescents’ social interests may cut into the time they need to pursue academic matters or ambitions in one
area may undermine the attainment of goals in another as when academic achievement leads to social disapproval.

How effectively adolescents adapt to these new academic and social pressures is determined in part, by psychological, motivational and contextual factors (Pinti rich, 2003, Stipek, 2002, Theobold, 2005; Wigfield & Eccles, 2001; Wigfield and others, 2006). Indeed, adolescents’ “achievement is due to much more than their intellectual ability. Students who are less bright than others may show an adaptive motivational pattern – being persistent at tasks and confident about their ability to solve problems, for example – and turn out to be high achievers. In contrast, some of the brightest students have maladaptive achievement patterns - giving up easily and not having confidence in their academic skills, for example – and turn out to be low achievers.

1.3.3 Learners do differ in their Academic Achievements:

A progressive difference in knowledge attainment leads to cumulative differences in knowledge attainment and this form of differences is often called Mathew Effect. It means that academically rich get richer and those who are poor continue to be poor. Thus, differences in pre-requisites and cumulative knowledge lead to differences in the knowledge possessed by the students. Likewise, they also differ in their capabilities to manipulate the knowledge in a given situation and the differences are identified in terms of the abilities to apply, analysis, synthesis and evaluate knowledge.

The differences in academic achievement can be identified using an achievement test in the subject concerned. However, if the achievement test contains only knowledge level items (questions), it tells only knowledge level differences. On the other hand, if it contains items (questions) on knowledge and
capabilities—comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation, various levels of differences can be identified. Besides the total mark, each level-wise total is needed to identify the strengths and weaknesses of every student as well as the differences among students.

The teacher should know the strategies for meeting the achievement differences in the classroom or the challenges posed by the strengths and weaknesses of the students in teaching-learning situations in order to design context-specific strategies for improving the classroom process.

1.3.4 Language Assessment

Assessment refers to collecting information on the progress of students' learning using a variety of procedures, and evaluation refers to making judgments based on the information collected.

Evaluation is a continuous process, and in language, it aims at assessing the learner’s acquisition of the structure and form of the target language, her ability to use it in different real life communication situations, and her potential to appreciate the aesthetic aspects of language. It helps one to know about the progress of the learner, and to use this knowledge as a record for timely intervention for the benefit of the learner and the teacher.

The assessment of language skills should reflect the underlying goals and objectives of the course/syllabus. Language proficiency is viewed as centre to all aspects of education. Evaluation of the learners must be based on the assessment of both basic understanding of the language principles and communicative skills/language proficiency.

The process and purpose of assessment is not only assigning grades/awarding marks but also including constructive feedback to assist improvement. Learner-centered teaching should use assessment as a part of learning process.
Examinations often tend to assess separate skills, but even if the end result is expressed in terms of a single skill, the processes involved in assessment may require more than one skill. For instance, in speaking, the listening skill is vital. Assessment must integrate therefore the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in language testing.

Any language assessment should give students an opportunity to demonstrate what they know and can do with language. Teachers should use a variety of assessment tools and techniques to determine where students are able, to set goals for instruction, to monitor students' language growth and development, and to give feedback to students so they can monitor their own development. Assessment is the ongoing process that occurs throughout the stages of learning including gathering data about students' language understanding, skills, strategies, and changes in attitudes. Before, during, and after teaching the lessons and units, teachers should consider students' needs and growth.

Learning a language is not merely to learn about a language; it is far more important to learn to use it critically and creatively in all walks of life. In order to determine whether students have learnt to use the language effectively, teachers should think of various ways of evaluation/assessment and decide their suitability to measure, document and to preserve as of students’ abilities. Students’ assessment should not be seen merely in terms of marks or grades; it must also be seen in relation to the objectives of the syllabus or the programme.

1.3.5 Language Development

Language development and its usage both verbal and non-verbal are universal and central to human existence. Language functions as a means of communication, as a means of reflecting on and reorganizing experience, and as a way to receive and
transform the accumulated knowledge and values of the community.

According to Chomsky (1968), language development is the result of the progressive gain of maturity, the unfolding of the child’s genetic capability for language. Chomsky’s (1976) model of language development attributed an innate understanding of fundamental rules, which get activated by the language the child hears and accounts for the speed and regularity of development.

Weil (1985) presents a universal sequence of developing language. His finding is that infrequent use of certain language items emerge in the sequence in a delayed manner. For example, Mother – Ma-Amma is uttered early in the sequence than Master, etc.

Imitation and contingent conversation seems to develop children linguistically and cognitively as well (Wood, 1980, Tissard and Huges, 1984).

1.3.6 Characters of Language Development: The following are the characteristics of language development:

**Semanticity:** The quality of language in which words are used as symbols for objects, events of ideas.

**Syntax:** The rules in a language for placing words in proper order to form meaningful sentences.

**Productivity:** The capacity to combine words into original sentences

**Displacement:** The quality of language that makes one communicate information about objects and events in another time and place. Language makes possible the efficient transmission of large amounts of complex knowledge from one person to another and from one generation to another. Displacement permits parents
to warn children of their own mistakes. Displacement allows children to tell their parents what they did in school.

1.3.7 Functions of language:

Language performs a number of functions based on the purpose of its use. Language with a functional purpose is illustrated by Michael Halliday as follows:

**Instrumental:** Language performs an instrumental function the way an individual satisfies the need by asking for something.

**Regulatory:** It performs a regulatory function controlling another’s behavior.

**Interactional:** It performs an interactional function-used for maintaining interpersonal relationship.

**Personal:** Language performs a personal function- where one talks about oneself.

**Heuristic:** It performs a heuristic function to find out about the world in general.

**Imaginative:** It performs an imaginative function where one talks about one’s imagination.

**Informational:** It also performs an informational function-to seek and give varied types of information.

1.3.8 Tamil and Achievement:

Tamil is the mother tongue of people of Tamilnadu. Tamil has a rich literature. There are top-ranking and standard books available in this language. In testing Tamil achievement tests are most popular and commonly used techniques of measurement.
The basic question arises what is meant by achievement test in Tamil. The old concept was to measure the awareness of subject matter in Tamil. But now it’s totally changed (i.e.) now the emphasis is on the achievement test in measuring outcomes of students.

The learning outcomes of the students are measured with the help of their achievement or performance. Performance assessment is the process of measuring the terminal behaviours of the students at the end of instruction. It is the job of the teacher to measure whether the students have acquired the concepts, before proceeding with the instruction which arranges these concepts in proper relationship for the learning of the principles.

The achievement tests are controlling process for teaching learning activities. It helps evaluating the effectiveness of teaching. It also provides the feedback to the students as well as to teachers. Educational measurement is the task of a teacher. Teaching and testing are the main responsibilities of a teacher.

Achievement tests in Tamil measure the learning outcomes of students. These outcomes are in two forms:

(i) Cognitive outcomes of students
(ii) Non - cognitive outcomes of students.

In Tamil they cover knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Through the outcomes of achievement test, teacher can gain the actual experience and clear scope of information from students. The student knowledge includes everything that has experienced as a result of his perception of this external environment through assessment process.
1.3.9 Benefits of Achievement test:

There are many benefits in achievement test. But some of them are stated here.

(i) Assignment of grades
(ii) Promotion to next class
(iii) Classification of students
(iv) Counselling and Remedial teaching
(v) Vocational guidance
(vi) Measuring the effectiveness of learning in Tamil

It is more meaningful to assign grades on the basis of achievement test score in Tamil. To enter into Tamilnadu government services, promotion for next higher class is based on the test score in Tamil. Achievement test in Tamil is often used to classify students in special courses. One of the multi-knowledge achievement tests in Tamil is useful for that purpose.

The cause of poor conduct in Tamil in the classroom is often indicated by the achievement test. A very low score on the achievement test can also be indicative of the low level of curriculum and misbehavior of the students.

Achievement tests in Tamil in combination with grades is very helpful to the students in choosing future programme of schoolwork. Through this achievement test, the students can also predict the vocational opportunities in Tamil. For example, if the students show the imaginative thinking in Tamil grammar, then they can become a “Poet”. If the students explain the story, (i.e.) supplementary lesson in Tamil very clearly and boldly then those students can become a “Journalist”. If the students are very interested in oral test (i.e.) explain the “Poem” in Tamil as clear as the teacher taught, then they can became a “Teacher” or an orator/speaker.
There are three factors to contribute the student’s attainment in Tamil

(i) Initial aptitude of students in Tamil Subject
(ii) Effectiveness of learning experience of students in Tamil subject
(iii) Nature of test

Achievement tests have purpose of measuring effectiveness of different kinds of instruction. Achievement tests are designed to cover all-important goals of education. They are used to test knowledge, understanding, critical evaluation, application and appreciation in Tamil subject including all the parts namely prose, poem and grammar. The students are frequently motivated to concentrate on better performance in Tamil language.

1.3.10 Tamil Language and Literature

Tamil has been the mother tongue of Tamils over immemorable time. Now it is spoken by 100 million in South East Asian countries. In India itself there are eight crores of people who speak Tamil. The majority of them live in Tamilnadu and Pondicherry states only since Tamil has been the mother tongue of these people as well as it is the official language of these states.

As mother tongue has always been a source of motivation for child learning, Tamil is being taught from primary schools. The natives find it comfortable while learning through Tamil. It has been the mother tongue of Tamils since ancient days. Its antiquity could be traced back to 5000 years. It has a rich literary tradition and has a very good collection of Sangam literatures. The earliest one such is called ‘Tolkappiyam’. It has also a long uninterrupted literary and grammatical traditions.

Tamil is found to have been enjoying the rich contributions from many great literary giants and savants. This is also true in the
case of grammatical traditions, that the earliest extensive grammar in Tamil is Tolkappiyam.

Tolkappiyam consists of three parts. The one among there is ‘porulatikaram’ which in turn deals with poetics, rhetoric and the social concepts of Tamils of those days. Tolkappiyam presupposes a vast body of literatures which are being lost in the pre-sangam age. The sangam literatures such as ‘Ettutokai’ and Pathuppattu’ now available belong to third sangam period.

The whole period of Tamil language development is divided into three; viz, old Tamil, Middle Tamil and Modern Tamil. The old Tamil prevailed up to 600AD. Middle Tamil covers up to 1600AD. Modern Tamil comprises literatures produced in the past four hundred years.

Tamils are proud to have two great epics in Tamil, one as ‘cilappatikaram and the other as ‘Manimegalai’. The essence of Tamil cultures has been imbibed throughout these literatures. The social concepts of Tamils such as ‘agam’ and puram’ are unique to Tamil culture which cannot be seen anywhere in the world. The classification of ‘time’ and ‘karuporul’ and also the co-habitation concepts among the five-lands (tinai) named as ‘uriporul’ are great as well as natural. One cannot just understand the very concepts because it is a depiction of Tamils’ inner life; and the intricacies of conjugal life. Only the learned persons can perceive and understand the ideologies of Tamil.

The Tamils were genius enough to make such a classification over the five settlements called mullai, kurinji, marutham, neithal and palai lands. One can be proud, in claiming the antiquity of Tamil civilization tracing back to five thousand years. Tamils have rich heritage of culture, native science and literature. The natives should learn the richness of Tamils and understand the traditions of the forefathers.
If one learns Tamil or through Tamil medium, she/he can have the essence of discipline and goodness of life. One can also learn the scientific ideas which are found in the classic literatures. The old literatures talk about the scientific ideas. The knowledge about cosmos is discussed in the ‘Purananuru’. The theories on ‘panja-poothas’ are of wonderful predictions.

Tolkappiyar talks first about the five-poothas. There are ample evidences to mention the planets and the stars. There are references about the earth and family, and its rotations. The Tamils were pioneers in ship-building. They were also good in architecture and sculpture. Many of the places and temples which are located in Tamilnadu, still revered as monuments expounds its cultural values.

1.3.11 Teaching of Tamil in Tamilnadu

The government of Tamilnadu (the state named after its language) has launched many interventions to develop Tamil language and literature in general and teaching of Tamil in particular. Thanks to the persistent efforts made by the state, the Government of India has declared Tamil as a ‘classical language’. World Tamil Conferences are conducted periodically to share the recent researches done and to capture the trends emerging in teaching and learning of Tamil.

Tamil is taught right from primary to tertiary levels of education in Tamilnadu. At primary level, Tamil is taught as a first language. Activity Based Learning (ABL) is used to make language learning joyful. At upper primary level (standards VI to VIII) Active Learning Methodology (ALM) is practised to nurture creative and critical thinking among children.

The underlying philosophy of ALM is constructivist in its approach. Children are able to construct and reconstruct their ideas in their mother tongue. This learning process helps children
to learn content subjects thoroughly when the medium of instruction is Tamil. Advanced Active Learning Methodology (AALM) is used at the secondary level to teach Tamil as a first language. This methodology helps students to have a strong grounding in all the important language competencies such as listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as strategic and occupational competencies which prepare them to attain mastery and proficiency in Tamil.

### 1.4.1 Definition of Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Emotional Intelligence is the set of abilities for how the people's emotional reports vary in their accuracy and how the more accurate understanding of emotion leads to better problem solving in individuals' emotional life. More formally, it is defined as the ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion and regulate emotion in the self and others (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). After publishing numerous articles, Mayer and Salovey (1997) have evolved the following definition of emotional intelligence: 'It is the ability to perceive emotions and emotional knowledge and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth'.

According to Goleman (1988), “Emotional Intelligence refers to the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships”. He redefines it by adding some more attributes like self-awareness, impulse control and delaying gratification, and handling stress and anxiety. He further elaborates the concept by saying that ‘there is an old-fashioned word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: ‘character’.

Bar-On (1997) characterized emotional intelligence as “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that
influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”. The ability definition of emotional intelligence, as proposed by Mayer and Salovey, has its own set of competing constructs and concepts. One of the most closely related concepts, emotional competence, as defined by Saarni (2000) is: Emotional Competence is the demonstration of self efficacy in emotion-eliciting social transactions. Evolution of Emotional Intelligence is represented in the Flow diagram( Fig.1)
Fig 1.1 Flow diagram showing the evolution of emotional intelligence

- E.L. Thorndike (1905) — Laws of Effect (focus is less on behavior more on effect)

- E.L. Thorndike (1920) — described the concept of “social intelligence” (as the ability to get along with other people) laid foundation for ‘Emotional Intelligence’

- Edgar Doll (1935) — measured social competence (SQ—social quotient)

- David Wesceler (1940) — proposed the idea of intellective and non intellective factors (Affective factors, Personal factors, Social factors). He suggested that affective components of intelligence may be essential to success in life.

- R.W. Leeper (1948) — talked on “Emotional Thought”

- Abraham Maslow (1950s) — described how people can build emotional strength.

- Howard Gardner (1975) — published ‘The Shattered mind’, which introduces the concept of multiple intelligences. In (1983)—discussed the Multiple intelligence (verbal, logical, musical, visual, kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalist, and existential)

- Wayne Payne (1985) — introduced the term emotional intelligence in the doctoral dissertation entitled “A study of emotion: developing emotional intelligence; self integration; relating to fear, pain and desire (theory, structure of reality, problem solving contraction/expansion, and tuning in coming out letting go)”
Keith Beasley (1987)—uses the term “emotional quotient” in an article published in Mensa Magazine. It has been suggested that this is the first published use of the term, although Reuven Bar-On claims to have used the term in an unpublished version of his graduate thesis.

Bar-On (1987)—Broadened Emotional Intelligence and introduced the phrase.

Sternburg (1988)—talked about ‘social intelligence’ into ‘contextual intelligence’

Carolin Sarrni (1990) — Emotional Competence reviewed and coined” Emotional Intelligence”

Mayor & Salovey (1990)—reviewed and coined “Emotional Intelligence”

Elma Nanley (1990)—Emotional Creativity theory

Peter Salovey (1990)—Psychologist and John Mayer published their landmark article, “Emotional Intelligence” in the journal Imagination, Cognition, and Personality. ‘Emotional Quotient’

1.4.2 Bar-On’s Model of Emotional Intelligence

Bar-On (1997) reviewed the psychological literature for personality characteristics that appeared related to life success and identified the following five areas with specific skills functioning relevant to success:

i) **Intra-personal skills**
   - Emotional self-awareness
   - Assertiveness
   - Self-regard
   - Self-Actualization
   - Independence

ii) **Inter-personal skills**
   - Interpersonal relationships
   - Social responsibility
   - Empathy

iii) **Adaptability Skills**
   - Problem solving
   - Reality testing
   - Flexibility

iv) **Stress management skills**
   - Stress tolerance
   - Impulse control

v) **General mood**
   - Happiness
   - Optimism
The identified skills are given in tabular form (Table 1.1) and further explained in detail.

**Table 1.1: Bar-On’s Emotional Intelligence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrapersonal</th>
<th>Interpersonal</th>
<th>Adaptability</th>
<th>Stress Management</th>
<th>General Mood</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self Regard</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Reality Testing</td>
<td>Stress Tolerance</td>
<td>Optimism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Self-Awareness</td>
<td>Social Responsibility</td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>Impulse Control</td>
<td>Happiness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>Interpersonal Relationship</td>
<td>Problem-Solving</td>
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<td>Independence</td>
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<td>Self-Actualization</td>
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**Intrapersonal**

The intrapersonal components deal with abilities present within oneself. They are self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence and self-actualization.

a) **Self-regard** – To accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself

b) **Emotional Self-awareness** – To be aware of and understand one’s emotions

c) **Assertiveness** – To effectively and constructively express one’s emotions and oneself.

d) **Independence** – To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others
e) **Self-actualization** – To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one’s potential.

**Interpersonal**

The interpersonal components deal with abilities of humans with their immediate environment. They are empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationship.

a) **Empathy** – To be aware of and understand how others feel

b) **Social Responsibility** – To identify with one’s social group and cooperate with others

c) **Interpersonal Relationship** – To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others

**Adaptability**

Adaptability components desire how one adjusts himself/herself with surroundings. They are reality testing, flexibility and problem-solving.

a) **Reality Testing** – To objectively validate one’s feelings and thinking with external reality

b) **Flexibility** – To adapt and adjust one’s feelings and thinking to new situations

c) **Problem-Solving** – To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature

**Stress Management**

Stress Management components explain how one manages stress and overcomes a conflict / difficult situation. They are Stress tolerance and impulse control.

a) **Stress Tolerance** – To effectively and constructively manage emotion

b) **Impulse Control** - To effectively and constructively control emotion
General Mood

General Mood Components portray the state of feeling of humans. They are optimism and happiness.

a) Optimism – To be positive and look at the brighter side of life

b) Happiness – To feel content with oneself, others and life in general.

Bar-On’s theoretical work combines what may qualify as mental activities e.g. emotional self-awareness with other characteristics that are considered separable from mental ability, such as personal independence, self-regard, and mood; this makes it a mixed model. Despite the breadth of his model, Bar-On is relatively cautious in his claims for his model of emotional intelligence. Although his model predicts success, this success is “the end-product of that which one strives to achieve and accomplish. Moreover, his Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) relates to the potential to succeed rather success itself”. At a broader level, he believes that Emotional Quotient (EQ), along with Intelligence Quotient (IQ), can provide a more balanced picture of a person’s general intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, 2000)

Critics of Emotional Intelligence claim that it is a type of personality miscast as intelligence. Still others would argue that Emotional Intelligence, if it were to be taken as a form of intelligence, would be subsumed by general intelligence (Graves, 2000). However, as it can easily be seen, the concept of EQ is a broad umbrella term that refers to inter- and intra-personal skills, being aware of emotions and using emotional and social activities. Most of the authors on this topic note that in order to function fully as a member of society, one has to possess both IQ and EQ(Gardner, 1983; Goleman, 1995; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Moreover, it is EQ that might be as important as IQ for people to succeed in life. However, the models of Emotional Intelligence
appear to contain a mixture of different in composition, emotional and social skills and empathy seem to be the skills that appear in most models.

1.4.3 Emotional Intelligence and Schooling of Children

Research shows that unlike IQ which is concerned relatively to be stable and unchangeable, Emotional Intelligence (EI) is acquired and developed through learning and repeated experience at any stage (Ashforth, 2001; Cherniss and Goleman, 1995’ Cooper, 1997; Goleman, 1998). In this context EI skills are becoming more important as society creates new challenges for youth (Ross, 2000). Emotional Quotient can be shaped by one’s learning to be not only well-developed in intellectual abilities, but also in social and emotional skills as well (Pfeiffer, 2001). As Hamachek (2000) writes that intellectual ability is essential for being successfully educated and being a contributing member of society. Emotional intelligence is also equally essential, which can help people study toward their potentials and develop healthy interpersonal relationships. According to Byron (2001), understanding one’s own emotional process can have far-reaching effect for social functioning and the quality of life. However, Richardson (2000) indicates that young people who lack social and emotional competence might end up becoming self-centered and unable to empathize and relate to others.

Researchers found that students with high emotional intelligence tend to be better learners, more confident, optimistic, creative as well as being flexible, happier, successful at solving problems, being able to handle emotions much better (Abraham, 1999; Cooper, 1997; Heins, 1996). There are advantages of using EI at schools both for teachers and for students. Using EI helps students learn emotional vocabulary and feel cared rather than controlled. On the one hand, it helps teachers identify the feelings and fears of students, recognize their feelings and see to their
unmet emotional needs (Abraham, 1999; Heins, 2001). Furthermore, EI might have significant relevance in the dynamic preparation and training of both the novice teachers and constituents (Byron, 2001). Teachers thereby may improve their potential to reach students with the socio-emotional learning activities during growth and development, and can also provide the necessary support to enhance learning activities and educational experience.

Many teachers have a habit of believing the most important thing is the lesson plan in classroom process. The lesson plan and learning are more important than any feelings in general. The usual attitude is that the lesson plan should be followed, no matter at what emotional cost. Furthermore, learners with unmet emotional needs are usually seen as disruptions to the class and to be attainment of the lesson plan. While keeping strict adherence to the lesson plan, emotional needs of the children tend to be ignored (Heins, 2000). If, on the contrary, the feelings of children were to be consistently addressed and validated and their emotional needs met, they may tend to be much more cooperative and respectful in the class. This is more important since the children need both emotional and intellectual development.

Similarly, a positive relationship between the teacher and learner is crucial if students are to be successful. When students perceive their teacher’s motivation as a sincere interest in helping them to succeed, the motivational and emotional impact of the feedback tends to be more positive (Tucker, 2000). As Heins (1996) indicates that Emotional Quotient (EQ) level of teachers and students are an important variable in creating a classroom in which healthy emotional skills can be developed. Another important variable in teacher’s EQ is how they handle their own emotions, especially the negative ones. Effective and successful teachers are mainly those who can handle negative feelings in a healthy way. To assist students developing skills, educators need
to incorporate emotional skills along with academic skills into the curriculum. NCFSE (2000) also strongly emphasizes that “emotional literacy” programmes directly alter the level of success, self-esteem and well being of a person. They help reverse a tide of educational decline and thus strengthen schools.

### 1.5.1 Goal Orientation

The goal orientation construct stems from Carol Dweck’s pioneering work on achievement motivation in the educational environment (Dweck and Reppucci, 1973; Dweck, 1975; Diener and Dweck, 1978). Dweck and colleagues studied young children’s motivational patterns in the classroom, and observed two distinct behavior patterns in response to challenging activities or obstacles to performance. These patterns are the maladaptive, the helpless pattern and the mastery-oriented, adaptive pattern. While the mastery-oriented pattern is associated with challenge-seeking and effective striving in the face of obstacles, the helpless pattern results in avoidance of challenge and decreased performance when facing difficulty. Interestingly, these different behaviour patterns seem to be independent of the children’s ability since many highly skilled individuals show the maladaptive pattern and vice versa (Dweck, 1975, 1989).

When striving to explain why individuals of equal ability showed such different behavior patterns, Dweck and colleagues identified two classes of goals within the domain of intellectual achievement. They proposed that these goals create the framework within which individuals react to and interpret events. The two goal types are learning oriented goals, in which individuals strive to increase their competence, and performance oriented goals, in which the individuals are concerned with gaining favorable judgment of their competence (Dweck and Elliott, 1983).

Goal orientation is defined as an individual difference variable that states to what degree an individual is predisposed to
either type of goals (Dweck and Leggett, 1988, Elliott and Dweck, 1988). Hence, an individual’s learning goal orientation is the degree to which the individual is predisposed to preferring learning oriented goals, while performance goal orientation refers to the degree to which the individual is predisposed to setting performance oriented goals (Dweck and Legget, 1988, Dweck, 1989). A learning goal orientation is associated with the belief that ability can be developed. In contrast, performance goal orientation is associated with the belief that ability is fixed, and difficult to develop. A learning goal orientation motivates individuals to increase their competence and master challenging situations. On the other hand, a performance goal orientation motivates individuals to establish the adequacy of their ability in the eyes or others to avoid situations where they may appear inadequate. Similar theoretical distinctions that have been made by other researchers within the motivational literature include task-involved vs. ego-involved individuals (Nicholls, 1984) and mastery-focused vs. ability-focused (Ames, 1992). Different dimensions of goal orientation are discussed in the following sections:

1.5.2 Goal Orientation Theory

Drawn from the social cognitive approach, the goal orientation perspective has been used to explain achievement behaviors in a variety of learning environments. Specifically, this approach reveals why people approach, engage in and respond to achievement activities, as well as they engage in certain achievement behaviors (Ames, 1992a).

Two distinct constructs of achievement goals have been concerned: mastery (learning) and performance (Ames, 1987; Ames & Archer, 1988). It has been suggested that mastery and performance concepts had been originated form two qualitatively opposite motivational frameworks. These constructs have also
been referred as goals of learning and performance (Dweck, 1984), task and ability (Maehr & Midgley, 1991), or task and ego involvement (Nicholls, 1984, 1992b). Mastery and performance constructs can be differed according to the way learning, effort, and success are perceived and valued; the approaching and engaging reasons for the achievement activity; and the individual’s thoughts, tasks, and outcomes (Ames, 1992b; Meece et al., 1988; Nicholls, 1984).

Mastery-oriented / learning-oriented individuals seem to place a relevant role to the learning process, and learning is an end itself. Motivation to learn is intrinsically attributed (Ames, 1992a; Nicholls, 1984). The essential of mastery goal orientation is the belief that effort and outcomes are correlated. In other words, effort leads personal progress and mastery (i.e., more effort means more ability). This belief helps the individual to build a pattern of achievement behaviors that has long-term implications for learning (Ames, 1992a). Mastery goal oriented individuals seek new skills, improve personal competence, or attain a sense of mastery based on their set of standards (Ames, 1992b). Therefore, they select tasks that challenge their ability and enhance their competence (Maehr, 1983).

Performance-oriented individuals realize learning as a way to demonstrate superior capacity that is extrinsically attributed. The individual’s ability and a sense of self-worth are the performance goal orientation focus. Ability is when a person does something better than the others (i.e., Surpassing normative-based standards) and/or gets successes with little effort (Ames, 1992b). Individuals oriented toward performance goals are motivated to seek public recognition (Nicholls, 1984); to obtain positive and avoid negative judgments about their performance (Dweck, 1986); and to compare their own performance and effort with others. They do not attempt to learn if it appears unlikely to enable them to demonstrate high capacity (Nicholls, 1984). They think the
harder they try, the less ability they have. This belief might lead the person to avoid effort in order to protect his/her ability and self-worth (Covington, 1984). Consequently, different motivational patterns seem to emerge as an outcome of the individual’s orientation toward mastery or performance goals, especially when facing difficult tasks (Ames, 199b; Ames & Archer, 1988; Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Nicholls, 1992a, 1992b). The adoption of a mastery goal is similar to lead the individual to an adaptive motivational pattern of achievement behavior, whereas the performance goal adoption leads to non-adaptive, helpless motivational patterns of achievement behavior. An adaptive motivational pattern is observed among individuals who are performance goal oriented, as long as their perceived abilities are high (Seifriz, Duda & Chi, 1992), whereas an adaptive motivational pattern is observed among the mastery goal oriented individuals, regardless of their levels of competence (Ames, 1992b; Covington 1984; Nicholls, 1984).

A similar motivational pattern is observed in children, from early childhood to adolescence. Children who display the adaptive pattern of motivation focus on strategies when they face failure and have high expectations about future performance. Their persistence is maintained and often increases. In addition, they adopt a challenge-seeking attitude. In other words, they are willing to be challenged in future learning tasks (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). As a result, the learner interprets failure as a feedback that guides him or her to learn and master other skills.

In contrast, children displaying non-adaptive quickly indicate their ability when encountering failure; also they show negative expectations about future performance and their persistence and performance decrease. They tend to avoid future challenges and attempt to be withdrawn from achievement situations (Burhands & Dweck, 1995). It seems that the adoption of performance goals creates a framework in which the negative
outcomes are interpreted and reflected in the individual’s competence. When the child encounters failure, it is attributed to a lack of ability. The child becomes vulnerable to the aspects of helpless patterns which lead them to challenge avoidance and performance deterioration, when facing obstacles. Studies demonstrate that even young children are relatively vulnerable to helplessness in some situations (Burhands & Dweck, 1995; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Smiley & Dweck, 1994). Even before young children have a mature concept of ability, they can engage in global self-blame reaction—response to failure or criticism—the key feature of helpless patterns.

Several studies conducted in the learning environment suggest that a range of outcomes is associated to the adoption of mastery goals, such as (1) strong correlation between effort and success (Ames & Archer, 1988; Biddle, Wang, Kavussanu & Spray, 2001); (2) persistence in learning tasks (Butler 1987; Wolters, 2004); (3) increase in quality of work when facing failure (Dweck & Leggett, 1988); (4) frequent use of metacognitive and self-regulatory strategies in the learning process (Brookhart & Durkin, 2003; Meece et al., 1988; Wolters, 2004); (5) high level of active engagement in the activities (Meece & Holt, 1993) and mental effort (Brookhart, 2003); (6) development of new skills self-esteem, and perceived competence (Biddle et al., 2001); (7) belief that the purpose of practice is fostering mastery (Biddle et al., 2001); (8) low rate of work avoidance (Covington, 1984; Meece et al., 1988; Miller, 1986; Stipek & Kowalski, 1989) and procrastination (Wolters, 2004); (9) higher levels of sportspersonship (Stornes & Ommundsen, 2004); and (10) perception of physical education as important, interesting, and useful (Xiang, McBride & Guan, 2004).

On the other hand, several studies support the contention that the adoption of performance orientation leads students to (1) withdraw themselves from difficult tasks (Ames & Archer, 1988;
Bulter 1987); (2) complete the work with effortlessness, in part to
avoid negative judgments of ability, especially when poor performance
is expected (Covington, 1984); (3) seek social recognition (Biddle et
al., 2001); (4) show superficial levels of engagement (Meece & Holt,
1993); (5) demonstrate unsporting behavior and less respect for social
conventions, opponents, rules, and officials (Biddle et al., 2001;
Stornes & Ommundsen, 2004); (6) believe that the practice purpose is achieving social status (Biddle
et al., 2001); (7) report more negative than positive emotions
(Nicholls, Jones & Hancock, 2003); (8) believe that possessing
ability produces success Biddle et al., 2001). These results seem to
be favorable towards the environment where the predominant
orientation is focused on mastery goals.

Why someone pursues a particular goal makes a difference in
one’s level of success. Goal orientation theory explicates the why of an
individual’s goals. One empirically, well-tested model of goal
orientation, presents four orientations in what is called the 2 x 2
model (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). In the model, there are two types of
goals: mastery goals and performance goals.

Elliot & McGregor (2001) building up of the earlier works of
Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996), Elliot and Church (1997), and
Elliot, McGregor, and Gable (1999) incorporate the very early work
of Atkinson (1957) and add two additional dimensions to describe the
individual’s association with the goal, which are approach and
avoidance (Atkinson, 1957). Hence, there are mastery approach,
performance-approach, mastery-avoidance, and performance-
avoidance goal orientation constructs in the model.

1.5.3 Issues with the Goal Orientation Construct

In the process of defining and establishing the goal
orientation construct and its relations to the goal setting process, two
issues have created some debate among researchers in this
area; the dimensionality of the construct (i.e., whether it is one or two dimensional), and whether goal orientation is a stable personality trait or situationally induced, stable trait or situational influence? Historically goal orientation has been treated either as a situational variable, which can be manipulated for the purposes of a given study (Ames and Archer 1988; Elliott and Dweck, 1988), or as a stable and measured dispositional trait, which influences the response patterns of individuals across situations (Thorkildsen, 1988; Nicholls, Cobb, Wood, Yackel, & Patashnick, 1990). In most of Dweck’s research, the children are typically assigned to either the learning goal or the performance goal condition, where the desired type of goal is experimentally induced, typically by referring to a normative comparison (Performance goal), or the potential gain in learning (learning goal).

When addressing this issue, Dweck and Legget’s (1988) conclusion is that a certain goal orientation will influence the probability that an individual in a given situation will take on a particular goal and display a certain behavior pattern. In order words, the choice of an individual is determined by a combination of situational and dispositional factors. If the situation offers strong cues favoring one type of goal over the other, this is likely to override the individual’s predisposition to some degree (depending on how strong it is) and affect the choice of goals and the individual’s behavior in the direction of the situational cues. On the other hand, when the situation offers no cues, the disposition will dominate the decision making process and be likely to lead to goals that are consistent with the individuals dispositional goal orientation.

Empirical support for the relations between goal orientation and goal setting has been found for both situationally induced goal orientations (Elliott and Dweek, 1988; Steele-Johnson, Beauregard, Hoover, and Schmidt, 2000), as well as measured dispositional traits (Phillips and Gully, 1997; Button, Mathieu
and Zajac, 1993). In line with Dweck and Legget’s (1988) line of thought, Button et al. (1996) concluded in their review on goal orientation that goal orientation is best characterized as a somewhat stable individual difference variable that may be influenced by situational characteristics. Currently there seems to be general consensus within the field about viewing goal orientation in this dual dispositional/situational light and both approaches are frequently taken. One or two dimensions? In addition to the confusion and debate that has surrounded the stability of goal orientation, there has been considerable confusion concerning the dimensionality of the goal orientation construct. In Dweck’s writing (Dweck, 1989), little attention seems to be given to the issue of goal orientation dimensionality. As noted above, children in her studies are typically assigned to one type of goal, which implies that children cannot be oriented towards both goals simultaneously. When discussing the issue of dimensionality, Farr et al. (1993) came to the conclusion that Dweck views learning and performance goal orientation as end points of a single continuum, with strong learning goal - orientation at one end and strong performance goal orientation at the other end (Farr et al. 1993). However, Dweck and Leggett(1988) seem to acknowledge the possibility that individuals can, to some degree, hold both types of goals simultaneously since earning the positive judgment of those who control important resources may be a necessary step in one’s pursuit of skills and knowledge. Thus, adaptive individuals effectively coordinate performance and learning goals.

In line with these suggestions, researchers have increasingly subscribed to the idea that learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation are separate dimensions, and that individuals can be high or low on one or both dimensions (Nicholls et al., 1993). The strongest empirical support for this is found in the research of Button et al. (1996), who developed measures of Learning Goal Orientation and Performance Goal Orientation and
tested the dimensionality in four separate validation studies. The results supported the proposition that Learning Goal Orientation and Performance Goal Orientation are two separate dimensions as evidenced by the weak correlation between the dimensions in the four studies (r=0.08; r=0.05; r=0.02; r=0.11 respectively) and the fact that the scale items for each dimension loaded on separate factors.
Table 1.2 Definitions and Characteristics of Goal Orientations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mastery</th>
<th>Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Definition</strong>: “desire to develop competence and increase knowledge and understanding through effortful learning” <em>(Murphy &amp; Alexander, 2000)</em>.</td>
<td><strong>Definition</strong>: “desire to gain favorable judgment... of one’s competence” in the sight of others <em>(Murphy &amp; Alexander, 2000)</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristic</strong>: interest in class studies <em>(Church, Elliot, &amp; Gable, 2001)</em>; enjoyment of class presentations <em>(Harackiewicz, Barron, Pintrich, Elliot, &amp; Thrash, 2002)</em>; attributions of accomplishment resulting from efforts <em>(Ames &amp; Archer, 1988)</em>; pursuit of challenges <em>(Dweck, 1986)</em>; higher academic success <em>(Elliot &amp; McGregor, 2001)</em></td>
<td><strong>Characteristic</strong>: efforts and strategic techniques <em>(Ames &amp; Archer, 1988)</em>; high academic attainment <em>(Elliot &amp; McGregor, 2001)</em></td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Avoidance</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Definition</strong>: “desire to avoid “self-referential or task – referential incompetence” <em>(Elliot, 1999)</em></td>
<td><strong>Definition</strong>: “desire to avoid negative judgments of competence in relation to others <em>(McCollum, 2004)</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristic</strong>: accounts for some degree of variance in academic performance levels <em>(Elliot &amp; McGregor, 2001)</em></td>
<td><strong>Characteristic</strong>: intrinsic motivation is low <em>(Elliot &amp; Harackiewicz, 1996)</em>; lacking effort as well as persistence <em>(Elliot &amp; McGregor, &amp; Gable, 1999)</em>; sense of being incompetent and being afraid to fail <em>(Elliot, 1999; Elliot &amp; Church, 1997)</em>; disorganized, lower SAT scores, GPA, and test outcomes <em>(Elliot et al., 1999)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Generally, the more positive characteristics are attributed to the mastery – approach and performance – approach oriented students. Both orientations reflect strategic efforts in learning and tend to do better than the other orientations, academically. Moreover, it appears that performance avoidance oriented individuals have a tendency to struggle, academically. Overall, the approach orientations have more positive attributes than do the avoidance ones.

1.5.4 Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)

Individuals that are highly predisposed towards learning oriented goals (i.e., are highly learning goal oriented) are concerned with increasing their competence and mastering whatever they are dealing with at that time. Since they are focused on learning and mastering certain skills, these individuals are likely to evaluate their performance relative to their own previous achievements, and measure success in terms of personal progress. This thought pattern is likely to be associated with a greater sense of personal control over the outcome of one’s effort, since the individual is referring only to him- or herself when setting goals and striving for achievement. Thus, challenging tasks become an opportunity for growth and learning.

The emphasis on learning along with the sense of control makes these individuals likely to set challenging goals for themselves and take on challenging tasks independent of their perceptions of their abilities, and is likely to lead to the mastery-oriented response pattern in all instances. Individuals with a strong LGO see effort as the means to success, and are therefore likely to be perceive negative feedback as valuable information on how to improve and they treat failure as a learning experience, not as a sign of insufficient ability (Dweek, 1989; Dweck and Leggett, 1988; Farr, Hoffman and Ringenbach, 1993).
1.5.5 Performance Goal Orientation (PGO)

Individuals with performance goals focus on self-worth and ability, judging ability by how well they perform in relation to others or how easily they achieve success with minimal effort (Ames, 1992). Public recognition of performance is important to them with performance goals (Ames, 1992). They may refrain from challenging tasks, use superficial or short term learning strategies such as rehearsal or memorization and base belief’s in personal academic ability on their successes and their failures (Ames, 1992). Performance goals have been less adaptive in terms of future motivation because they focus on competitive goals such as doing better than others or the avoidance of looking incompetent (Pintrich, 2000). From this perspective, performance goals are divided into two categories, namely performance approach goals and performance avoidance goals.

1.5.6 Performance Approach Goal (PAPG)

Students with a performance approach orientation want to be the best, to appear to be the most competent. As a result, they will work hard and put in a lot of effort in order to surpass their peers. They do not have learning per se as a goal, but they will work to learn, just for the ‘wrong’ reason. They ‘are oriented to doing better than others and to demonstrate their ability and competence (Pintrich, 2000)

1.5.7 Performance Avoidance Goal (PADG)

Students with performance-avoidance goals are focused on avoiding looking dump, stupid and less able than others. They are concerned with protecting their self-worth at all costs. Consequently, they are likely to engage in self sabotaging behaviours, such as cheating, avoiding help when they need it, and withdrawing effort (Urdan, Ryan, Anderman and Gheen, 2002). In addition to self-sabotaging behaviours, this maladaptive set of
motivational beliefs has been linked to a variety of undesirable outcomes. For example, students who have performance avoidance goal are more likely to view error as indicating a lack of ability, experience high levels of anxiety, exert less effort, place less value on tasks, give up in the face of difficulty, and ultimately demonstrate lower levels of achievement (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

1.6.1 Learning Skills

Learning outcomes and students’ achievement are of major concern as these are thought to be the determinants of evaluative aspect of education. Though the academic achievement of students depends on various factors such as the students’ desire to learn, instructional strategies, study materials, students’ study skills, etc., the learning skills of students are thought to play an important role in the academic achievement. Researches focusing on students’ learning skills and difficulties in learning from text have found that most students do not have appropriate and efficient strategies necessary for learning on their own. Students generally need guidance.

There can be many possible explanations regarding why students lack the strategies necessary for independent learning. However, the most obvious reason is the lack of systematic instruction on learning strategies in our institutions. Students’ lack of control over strategy appears to be another well supported explanation of why so many students are not effective and efficient independent learners. Adequate learning skills among students enable them to become independent learners both in and out of schools.

Learning skills have been understood differently by different people and have been used interchangeably with study skills. Nevertheless, they all talk about competencies or skills associated
with acquiring, organizing, synthesizing, remembering, and using information and ideas read in books, observed or listened to in different situations.

Learning is a lifelong process, and in the whole spectrum of education, our focus is on enhancing certain competencies and skills in earning. Hence, skills in learning refer to students’ development of confidence and competence in learning. While confidence in learning depends on the students’ motivation, self-interest, positive attitude to learn, etc., competence in learning comes from specific activities a student is engaged in while doing a particular learning task.

In a conventional sense, the three R’s i.e., reading, writing and arithmetic are the three basic learning skills. However, there are a number of sub-skills involved in each of these and they are interrelated and complementary to each other. In addition to these, there are certain subject-specific learning skills which are required to accomplish learning activity in that particular subject. These subject-specific learning skills differ from subject to subject. For example, the skills for learning mathematics vary considerably from the skills required for learning a language or any other subject, say music/dance.

### 1.6.2 Learning Styles

Learning styles are various ways of learning. The learning methods particular to an individual helps him learn best. They also change the way he internally represents experiences, the way he recalls information and even the words he choose. Learning styles, in many ways, range from a concern with preferred sense modality to an enumeration of complex personality characteristics that go with different kinds of learning behaviour.

In any classroom it is not very likely that any two students learn the same thing; in the same way; at the same place. In order
to assist each pupil and to capitalize on his or her natural inclination to understand, Teacher must be able not only to diagnose his or her style of learning but to accept it. There are many styles of learning, and there is no evidence to suggest that one is better than another. What is better is the style that fits each person most comfortably; what is not better is to try to fit a person into a learning mode that seems alien and strange. If teacher accepts (and appreciates) the idea that there are different ways of learning, each valid for particular students, then he can be free to explore various ways of teaching in order to accommodate the vast array of learner differences that confront him.

Each one has a style of learning as individual and as one’s own personality. These styles could be categorized as visual (reading), aural (listening), and physical (actively doing things). Each classroom is likely to include students whose styles of learning vary widely. Although teachers cannot cater completely to each student’s particular style, they can attempt, utilize the strengths and reduce or modify the weaknesses of those in their classes.

An individual’s basic style of learning is probably laid down early in life and is not subject to any fundamental change. For example, a pupil who likes to learn by listening and speaking (aural style) is unlikely to change completely and become an outstanding reader.

In the interest of effective motivation, it is important to be sensitive to each student’s learning style. If, for example, some students seem to learn best by reading, Teacher might want to suggest books to them, but to call on them more often in class; to encourage them to experience more physical or verbal learning, may not be advisable. On the other hand in some cases, the teacher might find it beneficial to encourage students to read more but not to the point of exasperation. Once he identifies and
becomes aware of each student’s particular style of learning. We can build on that style, along with helping him or her experience other modes of learning. All this leads to effective learning.

Recently educational psychologists have begun to concentrate on the importance of learning styles. Learning styles can be defined as the normal variations in internal and external preferences for the setting and manner in which learning takes place. Everyone has preferences for studying. Some like noise, while others can’t stand any noise. Some like to hear lectures, some prefer discussion and some would rather personally experience the thing being studied. Each student has his/her own specific preference.

1.6.3 Meaning and Definition of learning styles

Learning styles are defined in many ways. Nancy Dixon (1982) stated learning styles as the way each individual gathers and processes information. They are those strategies that provide suitable openings are gateways that best allow the external learning experiences to convert into the internal ones or become a part of our cognition.

David Kolb (1981) sees learning style as the way we process the possibilities of each new emerging event [which] determines the range of choices and decisions we see, the choices and decisions we make, to some extent determine the events we live through, and these events influence our future choices.

Kalsbeek (1989) described learning style as a person’s preferred approach to information processing, idea formation, and decision making, the attitudes and interests that influence what is attended to in a learning situation; and a disposition to seek learning environment compatible with these personal profiles.
Marlene LeFever (1995) defines learning style as the way in which a person sees or perceives things best and then processes or uses what has been seen. Each person’s individual learning style is as unique as a signature.

According to Dunn and Dunn (1992), “Learning – style is the way individuals concentrate on, absorb and retain new or difficult materials or skills”.

Learning styles helps students to discover different forms of mental representations. Thus they are important when they construct knowledge. There is no one right way of studying – each individual learns in his own manner. But if he does not know which one is acceptable for him, he can’t learn efficiently. The first and foremost thing a student needs to know is to understand himself. So students should keep in mind – “Know thyself”. It is very fundamental that every student knows what his unique learning style is.

There are 5 perceptual elements of learning style.

1. Auditory – Remember best when they LISTEN.
2. Visual - Remember best when they SEE
3. Visual Text - Remember best when they READ
4. Kinesthetic - Remember best when they DOING and
5. Verbal - Remember best when they

When a student understands which learning style is best suited it will help him to learn things better and also to score more marks.
1.6.4 Types of Learning Styles:

The person who learns best by a particular learning style is titled after the particular style. In this sense learners can be classified according to their learning styles.

There are auditory learners who learn best by listening and for them the most suitable method of teaching is lecture method; visual learners learn best by seeing and for them audio visual presentation is a suitable method of teaching, kinesthetic learners learn best by doing and for them learner centered activity methods, cooperative learning, project method etc are suitable (Heinich, et.al, 1997).

Visual Learners

Visual learners take benefit out of visual illustrations and the picture illustrations appeal them the most. They usually learn best when the teacher provides written study notes, writes on the chalkboard and uses an overhead projector to explain concepts. Visual material like charts, transparencies, pictures, films etc. prove to be the best medium for their comprehension. Even the body language of the teacher, including the facial expressions, eye movements, hand gestures etc. assists and appeals more to these types of learners than other modes of instructions.

Auditory Learners

This is one of the most prevalent styles of learning. Auditory learning is characterized by learning through ears. Respect for feeling and ideas forms the basis of effective learning (Saxena & Aggarwal, 2010). This respect can be communicated through good listening skills. Auditory learners are good listeners. These kinds of learners are often observed to be talking aloud while learning. Auditory learners usually like discussion in lesson and may tend to whisper when reading (Duckett & Tartarkowski, 2002). They
tend to comprehend information more precisely when it is delivered verbally. Examples are listening to lectures, seminars and audio clips etc. Effective and clear teaching instructions best suit to their learning preferences.

**Kinesthetic Learners**

A problem for many forms of instruction is that students often come away with shallow knowledge (Aleven & Koedinger, 2002). This problem is best dealt with through the strategy of ‘learning by doing’. Tactile learning styles lay more stress on practical work. Tactile style of learning demands a pragmatic approach. Anything that could be done through activity is liable to become a part of their intellect. They prefer to touch, do or experience themselves whatever they are learning. They do not easily accept information which is obtained through oral or visual instructions alone.

1.6.5 Learning Style Characteristics

**Input**

Learners require sensory input for any learning to happen. Since we only have five senses, that input will be visual, auditory, kinesthetic, olfactory, or gustatory. Although all two-month-old babies are gustatory learners, less than 1 percent of all other learners find gustatory input their preferred (or dependent) source (or style) of learning. Just as one preference can be dominant at a particular stage of life and another at some later stage, sensory input preferences can change from moment to moment. One moment a learner may prefer external input (from an outside source) and the next internal (created in the mind)

Robert Samples, author of *Open Mind/Whole Mind* (1987) says that our additional sensing systems include vestibular (repetitious movement), magnetic (ferromagnetic orientation), ionic
(electrostatics atmospheric charges), geogravimetric (sensing mass differences), and proximal (physical closeness). He suggests that infants may actually possess all of these senses, but early conditioning defines which ones are “socially acceptable” or “culturally appropriate”. Other societies, perhaps, use a wider range of sensory perception mechanisms. The learning styles model that is the most useful for incorporating this information is the Bandler-Grinder model (Blander (1988)

**Input Preferences**

**Visual External**

This style learner prefers visual input to auditory input. They generally maintain eye contact with the teacher; their posture is upright; they create mental pictures, talk quickly and in monotones, and like handouts. They tend to use visual terminology like, “See what I mean?” A visual learner is usually a good speller; they would rather read than be read to; they enjoy writing, prefer neatness; and they are organized, alert, and, less distracted by noise. They have a “personal space” they protect around them. As aesthetic beings, they love handouts, books, computers, overheads, art, and photos. If asked,” Are you hungry?” They might check their watch to “see” if it’s time for them to be hungry!” They are good at visualization and have trouble with verbal instructions

**Visual Internal**

This style learner prefers to “see it” in the mind’s eye first. They visualize a mental picture of the subject to understand it. They tend to daydream, imagine, and visualize internally

**Auditory External**

This style learner prefers auditory input over visual. They talk constantly to themselves or others. They are easily distracted; they memorized by steps and procedures; they exhibit head bobs, side-to-side eye movement, and greater awareness of tempo,
tonality, pitch, and volume. They like to answer rhetorical questions; they want test questions to be sequenced in the order they were learned; they can mimic voices well; they talk to themselves at night and before they get up in the morning; and they often replay conversations in their head. Math and writing are more difficult for auditory external learners. They speak rhythmically, like class discussions, dislike spelling, like to read aloud, enjoy storytelling, remember what was discussed, and often mimic tone, pitch, tempo, and pace of the teacher. They like social occasions more than others and often are better at recalling jokes and conversations.

**Auditory Internal**

This style leaner carries on internal dialogues with themselves. What do I Know? What do I think about this? What does this mean to me? They tend to have difficulty making up their minds. They are also very strong in metacognition.

**Kinesthetic External**

This style leaner prefers physical input. They learn best doing. They’re a “hands on” try it first, jump in and give it a go kind of leaner. They are in touch with their feeling; they’re active and physical; they exhibit minimal facial expression; talk less frequently; speak in measured words with pauses; have slower breathing; and like action novels. They use languages like, this “feels good,” or let’s “get a handle” on this. They are more likely to be big eaters, relatively right-hemisphere dominant, and are impacted by personal attention and close proximity. This means learning by doing the task is more interesting to them than reading about it or hearing about it.
**Kinesthetic Internal**

This style learner prefers inferential, intuitive input, such as storytelling and movies, stories with great deal of “heart” and feeling in them impact them the most, strong non-verbal communication is valued (including tonality, tempo, posture, expression, and gestures). They place greater emphasis on how something is said than on what is said. This leaner needs to have positive feeling about the task before they can get totally engaged. Kinesthetic internal learners are less verbally expressive, more physically expressive, and less likely to be the first to raise their hand in class, as they need to go “internal” to check out their answers before offering them. They prefer to experience feelings about a topic before learning about it.

### 1.6.6 Flexibility of Learning Style

Learning style preference, can change from one day to the next and even from hour to hour. In a study by the University of Sussex in England, researchers (Brewer and Campbell, 1991) found that detailed learning was better achieved in the morning, while global, inferential, and contextual learning was better achieved in the afternoon. Most of us are comfortable using several styles, even though our preferred (or dependent) style is likely to remain intact over our lifetime. It seems that our preferred learning style may be the one we needed for survival as an infant. Thus, in situations of stress, threat, or suspense, we revert to our priority learning style.

### 1.7 Need for the study

The most vital one that attracts the attention of one and all is the level of achievement in education. The levels of achievement for any nation are so important that they need to be known periodically to keep a tab on the general health of the education system. Such a requirement warrants the conduct of
periodical achievement surveys at different stages of school education in order to initiate remedial measures to improve the quality of learning.

Some of the variables often linked with achievement in a subject are emotional intelligence, goal orientation and learning styles. Conflicting results have been reported on the impact of these factors on achievement. In the normal classroom situation, language teachers have to teach students hailing from different socio-cultural and economic backgrounds. This naturally leads to a number of problems in language instruction, and language recognition means the language achievement in relation to the factors revealed in the light of Tamil language teaching and learning process.

Intelligence Quotient gives academic excellence but it is emotional quotient which is needed to excel in life and also to maintain compatible relationship with people socially. The students who have more Intelligence Quotient score more marks. But when they are in a chaotic situation they tend to lose control over their emotions and burst into feelings like anger and stress. But if the student has a good emotional Quotient, he will give time for his mind, understand the situation and take a decision which benefits not only him but also others around him. So, emotional intelligence enables students to navigate the complexities at school and also to motivate others. It also helps them to communicate with others freely and forge stronger relationship both at school and in their personal life in future. Emotional intelligence is therefore becoming an important area of study.

Goal setting is important for any individual. The success of a person depends on how he/she pursues his/her goal. It is essential that students are motivated to set their goals because it inspires them to work systematically, modifies their behaviour, and helps them to become successful citizens. Goal Orientation
implies behaviour intentions that determine how students approach and engage in learning activities. There are three types of goal orientation: learning goal orientation helps to see effort as a means to success and treat failure as a learning experience and not as a sign of insufficient ability. Performance goal orientation is divided into two categories namely performance approach goal and performance avoidance goal. By performance approach goal the students work very hard and put in lot of efforts in order to demonstrate their ability. By performance avoidance goal they are concerned with protecting their self-worth at all costs. Thus, it is necessary that the students are motivated to set a goal and work toward it.

Learning style is an important factor in the academic achievement of the students. Some students have good learning styles, some students may have poor learning styles which may be due to several factors. Individual differences also play a vital role in learning styles of children. Learning styles may be different from student to student and they also differ in case of high, average and low achievers. And the learning styles also vary among the students from gender, type of management, locality, etc. All school entrants, from beginning to end, require some styles and practise them to successfully pursue knowledge. The achieved test score determines their future career. The ambitions and aspirations of our students are largely governed by their learning skills adopted by the students. By this consideration, the investigator takes up the present study as “Emotional Intelligence, Goal Orientation and Learning Styles of IX standard pupils in relation to their Academic Achievement in Tamil”.

48
1.8 The operational definitions of the key terms

Academic Achievement in Tamil

In the case of IX standard pupils the percentage of marks secured in the half yearly examination were considered as academic achievement in Tamil score.

Academic achievement in Tamil refers to the acquired knowledge in specific year (2011) during a particular standard of study.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is defined as “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”.

Goal Orientation

Goal orientation is defined as “an individual difference variable that states to what degree an individual is predisposed to either type of goals”.

Learning styles

Learning style refers to a person’s natural, habitual and preferred ways of learning. Keefe defines it as “characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment”.

1.9 Objectives of the study

The following are the objectives of the present study

1. To study the nature of Tamil achievement, emotional intelligence, goal orientation and learning styles of ninth standard students.
2. To find out the levels of Tamil achievement, emotional intelligence and goal orientation of ninth standard students.

3. To find out the levels of Tamil achievement, emotional intelligence and goal orientation of ninth standard students on the basis of the following learning styles.
   a) Visual learning style
   b) Auditory learning style and
   c) Kinesthetic learning style

4. To find out the levels of Tamil achievement, emotional intelligence and goal orientation of ninth standard students with respect to their
   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School and
   d) Locality of the school

5. To find out the levels of Tamil achievement, emotional intelligence and goal orientation on the basis of the visual, auditory and kinesthetic learning styles with respect to
   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School and
   d) Locality of the school
6. To find out whether there exists any significant difference in Tamil achievement, emotional intelligence and goal orientation among the ninth standard students with respect to their
   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School and
   d) Locality of the school

7. To find out whether there exists any significant difference in Tamil achievement, emotional intelligence and goal orientation among the ninth standard students with respect to the following learning styles
   a) Visual learning style
   b) Auditory learning style
   c) Kinesthetic learning style

8. To find out whether there exists any significant difference in Tamil achievement, emotional intelligence and goal orientation among the ninth standard students with visual, auditory and kinesthetic learning styles on the basis of their
   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School and
   d) Locality of the school

9. To find out whether there is a significant relationship between
   (i) Tamil achievement and emotional intelligence.
   (ii) Achievement in Tamil and goal orientation
   (iii) Emotional intelligence and goal orientation among the ninth standard students
10. To find out whether there is a significant relationship between

(i) Tamil achievement and emotional intelligence among the ninth standard students with visual learning style

(ii) Tamil achievement and goal orientation among the ninth standard students with visual learning style

(iii) Emotional intelligence and goal orientation among the ninth standard students with visual learning style

11. To find out whether there is a significant relationship between

(i) Tamil achievement and emotional intelligence among the ninth standard students with auditory learning style

(ii) Tamil achievement and goal orientation among the ninth standard students with auditory learning style

(iii) Emotional intelligence and goal orientation among the ninth standard students with auditory learning style

12. To find out whether there is a significant relationship between

(i) Tamil achievement and emotional intelligence among the ninth standard students with kinesthetic learning style

(ii) Tamil achievement and goal orientation among the ninth standard students with kinesthetic learning style
(iii) Emotional intelligence and goal orientation among the ninth standard students with kinesthetic learning style

13. To find out whether there is a significant relationship between the independent variables namely emotional intelligence, goal orientation and the dependent variable Tamil achievement.

14. To find out whether there is a significant relationship between the independent variables namely emotional intelligence, goal orientation and the dependent variable Tamil achievement of visual learners.

15. To find out whether there is a significant relationship between the independent variables namely emotional intelligence, goal orientation and the dependent variable Tamil achievement of auditory learners.

16. To find out whether there is a significant relationship between the independent variables namely emotional intelligence, goal orientation and the dependent variable Tamil achievement of kinesthetic learners.

1.10 Hypotheses

1. There exists no significant difference among the ninth standard students’ Tamil achievement with respect to the following sub samples

   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School
   d) Locality
2. There exists no significant difference among the ninth standard students’ emotional intelligence and its components with respect to the following sub samples
   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School and
   d) Locality

3. There exists no significant difference among the ninth standard students’ goal orientation and its components with respect to following sub samples
   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School and
   d) Locality

4. There exists no significant difference among the ninth standard students’ Tamil achievement with respect to their following different learning styles
   a) Visual learning styles
   b) Auditory learning styles and
   c) Kinesthetic learning styles

5. There exists no significant difference among the ninth standard students’ emotional intelligence with respect to their following different learning styles
   a) Visual learning styles
   b) Auditory learning styles and
   c) Kinesthetic learning styles
6. There exists no significant difference among the ninth standard students’ goal orientation with respect to their following different learning styles
   
   a) Visual learning styles
   b) Auditory learning styles and
   c) Kinesthetic learning styles

7. There exists no significant difference in Tamil achievement of visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learners with respect to the following sub samples
   
   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School and
   d) Locality

8. There exists no significant difference in emotional intelligence of visual, auditory and kinesthetic learners with respect to the following sub samples
   
   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School and
   d) Locality

9. There exists no significant difference among the ninth standard students’ goal orientation of visual, auditory and kinesthetic learners with respect to the following sub samples
   
   a) Gender
   b) Medium of instruction
   c) Type of School and
   d) Locality
10. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ Tamil achievement and emotional intelligence.

11. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ Tamil achievement and goal orientation.

12. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ emotional intelligence and goal orientation.

13. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ Tamil achievement and emotional intelligence of visual learners.

14. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ Tamil achievement and goal orientation of visual learners.

15. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ emotional intelligence and goal orientation of visual learners.

16. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ Tamil achievement and emotional intelligence of auditory learners.

17. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ Tamil achievement and goal orientation of auditory learners.

18. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ emotional intelligence and goal orientation of auditory learners.
19. There is no significant relationship between ninth standard students’ Tamil achievement and emotional intelligence of kinesthetic learners.

20. There is no significant relationship between Tamil achievement and goal orientation of kinesthetic learners.

21. There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and goal orientation of kinesthetic learners.

22. There is no significant relationship between the independent variables namely emotional intelligence, and goal orientation and dependent variable, namely Tamil achievement of ninth standard students.

23. There is no significant relationship between independent variables namely emotional intelligence and goal orientation and the dependent variable, namely Tamil achievement of visual learners.

24. There is no significant relationship between independent variables namely emotional intelligence, and goal orientation and the dependent variable, namely Tamil achievement of auditory learners.

25. There is no significant relationship between independent variables emotional intelligence, and goal orientation and the dependent variable, namely Tamil achievement of kinesthetic learner’s styles.

1.11 Method used in the study

Normative Survey method was adopted in the present investigation to collect data from the ninth standard students in the selected schools of Cuddalore district.
1.12 Tools used in the study:

The following tools were used in the study.

1. For the Academic Achievement in Tamil scores obtained by IX standard students in the half yearly examination conducted by the government have been used for the study.
2. “Emotional Intelligence scale” to assess the emotional intelligence of IX standard students. It was constructed and validated by the investigator.
3. “Goal Orientation scale” to assess the goal orientation of IX standard students. It was constructed and validated by the investigator.
4. “Learning style Inventory” to assess the learning style of IX standard students. It was constructed and validated by the investigator.

1.13 Background of Variables:

The background variables considered for the study with reference to the IX standard students were gender, Medium, Locality and Type of Management.

1.14 Sample:

In the present study the investigator applied stratified random sampling technique to identify the institutions as sample. As many as 800 Ninth standard students were randomly selected from different schools in Cuddalore District.

1.15 Statistical techniques used:

The collection data were analyzed data was analyzed quantitatively to fulfill the objectives of the study. The researcher used the following statistical techniques to interpret the data:

1. Descriptive Analysis
2. Differential Analysis
3. Correlational Analysis
4. Regression Analysis

1.16 Delimitation of the study:

There is considerable number of schools in the state of Tamilnadu. Keeping in view the background of the problem, research design, resources and limitation of time the researcher selected randomly 15 schools from Cuddalore District and among the 15 schools, the researcher selected 800 IX standard school students.

1.17 Brief Resume of the Succeeding Chapters

Chapter II gives a review of past studies relating to the present investigation, carried out both in India and other countries. Chapter III is concerned with construction and validation of tools as well as details of their administration. Chapter IV deals with the interpretation of the data obtained by administrating the tools to the IX standard Pupils. Chapter V contains a brief summary of the investigation, main findings and conclusions, recommendations as well as suggestions for further research.