Chapter-I

INTRODUCTION
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One of the key concerns of educators in the present day world is the value orientation among students. The fast changing society is going through erosion of traditional values which has both positive but mostly negative impact. The youth e.g. is becoming alienated from his family, religion, exhibits attributes of irresponsibility, insincerity and dishonesty. He sometimes revolts from the norms of the society and culture. Dr. Radhakrishnan (1926) said, “The universities should be the strongholds of ethical and cultural traditions. Modern education has undoubtedly done a greater job by providing comforts to our bodies, but our minds and souls are still starving. The knowledge of science and technology can manifest our personalities, but for the manifestation of our inner personality a separate discipline is required. Though we have made enormous progress in knowledge and scientific inventions, we are not above the levels of our past generation in ethical and spiritual life. In some respect, we have declined from their standards. Our natures are becoming mechanized: void within. We are reduced to mere atoms in a community, members of a mob.”

The Kothari Commission (1964-66) recommended that the universities should concentrate to develop the qualities of character and strong leadership, to work as a model code of ethics among students and to ensure social equality and justice.

Singh and Thakur (2002) in their article Human Values in Education wrote, “The objective of education should not be the learning or teaching of
social, physical, biological, engineering or medical sciences, but the growth of body, mind and the soul. It should be a manifestation of the inner personality. It should aim at happiness, compassion, friendliness and adoption of human values like hope and equality, culminating into a more civilized philosophy of life. Thus, every University should work at value oriented education and idealistic socio-spiritual patterns.”

Pathania and Pathania (2006) wrote “it is a recognized fact that modern education and training have failed to produce men and leaders of character and integrity who can make India attain its past glory. Not only in India, but also worldwide, there is a cry for going ‘back to basic values’, so that the strength to deal with the complexity of modern living is developed”.

Therefore, the present researcher has taken one of the variables of the study.

Another significant variable selected by the researcher is the styles of learning e.g. whether the students is field independent or field dependent, motivation centred vs. non-motivation centred. The styles of learning naturally influence the learning process.

The focus of the study is on how the value orientation and different styles of learning influence the social behaviour and academic achievement of the adolescents students.

1.1 Value Orientation

Human being is a social animal and he lives in the society. He gives weightage to things in the society which he likes more. Same thing is important for many people because of its value and weightage in the society. A thing is
valuable for someone but cannot be important for others. Thus value is a desired state of feeling for a particular object in the society. Since values are the qualities which contribute to the well-being at individual and social level. Value does not exist as an object in the space and time but are established by judgments, by judging things, qualities, events or actions from a personal point of view.

The word value is derived from Latin root word “Valerie” which means strong and vigorous. According to oxford dictionary value means worth, while Cambridge dictionary gives the meaning of importance or worth of something for someone. From a historical point of view value asserts the meaning as a thing which is good. A widely accepted concept of value in traditional philosophy is as Truth, Goodness and Beauty.

The term value has been defined and interpreted in various ways by different thinkers and theorists. Often the term has been used to refer either a set or a feeling or an action. Murphy and Newcomb (1937) regarded value as maintenance of a set towards attainment of a goal; Everett (1918) viewed value as a feeling as well as an activity by which and through which the feeling is constituted. However, in psychology and social sciences the term value has been employed to mean as mere preferences and aversion, as desirable goals, emotions and interests. Freeman (1962) considered value as “generalized and dominant interest.” In their work the study of values. Allport et al. (1951) have used the term value to mean “the relative prominence of subject’s interest.
Rokeach (1973) who has done a leading work on value and value system has suggested the following definition.

“A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or an end-state of existence. A value system is an enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-state of existence along a continuum of relative importance.”

The chief characteristic of Rokeach’s definition is that he regards value as an enduring belief concerning desirable mode of conduct or enduring belief about desirable end-state of existence. Similarly, Rokeach considers value system as an enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-state or existence. Allport (1961) has also emphasized the belief aspect, when he says, “A value is a belief upon which man acts by preferences.”

Certain psychologists view value as moral preferences. A study was conducted by a group of investigators at Harvard University, which deals primarily with value and value orientation. This was published under the editorship of Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils (1952). The study was entitled as “Towards a General Theory of Action.” In this study values are referred to as moral preferences; Kluckhohn (1951) is one of the main contributors in the Harvard study. While discussing the concept of value, he writes, “A value is not just a preference but is a preference which is felt and or
considered to be justified morally or by reasoning or by aesthetic judgments, usually by two or three of these.” (Parsons and Shils-1952).

In popular use, value has three types of meaning: (a) the objects have value as they satisfy our needs and we are ready to pay for it; (b) acts, arguments and experiments have value as they serve our goals or objectives; and (c) at a higher conceptual level it means ideals. The terms human values, social values, and cultural values refers to the ideals and norms established by societies and cultures that are highly priced by the individuals and social units constituting the societies or culture. Therefore, values determine desirable and undesirable ideas, things and behaviors. The desirability and undesirability of ideas, things and behaviors however, are socially and culturally determined.

The values are seen as socially and culturally determined ideals and they may have individualistic character. In the broad frame of cultural values, an individual as a primary unit of the society may have a personal value system or preferences. Values constitute a central ingredient of personality on the one hand, and our thinking and attitudes on the others.

The values function as norms and have to be adopted by the constituent members and groups consciously or unconsciously. Such values are charged with emotions and become ego involved. Once this happens, values in forms of norms get internalized. This is the process of internalization of values in life. Values consequently may influence our perception and actions. In this sense, value becomes a generalized attitude. But unlike attitude (which could be positive or negative) values are preferential.
Value is more or less an abstract concept with different meanings in different contexts. It has both cognitive and co native components. In cognitive field it is related to thoughts, ideas, beliefs, prejudices and interests. On the other hand its cognitive aspect is manifested in the form of valances and goal directed activities.

Parson (1951) pointed out that value as cultural ideals that influence human choice by the virtue of being internalized by the actor. He contended that values are instigators of behavior and can only be inferred. However, values are embodied in social activities, relationships and institutions that are subject to change and adjustment. On the other hand, values have a relative permanence and universality. Similarly, values could be part of some ideology or part of more restricted group (i.e. social class, group or movement).

It may be said that values and ideas maintain and regulate the visible social structure and interaction on the one hand and give them cohesion on the other. Despite being subjective and invisible, values are significant aspect of society and underlie all relationship.

Values play a very significant role in social affairs, studying them is a good beginning for the production of an unified theory of human behavior. According to Parsons and Shils (1951) perfect articulate and conflict less action on the part of several actors is possible when rules become fully institutionalized, and are derived from the common value orientation of the people of collectivity. The Greek Philosophers envisaged values as arising from activities that intended to and adds to human knowledge, human delight
and aesthetic satisfaction in the one hand, and to socially acceptable, moral
conducts on the other hand. According to Super (1980) value is defined as an
objective, either a psychological state, a relationship or material condition that
once seek to attain.

Hofstede (1984) define values “as a broad tendency to prefer certain
states of affairs over others”. A more elaborate definition is given by Schwartz
(1992) as “desirable states, objects, goals, or behaviors, transcending specific
situations and applied as normative standards to judge and to choose among
alternative modes of behaviours.” An important merit of this latter definition is
that it distinguishes values from attitudes by pointing at their generalized
nature. Attitudes are people’s beliefs about specific objects or situations
(Hollander, 1971). They can be considered as taking a lower place in the
person’s hierarchy of beliefs (Rokeach, 1973). Another difference is that
attitudes can be positive or negative, whereas values are always positive, i.e. in
favour of something. Less specific than attitudes but more specific than values
is ‘interest’ (Davis, 1991; Roe, 1981). This notion has mostly been used in the
domain of work in connection with vocational choice, and refers to a person’s
preference or liking for particular types of occupational activities.

All definitions treat values as latest construct that refer to the way in
which people evaluate activities or outcomes. Thus, the notion of value pointed
out a relationship between an evaluating subjects and an evaluated object.
whereby this relationship is supposed to be durable and to have implications for
the individuals subsequent activities.
Sinha (1990c) observes that the manner in which values are conceptualized provide basis for suggesting that the desirable, ideal and important values are perhaps the cherished values and may have universal structure (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987), while in the former case the indication is towards operative values. (England, 1974) that are more close to social norms and behavior.

A conceptual definition of values by Schwartz (1992) incorporates five formal features of values. Accordingly values are (a) concepts or beliefs, (b) that pertain to desirable end states or behaviors, (c) transcend specific situations, (d) guide selection or evaluation of behaviors and events, and (e) are ordered by relative importance.

Schwartz (1992, 1994) contends that the critical content of values is the motivation they represent. He has demonstrated that self-direction, Stimulation, Hedonism, Achievement, Power, Security, Conformity, Tradition, Benevolence and Universalism, are the ten motivationally distinct types of values that appear repeatedly in a wide range of cultures and thus may qualify as universal values.

Values may be classified as mean values and end values. Realization of mean values proves instrument for realization of the more fundamental values termed as end or instrumental values (Rokeach, 1973). The terminal values such as honesty and loyalty are prized primarily on their own account and hence are also known as intrinsic values.

Kluckhohn (1951), Rokeach (1973) and Schwartz (1992), Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) defined human values as desirable goals, varying in
importance that serve as guiding principles in people’s lives. The crucial content aspect that distinguished among values in the type of motivational goals they express. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) derived a typology of the different contents of the values represented in the form of conscious goals.

The three universal requirements of human existence to which all individuals and societies must be responsive are (a) needs of individual as a biological organism (b) requisites of coordinated social interaction and (c) survival and welfare needs of groups. From an evolutionary point of view, these goals have crucial survival significance (Buss, 1986). Groups and individuals represent these requirements cognitively as specific values about which they communicate.

The ten motivationally distinct types of values (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987, 1990) were derived from the above-mentioned three universal requirements. For example, Conformity (one of the motivationally distinct value type out of ten) was derived from the prerequisite of smooth interaction and group survival. In addition to the universals in content of values, the theory specifies a dynamic relationship among the motivational types of values. The theory contends that actions in pursuit of each type have psychological, practical and social consequences that may conflict or may be compatible with the pursuit of other value types. For example, pursuit of achievement value may conflict with the pursuit of benevolence value (that is, seeking personal
success for oneself is likely to hinder actions aimed at enhancing the welfare of others who need one’s help).

The total pattern of relations of conflict or compatibility among value priorities that provide structure to the value system (Schwartz, 1992). The fundamental point to have in mind is that the value pattern refers to the relations of conflict and compatibility among values, not to their relative importance to a group or individual. The latter (i.e. importance) is referred to as value priorities or hierarchies. The theory contends that although ten value types may be discriminated, at a more basic level, the value types form a continuum of related motivations. This continuum gives rise to the circular structure. The partitioning into ten value types represents conceptually convenient decisions about where one fuzzy set ends and another begins.

Schwartz’s (1990, 1992) presented a model of ten motivational types values that are organized two major dimensions. These dimensions are composed of higher- order value types that combines the standard types. The first dimension “Openness to change” versus “conservation” opposes value emphasizing own independent through and actions and favoring changes (e.g self-direction and stimulation type) to those emphasizing submissive self-restriction, preservation of traditional practices and protection of stability, security conformity and tradition. The second dimension namely, ‘self-enhancement’ versus ‘transcendence’ opposes values emphasizing acceptance of others as equals and concerns for their welfare (i.e. universalism and benevolence) to those emphasizing the per suit of owns relative success and
dominance over others (e.g. power and achievement). Hedonism is related to both.

Values are transmitted from one generation to another by the religion philosophy and socialization practices. These are the major sources of values for millions of people in India and around the world.

Values such as love compassion, selflessness service and renunciation, duty and responsibility equanimity and detachment and caution against desires are seen as highly desirable in all the religions despite differences in the suggested practices for becoming an evolved person or an evolved community.

The individuals acquire social values through socialization and occupational roles. Tandon (1981) observes that the basic values transmitting social agencies are the family, educational institutions peer group and organized group in the society. There is no dearth of evidence to support this. A few selected important references in this context are Garg and Parikh (1993), Kakar (1978) and Roland (1988). Nevertheless, the values painstakingly inculcated by the above mentioned sources may get weakened, eroded and destabilized as the contextual parameters of a society are not always conducive for the survival, maintenance and adoption of the prescribed values. Accordingly to Sinha (1982 a), the very harsh social reality of India is a case in point in support of this argument.

Multiple and complex problems of the Indian social reality add up to create a sense of insecurity, relative deprivation and uncertainty. Consequently, one becomes suspicious, shrewd, competitive and coercive
towards those who seem to be competing with one for limited resources and opportunities. Sinha (1982a) observes that in face of overwhelming Indian realities such as poverty overpopulation scarcity of resources (poverty being the most dominant of them), the terminal goals of life, like salvation or moksha becomes subordinated to the lower order goals of wealth and prosperity.

Values orientation may be defined as value directions. It is an integrating factor in mature personality. Much or most of the unity in life comes from following the value. Values have selective power. What a person perceives remember and thinks is determined by his personal values. Value orientations are powerful and silent agents for selecting and directing whatever is related to them.

The concept of value orientation was introduced by Kluckhohn (1951). He has used the term value orientation for those value concepts which are (a) general, (b) organized and (c) include definitely existential judgment. Kluckhohn (1951) Observes value orientation is a set of linked proposition embracing both value and existential element. At another place he defines value orientation as a generalized and organized conception influencing behaviours of nature of man’s place in it, of man’s relation to man, desirable and non desirable as they may relate to man environment and inter-human relations.

Lowe (1969) views value orientation as the combination of different attitudes into an abstract set of preferences that is when different attitudes are
combined into a set preference, this set of preference is termed as value orientation.

According to Buhler (1962) Kluckhohn has attempted to organize and classify value orientation in terms of dimensions.

These are the dimensions of modality intent, extent and organization. The dimension of modality comprises the aesthetic, cognitive and moral values. the dimension of intent includes the instrumental and goal values and the dimension of extent consists of universal versus personal and group values. Under the dimension of organization hierarchy of values as well as isolated and integrated values are considered. Another classification of value orientation has been presented by Lowe (1959). Lowe has categorized value orientation in four categories namely (1) Naturalism (2) Culturalism (3) Humanism and (4) Theism. Naturalism refers to the value of obtaining physical comfort. culturism has been defined as the value of self sufficiency and theism means the value of submission and love to God.

Value orientation entails selection and choice either positively or negatively in terms of relevance to satisfaction of drive and their organization in motivation of behaviour. They in their relations to objects exhibit observance of certain norms and standards as well as criteria of selection in a contingent situation that allow the actor a choice. These value orientation when elaborated into patterns of culture become common values of society and exist as crucial elements of a given culture. Value orientation as ways of evaluation organize systems of actions and solve problems of evaluation in social interaction. They
actively work behind processes of evaluation in distinguishing, testing, sorting, and relating objects and their relationship.

Value orientations guide both actions and behavior of people. Standards of value emerge from them and go guiding our choices. During conflicts between beliefs and wants and various mechanism of evaluation they not only evaluate conflicts but also provide solution to them. Value orientation gearing life to value system and guiding behaviour both consistently and economically construct and determine the shape of a man’s life space in terms of social relationships on various dimensions (Parson, 1976).

**Types of values**

The values have been classified in different ways by different scholars. These are as follow:

Spranger (1928) a German psychologist was the first person who made an attempt to classify individuals on the basis of values that they hold. He has classified values into six ideal types-theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social political and religious values. Spranger viewed that every individual is govern by either one or the other of these six master ideal types values.

Rokeach (1973) has classified values into two types (1) instrumental values and (2) Terminal values. Instrumental values are related to the belief in desirable modes of conduct while terminal values are concerned with beliefs in desirable end-states of existence. Terminal values are again sub-divided into personal and social values. Personal values are self-centred. Such end-states as the peace of mind or salvation are the examples of personal values. Social
values on the other hand are society centred. The examples of social values are the beliefs in the world peace or brotherhood.

Instrumental values according to Rokeach (1973) are also of two types: Moral values and competence values. Moral values are social in nature. When the individual is behaving honestly and responsibly in the society, he is dealing with moral values. Competence values are related with such modes of conducts which are related to personal values. Thus when a person is behaving intelligently and logically he is dealing with competence values.

Morris (1956) has differentiated three ways in which the term value is used. Firstly, the term value is used to refer the tendencies or dispositions to prefer one kind of object rather than another. Here values are called as operative values. Secondly, the term value is used to such preferential behaviour which is directed by an anticipation or foresight of the outcome. In such cases values are called as Conceived values. Thirdly, when the term value related to what is preferable or desirable regardless of whether it is really preferred. Values, here is characterized in terms of what is preferable and not in terms of what is really preferred. Such values are called as objective values.

Margenau (1959) has made a distinction between factual and normative values. He defines factual values as “observable preferences, appraisals and desires of concrete people at a given time.” Normative values, according to him are ratings which people ought to give to value objects. Margenau holds the opinion that normative value is much more difficult to establish than factual value.
Another distinction between various categories of values has been made by Hartman (1959) who distinguished within three categories of values: systematic value, extrinsic value, and intrinsic value. He holds the view that everything in the world can be valued in these three dimensions. To make the distinction between systematic, extrinsic and intrinsic values clear, out of the examples given by Hartman, two are mentioned here. His examples are (1) “A button is valued systematically in a button factory, extrinsically in its function on my coat, intrinsically by a button fetishist” (2) “God is valued systematically in theology extrinsically in comparative religion, intrinsically in the mystic experience”.

Colough (1960) thinks that values may be classified according to the aspect of human energy to which they relate. Thus values according to him are classified as:

(I) Economic and material Value, i.e. values to meet out human wants and needs; (II) Social Values, i.e. values pertaining to relations among human beings; (III) Political values, i.e. values that action to accomplish some goals; (IV) Epistemological values, i.e. values related to systems of knowledge which consider some types more valid (V) Aesthetics values, i.e. values that apply to aesthetics and achievement of things of beauty (VI) Action Values, i.e. values that are concerned with making progress towards a fuller attainment of basic values.
1.2 Styles of Learning

The term “Learning Style” has been defined as “the composite of characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological factors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how a learner perceives, interacts with, and responds to the learning environment (Keefe, 1979)”. According to Cronbach & Snow (1977), learning styles could be used to predict what kind of instructional strategies or methods would be most effective for a given individual and learning task.

Various psychologists, educationists and researchers have tried to define the term ‘learning style’. Laycock (1978) describes learning style as an individual’s characteristic way of responding to certain variables in the instructional environment. However, to state it more briefly a student’s learning style is the way with which he learns best. Sigel and Coop (1974) have viewed learning style as an “integral concept that bridges the personality cognitive dimensions of individuals”. Gibson (1976) on the other hand argues that learning style and cognitive style are synonymous and defines learning style as “the different ways in which people process information in the course of learning”. Ausubel (1968) treated learning styles and cognitive styles synonymous which include individual preferences in both perceptual organization and concept categorization, that is, perceiving, thinking, remembering and solving problems. Agarwal (1987) however, was not fully satisfied with the above definitions of learning style. He viewed learning style in terms of elements or factors that affect the learning of student in one way or
the other. He defines learning style as “sum total of individual’s preferences for physical, social, emotional and environmental elements in the course of learning.” Since these elements may vary in degree for different students and in different situations, there may be various types of learning styles for different students. Vermunt (1992, 1995) describes the concept of a learning style as consisting of four aspects: processing strategies, regulation strategies, mental models of learning and learning orientations. Processing strategies are thinking activities students use to process information in order to obtain certain learning results like, for example, knowing the most important points in the study material (Metacognitive). Regulation strategies are activities students use to monitor, to plan and to control the processing strategies and their own learning processes. Mental models of learning can be considered as conceptions and misconceptions students have about learning processes. Learning orientations are personal aims, intentions, expectations, doubts, etc., students may experience during their educational career.

Learning style models

The different learning style models are based on different psychological theories. Models that are based on personality include Witkin’s (1954) and Myers - Briggs Type indicator (Myers, 1978). In these models, it is assumed that basic personality influences the approach to acquiring and integrating information. A second type of model of assumes that the method of information processing decides the individual’s preferred intellectual approach to learning. Schmeck’s (1983) and Kolb’s (1984) models are examples of the
information processing approach. In the third type the distinction is based on social interaction; Reichmann and Grasha (1974) are examples of such models. The forth type considers multidimensional factors within as Human Information Processing framework; examples are the Keefe (1989) and Dunn & Dunn (1978) models. All these models stress the importance of identifying and addressing individual differences in the learning process.

The most commonly used inventory is the one proposed by Kolb (1984). It proposes a theory of experiential learning that involves four principal stages: concrete experiences (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC) and active experimentation (AE). The CE/AC and AE/RO dimensions are polar opposites as far as learning styles are concerned and Kolb postulates four types of learners (divergers, assimilators, convergers and accommodators) depending upon their position on these two dimensions. For example, an accommodator prefers concrete experiences and active experimentation (AE, CE).

Concrete Experience (CE) learning style model

This type of person needs time to digest information, needs tangible, “hands on” approaches, will probably not volunteer to ask or answer questions spontaneously, works well in individual tutorials and one-on-one situations, does a lot of reading to build the background knowledge that can facilitate understanding.
Reflective Observation (RO) learning style model

Takes learning personally. It is important for this type to like a course and to find a personal link with it. Usually, needs to know on how to understand material without feeling compelled to agree with it.

Abstract Conceptualization (AC) learning style model

Connects information with prior learning. Learns through linking new knowledge with previous knowledge and experiences. Sees the big picture. May have difficulty with organizing information, finding focus, or attending to details. In writing essays, may appear to be “all over the place”.

Active Experimentation (AE) learning style model

Has a need for immediate feedback. Learns best by asking questions. May jump ahead of the instructor and interrupt with questions. Is often an academic rebel, i.e. likes to “buck the system” or look for exceptions to the rules. Works well group tutorial and group study.

Types of learning styles

Children in a given classroom may vary not only in the things they know and in their capabilities for learning, but also in ways in which they approach and deal with a given task. Noar (1972) has provided the analysis of the process of responding to a learning situation and noted that (i) individuals differ with respect to what they require to initiate and sustain the learning process. (ii) children differ with respect to the amount of encouragement, they need to attack a learning task. (iii) children differ with respect to the amount, frequency and kind of motivation for learning they require. (iv) children differ
in the amount of prodding they require and (v) children differ with respect to how much they rely on eyes or ears for learning. Dressel (1976) also identified various learning styles and found some individuals having strong verbal orientation while others having strong emotional orientation; some were found strong minded and self-directed, while others preferred interaction with peers; some were found authority oriented, while others were goal directed.

These variations are usually functions of the ways in which they (students) approach their learning tasks. Just as there have been different approaches to learning, there are also different styles corresponding to these different approaches. Reissman (1966) identified three basic learning styles as visual, aural and physical. Laycock (1978) has given six most common learning styles, as follows:


Shumsky (1968) has given following four learning styles:

(i) Tempo in Learning, (ii) independence in work, (iii) Attentiveness, (iv) reactions to new situations

Biehler (1974) has identified following learning styles:


Besides above educationists and researchers, many other authors and researchers have mentioned several other learning styles. Agrawal (1987) after
going through the literature available on learning styles, found that much of the learning styles were repetitive with the same names or synonyms names. He gave the following types of learning style.

(i) Individualistic vs. non-individualistic, (ii) Field independent vs. field dependent, (iii) Motivation centred vs. non-motivation centred, (iv) Aural vs. visual (v) Environment oriented vs. environment free, (vi) Flexible vs. non-flexible, (vii) Short attention span vs. long attention span.

(1) Individualistic vs. Non-individualistic learning style

Various learning styles such as independence in working; mode of affiliation; peer orientation; authority orientation and responsive mode point to one or the other aspect of these learning styles as taken for the study. These have been reduced to one: individualistic learning style (i.e. students who are self-centred or independent in their learning) vs. non-individualistic learning style (i.e. those who require help or assistance from peers, adults, teachers etc.).

In a classroom a teacher may want to know how children differ in their ability to work independently, who are the children who can work with a minimum of adult direction and prodding? Who are those who need quite a bit of help at the initial stage of a given assignment or task and can later proceed on their own? There are students who prefer to work on some learning problem without assistance from any one. On the other hand there are students who like to work in a group or in a team.

Thus, in the present study, individualistic vs. non-individualistic learning style has been described as students, who enjoy working at their own
on some educational task, have been named as having individualistic learning style. Where as others, who prefer carrying out any educational task with a group or in a team have been characterized as having non-individualistic learning style.

(2) Field Independent vs. Field dependent learning style

Generally student’s learning is influenced by the structurization of learning situations. This type of learning is called field dependent. But there are students who grow in their learning at their own without caring for the structurization of learning tasks provided to them. This type of learning is called field independent.

The field dependent-field independent dimension (Goodenough, 1978) reflects the degree to which people function autonomously of the world around them. Students at one extreme of the dimension i.e. field independent are likely to have internal frame of reference available to them that they use in articulating incoming information. At the opposite extreme, field dependent students are likely to use external frames of reference and are less active in processing information. The perceptions of field dependent children are dominated by the total or overall organization of a field as discrete. The field independent child is not dominated by embedding context. He can experience the parts of the field as distinct from, rather than fused with, the organized background. Field independent people tend to use a hypothesis testing approach and field dependent people use an intuitive approach.
Thus, the field dependent-independent learning style in this study has been taken as students who prefer to work in structured learning situations have been classified as having field dependent learning style. On the contrary, students who do not enjoy working in structured learning situations have been taken as having field independent learning style.

(3) Motivation centred vs. non-motivation centred learning style

Motivation is a very important factor in accelerating the process of learning. The purpose of motivation is to strengthen or maintain individual’s behaviour for achieving educational objective. Students differ with respect to the amount, frequency and kind of motivation they require for learning. Some have an inner drive for learning. Motivation centred students are eager to learn. They should be told exactly what they are required to do, what resources are available to them, how to get help if they need it, and how they will be expected to demonstrate that they have learned what they were assigned.

Some teachers, who are aware of this fact, use this knowledge in encouraging their students to achieve more, in increasing their level of aspiration and the like. Students, who are non-motivation centred, rarely get success in their life. They do not work hard and blame others for their failure and always feel disappointed. Thus, this aspect of learning style is of a great significance as it is directly related with student’s success in learning.

In the present study this style has been described as, students who are eager to learn and more, are enthusiastic about exploiting the learning situation. They are more conscious about demonstrating their best to get high grade, praise etc.
for their performance, have been characterized as having motivation-centred learning style. Contrary to it, have taken as having non-motivation centred learning style.

(4) Aural vs. visual learning style

This learning style has been taken to refer to an ability to learn and retain information more effectively when certain channels of communications are employed. Students differ with respect to how much they rely on ‘eyes’ or ‘ears’ for learning. Some students prefer those subjects in which some type of visual aids are used and they have to perform or construct something. These students are named as having visual learning style. On the other hand students having aural learning style prefer those teachers and subjects which require them only to listen. They remember best only when they themselves speak it or hear it from some one. The former can learn more readily from word symbols that are printed or written, the later do better when they hear the human voice directly or indirectly. The students with visual learning style can also learn from pictures. They may need to write down what they want to remember. Writing may not be a necessary property for students having aural learning style.

Thus, in the present study it has been operationally described as, student’s response to a learning situation when it is presented through a variety of communications i.e. aural and visual. Students, who depend on printed or written matter for learning or the like, have been classified as having visual
learning style. Similarly other students who learn best when they hear human
voice directly or indirectly have been named as having aural learning style.

(5) Environment oriented vs. environment free learning style

There are some individuals who are quite sensitive to physical
environment features i.e. sound levels, conversations, street noise and other
distracters and prefer to learn in a quite congenial environment. They have
been termed as having environment oriented learning style. There are some
other students who are named as having environment free learning style. They
are the students who do not bother for such type of disturbances and can
concentrate on their learning tasks undisturbed. For example music does not
affect the concentration of some, while others can concentrate only in pin drop
silence. Lighting and heating, either in amount or type, affect the concentration
and performance of some students, while others remain unaffected.

Student's when exposed to these features often feel discomfort in
completing their learning task. Some of them could bear the resistance of heat,
light and sound, while others want to get rid of them. These are the features
which affect their classroom learning. That is why this particular learning style
has been taken to find out whether different environmental conditions can
cause the variation among learning styles of students.

Therefore, environment oriented vs. environment free learning style has
been described as a student while studying if affected by physical environment
e.g. heat, sound and light have been identified as having environment oriented
learning style. Likewise, one whose learning is not interfered by any type of
physical environment has been labeled as having environment free learning style.

(6) Flexible vs. non-flexible learning style

There are some students who follow the instruction or approaches of their teachers as suggested by them in the classroom. They do not want to deviate from the guidelines provided to them, they are not eager to consult other methods for solving the problems except what is told to them. They do not read all the subjects with same zeal and spirit. They are rigid in their approach and are satisfied with what their teachers tell them. They do not want to learn more than a traditional solution of a learning problem. Such students have been characterized as having non-flexible learning style. On the other hand there are students who act and react to a learning situation after a lot of relevant and productive thinking. They do not follow their teachers blindly and try to tap other sources for further studies. They enjoy discussion with their teachers. They are named as having flexible learning style.

Thus, in the present study flexible vs. non-flexible learning style has been defined as students who are not satisfied with the traditionally accepted solution to a learning problem and always try to arrive at unique responses and solution have, been identified as having flexible learning style. Students, who are satisfied with traditionally accepted responses to a learning situation have been characterized as having non-flexible learning style.
Short attention span vs. long attention span learning style

These two forms of attention span i.e. short and long do influence the learning of students as they vary in their capacity to concentrate for a short and long duration of time in their learning tasks. When a task is given to complete, some students work until it is completed. They can give continuous or long sitting without getting bored or without talking some type of intake in between. Such students have been characterized as having long attention span learning style. Other students i.e. those having short attention span, experience difficulty in concentrating for a long time during the learning, they loss interest, become irritated and get involved in social activities rather than completing their learning tasks. Researches have indicated that short attention spanned students show lack of interest in subject matter. Thus, short attention span or long attention span learning styles are related to student’s interest, motivation and urge for learning.

Therefore, it was decided to include this learning style in present study which has been described as students, who are not able to concentrate on some learning task for a longer period of time and may need some type of intake to continue work on that learning task, have been characterized as having short-attention span learning style. Similarly students, who can give long continuous sitting for doing some learning assignment without having any intake or without performing any other activity in between have been named as having long attention span learning style.
1.3 Social Behaviour

By birth human beings are social creatures. Indeed without social interactions (the support of caregivers), no infant would survive. Even when we become capable of living independently, very few people seek to live in isolation. The social behaviour is often referred to as social psychology but reality is that studying social interactions is not the solely domain of psychologist, sociologist and anthropologists, among others also study social interactions in various ways. Social psychologists tend to focus on how individuals act in social situations, and how they are influenced by social processes. Sometimes, the focus is on how the individual is affected by others which is called social influence. Social influence can include direct influence like group decision making, as well as indirect influences like imaging how friends would react to a particular situation.

In Biology, Psychology and Sociology social behaviour is behaviour directed towards society or taking place between, members of the same species. In a sociological hierarchy social behaviour is followed by social action, which is directed to other people and is designed to induce a response. So, social behaviour is a process of communicating.

Social behaviour may be defined as behaviour in which the responses either serve as social stimuli or are evoked by social stimuli (Allport, 1924). Formation and direction of these behaviour mechanisms in the social environment has been one of the most essential conditions. According to Allport we have to turn from the genetic consideration of human nature to the
process of interaction between individuals. Instead of establishing individual traits through the effect of stimulus and response, we may begin most appropriately with the social behavior observed among animals, for it is from the origin and development of social life among the lower orders that a fuller understanding of the human aspect may be gained. A logical procedure would then be to complete the developmental study with the social behavior of infants and children. Behavior as defined is process of responding to a stimulus by an activity that is normally useful to life. Stimuli may be divided into two classes, social and non-social. A social stimuli is any movement, expression, gesture, or sound, in short any reaction made by an animal (human or infra-human) which produces a response in another. As a rule the individual whose behavior affords the stimulus and the individual who responds belong to the same species. There are many exceptions, however such as the cat which reacts to the movement of a mouse by crouching and stalking or the man who understands and responds to the barking of his dog or the nervousness of his horse. Stimuli which are not produced by the presence or the actions of individuals are termed ‘non social’.

The particular character of social behavior is determined by a number of circumstances. Among these are (1) the grouping or placing of the individuals and the number and direction of the social stimuli; (2) the relative significance of social and non-social objects in the general field of stimulation; and (3) the degree of intelligence and ability to communicate possessed by the
individuals of the group upon the last named condition depends the value of social behaviour as a means of biological.

Social scientists distinguish man from animal by his capacity to speak, to make tools and to be able to use reason and logic. It is said that man is a speech making animal, he is a tool making animal, or that he is a rational animal. The social behaviour of man can be studied in the way in which individuals interact with one another either in face-to-face contacts or in more indirect forms of social relationship.

Social life has throughout been essential to man. Out of the centuries of human existence has come culture-including fire making, cooking, clothing, making and using of tools and speech, and also beliefs, values and social institutions. Social life has become very complex and highly developed. Apart from all the complexity certain types of social behaviour which have continued all along human development. We find that human beings have always been marked for attraction, friendship, sympathy, or repulsion, avoidance, enmity, dominance or submission and cooperation or competition and conflicts. Some of these forms of social behaviour involve mutual interaction, others involve one-way reaction but all take place between two or more individuals or groups of individuals. Other types and forms of interaction are accommodation and assimilation. These are regarded as the basic processes of social interaction. In other word, human interactions and types of behaviour can be classified under the following basic forms.
(i) Interpersonal relationship of a relatively permanent character, which represent more specific and intimate forms of social interaction as for example, sympathy and friendship or repulsion and enmity.

(ii) Types of social interaction which are more temporary and are linked to a given situation; they take place in connection with achieving certain goals. Here may distinguish between (a) those involving mutual interaction in which two or more persons react to each other such as cooperation, compassion and conflict. (b) Those involving one-way reaction in which the process is not-mutual such as dominance, submission, imitation and suggestion.

(iii) Processes of social interaction involving changing relations, in which human relationships change over a period of time. Such example as accommodation and assimilation.

Social behaviour is a phenomenon which is very near at hand, and which is of great emotional significance. To deal with it, people build up sets of common sense assumptions and act in accordance with them. Scientific research shows us that at a number of points these assumptions require amendment. How many people for example realize that what they see of the behaviour of another person B is often a highly a typical performance, and that in other situations and in other company B is a quite different person? People are often surprised when they find that while they dislike C, others like C very much, unaware that C’s behaviour varies, and that friendship is a relational affair, dependent on what kind of social system can be established between two
people. It is generally supposed that popularity and status in informal groups are a function of personality characteristics. This is the case to only a very limited extent; friendship depends more on frequency of social contact, status, or ability to contribute to group goals. It is not realized how far our perceptions of others are the result of categorizing people into carefully learnt private categories and how they are distorted by motivation.

Familiarity with the processes of social behaviour may have the effect of making us conscious of what is happening in this area of behaviour, just as psychoanalysis makes people conscious of some of the motivations of behaviour. Perhaps the best example is the reinforcement of verbal techniques subjects are usually completely unaware that their behaviour is being influenced. We do not know, whether knowledge of this process makes people realize when it is happening. The existence of social norms, and pressures to conform to them, on the other hand, are familiar to many. The growth and maintenance of group equilibria, and the conditions under which they can be changed, are also new source of insight and understanding.

The social behaviour of the adolescent is a pressing need of the time. By social behaviour we mean those positive behaviour which the society expect from the growing child. Society has its own norms and standard of behaviour. The growing adolescent sometimes may have certain problems of behaviour partly because of changes in his physiological development and partly because of the training which includes his family background and his cognitive and emotional development.
The studies concerned with social behaviour have taken such variables as aggression, power ascerting, compliance and social conversation behaviours (Pal and Misra, 1991), social adaptation (Tse and Bond, 2005), child social initiative (Karrass and Walden, 2005) etc.

1.4 Academic Achievement

Academic achievement has great importance in the present scenario. Right from the beginning formal education puts emphasis on achievement. The effectiveness of any educational system to a large extent depends upon the involvement of students to achieve whatever it is to be in the cognitive or psycho-motor domain.

More attention has been paid to the development of intellectual and cognitive process which facilitates performance in the classroom setup. However, the development of achievement related effective process has been neglected. The degree of positive effect that children feel about their own performance is important not only in maintaining positive attitude towards school, academic achievement and learning, but also in promoting competence and self-worth.

The value of academic achievement has its significance for higher education on one hand and getting job on the other. As a result, the students going to schools and colleges attempt for attaining high achievement. Consequently pressure on school and college going has increased. Parents are more conscious about higher academic scores in the examination.
Hawes (1982) described academic achievement as “Successful accomplishment or performance in particular subjects, areas or courses, usually by reasons of skill, hard work and interest; typically summarized in various types of grades, marks, scores or descriptive commentary.”

Academic achievement helps in declaring examinees as successful or unsuccessful, choosing students for various professional and academic courses and selecting candidates for different jobs. It is now a common practice to promote students from one class to another on the basis of academic achievement. Acquiring a degree/diploma and obtaining a good job depends upon the academic achievement. Besides this the children perceive themselves as happier and more able and perceive the task as easier when they have experienced success than when they think they have failed.

Academic achievement has been defined differently by different people. There is no single definition on which consensus is made to suit the purpose. According to Good (1973) academic achievement is “knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subjects, usually designated by test scores, or by marks assigned by teachers or the both.”

Mitzel (1984) described “Academic achievement is often defined in relation to the concept of aptitude by simple contrast measuring the learning that take place during definable course of instruction in achievement testing.”

In this definition, the total percentage of marks obtained by a student in the previous class is taken as his/her academic achievement.
Achievement refers the measure of what and now much an individual has learnt. It may be the quality or quantity of learning attained by an individual in a subject of study after a period of instruction. Academic achievement is interpreted as a general term for the success, feeling of attainments of some goal requiring certain effort and the degree of success attained in a task.

Academic achievement of pupils has been a matter of concern for long and its prediction has assumed enormous importance in view of its practical values. Attempts have been made to identify the main determinants of achievement which led to studies involving both cognitive and non-cognitive variables. Academic achievement is not a uni-dimensional function but a multi-dimensional activity. Lucas and Horrocks (1960) extracted approximately 70 needs of adolescents from a survey of the literature and constructed a questionnaire covering these needs. Factor analysis of the response of over 725 adolescents to the questionnaire revealed need for achievement related primarily to school achievement.

It is concluded that the term academic attainment, achievement, academic aspiration, need for achievement have been used interchangeably by different investigators to represent the phenomenon of academic achievement in different studies.

1.5 Adolescent

The terms “adolescence” comes from the Latin word adolescere, which means “to grow” or “to grow to maturity.” In earlier civilizations the child was
considered an adult when he was capable of reproduction, but today, adolescence has a broader meaning and includes mental, emotional and social as well as physical maturity. Adolescence is a time when the individual is expected to prepare for adulthood by replacing childish attitudes and behaviour patterns with those of an adult type. Hechinger (1963) said, “The task now is to make it clearly understood that adolescence is a stage of human development, not as empire or even a colony. The mission of the adult world is to help teenagers become adults by raising their standards and values to maturity rather than by lowering adulthood to their insecure maturity. The task for the adult world is to make adolescence a step toward growing up, not a privilege to be exploited.”

International encyclopedia of education (1994) defines, “Adolescence is the period within the life span when most of persons biological, psychological and social characteristics are changing from what is considered child like to what is considered adult.”

According to encyclopedia of Britannica (1960), adolescence is usually defined as the period of transition between childhood and adulthood. Although some writers equate adolescence with puberty and cycle of physical changes culminating in reproductive maturity. Ford and Beach (1951), adolescence is the period extending from puberty to the attainment of full reproductive maturity.

Freud (1958) has the view that adolescence is initiated by puberty but presumably terminates with attainment of genital maturity in psychological
sense. Adolescence is commonly defined as the stage of life that begins at the onset of puberty, when sexual maturity or the ability to reproduce is attained. It has been regarded as a period of rapid change, both biologically and psychologically. Though the physical changes that take place during this stage are universal, the social and psychological dimensions of the adolescent's experiences depend on the cultural context.

Adolescence is regarded as a period in the life span which begins when the individual becomes sexually mature and ends when he reaches legal maturity. Adolescence is that span of years during which boys and girls move from childhood to adulthood, mentally, emotionally and physically (Jersild, 1963). Usually it is thought of as that period of life in which maturity is being attained and chronologically adolescence comes roughly in between the years 12 to 19 years of age. Adolescence is traditional period of life between childhood and adulthood. There is more controversy than agreement among psychologists regarding the exact beginning and end of adolescence.

Majority of the developmental psychologists consider a person to be an adolescent from about 13 to 18 years of age, the period is not associated with the precise number of years. The adolescence begins with a period of rapid physical and especially sexual development called puberty.

Hurlock (1974) has divided adolescence into two periods (i) Early adolescence period (ii) Late adolescence period.

Early adolescence period begins when the individual becomes sexually mature. For the average girl of today, early adolescence begins at 13 years and
for boys, approximately a year later. The dividing line between early and late adolescence is placed around 17 years of age. Late adolescence period is recognized as beginning around 17 years of age, the time when the average boy or girl attains the status of a senior in high school. The end of the late adolescent period is around 21 years of age.

1.6 Significance of the study

The present study aims at exploring the effect of value orientation as well as styles of learning on social behaviour and academic achievement of adolescents students. Adolescence is that span of years during which boys and girls move from childhood to adulthood, mentally, emotionally and physically (Jersild, 1963). Usually it is thought of as that period of life in which maturity is being attained and chronologically adolescence comes roughly in between the years 12 to 19 years of age.

Values give selective power to perception, memory and thinking of a person. Values are also powerful and silent agents for selecting and directing behaviour. Therefore, it seems quite logical to assume that values will influence the adolescent’s social behaviour and academic achievements.

Current researches Murray (1980), Thayer (1987), Singh (2001) and Singh (2007) shows that styles of learning are considered to be important in relation to leaning. Therefore, the effect of styles of learning on academic achievement is worth explorabe. Since learning styles may be taken as personality orientation, the styles of learning may exert an influence on social behaviour of adolescents.
The studies as reported in the review of literature show that same studies are conducted on value-orientation in relation to academic achievement. But as far as the knowledge of the present researcher, no study has been reported value orientation and styles of learning on social behaviour of adolescent.

1.7 Objectives

In the light of reviewed relevant literature the following objectives were formulated.

1. To explore the relationship and effect of value orientation and styles of learning on social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescents.
2. To determine the relationship between value orientation and styles of learning with social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescent girls.
3. To find out the contribution and relationship of value orientation and styles of learning on social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescent boys.
4. To explore the effect of value orientation and styles of learning on social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescent students of science stream.
5. To find out the effect of value orientation and styles of learning on social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescent students of non-science stream.
1.8 Hypothesis

The formulation of hypotheses plays significant role in drawing inferences about the population from which sample is drawn. Hypothesis is the assumptions regarding the population parameter. It is the prime objective of investigator to formulate hypotheses before conducting the study. In the light of reviewed related studies the following null hypotheses were formulated.

1. There will be no significant relationship between value orientation and styles of learning with social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescents.

2. There will be no significant relationship between value orientation and styles of learning with social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescents girls.

3. There will be no significant relationship between value orientation and styles of learning with social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescents boys.

4. There will be no significant relationship between value orientation and styles of learning with social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescents students of science stream.

5. There will be no significant relationship between value orientation and styles of learning with social behaviour and academic achievement among adolescents students of non-science stream.
1.9 Delimitations

Every research is limited in several ways. It has to be delimited in terms of population covered, sample selected and scope of variables studied. The present investigation has also certain delimitations which are as follows:

1. Selected sample was drawn from A.M.U. senior secondary schools (boys and girls) only, whereas the same study could have been conducted on a broader level.

2. The number of students included in the sample was limited to 410.

3. The study of value orientation in the present research is limited in scope e.g. it does not include moral value, accountability, honesty, generosity, sincerity (all important for character building).

4. In styles of learning we have taken flexible vs. non-flexible, individualistic vs. non-individualistic, visual vs. aural, field independent vs. field dependent, short attention span vs. long attention span etc. styles of learning, but we have not taken responsible vs. irresponsible, concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation styles of learning.

5. In social behaviour compassion, sympathy, cooperativeness, selfless leadership has not been included.

These limitations are due to paucity of time. Further researches should be carried on considering these limitations.