

Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi





A SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT



Dr. Yener ÖZEN¹

ABSTRACT

In this study aim reviews the literature on social responsibility and student achievement. Social responsibility has implications for development well past the age of adolescence. For example, community service and childcare volunteers cited improved knowledge of themselves and others and participation in volunteer organizations increased selective forms of political expression and voting rates years later. Developing social responsibility is a complex process encompassing not only issues of control and agency for adolescence, but the need for recognition of the contributions they make. In addition, there is a need for adolescents' to practice various adult roles without having to suffer the full consequences of their decisions or having to make lifetime commitments. Both theoretical and empirical work suggests that student social responsibility is not only a valued outcome in and of itself but that it can be instrumental in the acquisition of knowledge and the development of cognitive abilities. This review describes research on the value of social responsibility for parents and teachers and on how it is promoted within the classroom. It is proposed that social responsibility can facilitate learning and performance outcomes by promoting positive interactions with teachers and peers and, from a motivational perspective, by providing students with additional incentives to achieve.

Keywords: Social responsibility, student achievement

¹

¹ Ass.Professor at the Faculty of Education, Erzincan University, yenerozen@erzincan.edu.tr



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası





SOSYAL SORUMLULUK İLE ÖĞRENCİ BAŞARISI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ: SOSYAL PSİKOLOJİK BİR YAKLAŞIM

Öz

Bu çalışmada, sosyal sorumluluk ve öğrenci başarısı ile ilgili literatür gözden geçirilmektedir. Sosyal sorumluluk ve ergenlik dönemi gelişimi üzerinde etkileri vardır. Örneğin, topluma hizmet uygulamaları ve çocuk bakım gönüllülüğü, siyasi ifade ve daha sonra oy kullanma, kendilerini bilgi ve diğerleri ile gönüllü kuruluşların katılımı göstergeleri gibi (Fendrich, 1993; Hanks,1981: Excerpt: Polk, 2000). Sosyal sorumluluk ergenlerin kurumlara yaptıkları hizmetler ve bu hizmetlerin artırılmasını kapsayan kontrollü ve karmaşık bir süreçtir. Buna ek olarak, verdikleri kararların tam sonuçlarına katlanmak ya da ömür boyu taahhüt yapmak zorunda kalmadan çeşitli yetişkin rollerini uygulamaya yönelik bir ergen eğitim uygulamasıdır (Holloway, 1982; Excerpt: Polk,2000). Hem teorik ve ampirik çalışmalar öğrencinin sosyal sorumluluk, bilgisi ve bilişsel becerilerin gelişimine vesile olabileceğini düşündürmektedir. Bu literatür ebeveynler ve öğretmenler için sosyal sorumluluk değeri ve sınıf içinde nasıl tanıtıldığının araştırmalarını anlatılmaktadır. Sosyal sorumluluğa ulaşmak için ek teşvikler öğrencilere sunulmakta, bir motivasyon aracı olarak sosyal sorumluluk, olumlu etkileşim aracı olarak öğrenme ve performansı artırıcı yöntemler olarak önerilmiştir (Wentzel, 1991:1).

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sosyal sorumluluk, Öğrenci başarısı, Eğitim amaçları

INTRODUCTION

Social responsibility has emerged over the last decade as an expansion of the field of study previously labeled citizenship or civic education. The concept of social responsibility is broader in that it encompasses the developing adolescents' social skills while enabling him or her to be active and responsible members of their larger social and political community (Berman, 1993). The development of social responsibility is a matter of great concern to parents, teachers, and students themselves (Krumboltz, Ford, Nichols, & Wentzel, 1987; Mutimer & Rosemier, 1967). Indeed, following social rules and conforming to social role expectations are critical for positive forms of social adaptation, both within the peer group (Hartup, 1983) and within the family system (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Social responsibility is multidimensional in that being responsible goes beyond just being respectful of others; it



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

means experiencing, as well as appreciating our interdependence and connectedness with others and our environment (Berman, 1993). The ability of the adolescent to identify and define social responsibility is important in defining who they are, where they fit in the social world, and building confidence in their sense of agency. The current definition of social responsibility is marked by the adolescents' need for experiencing generatively, casting ones' mark as an individual and clarifying one's role in an ever-widening social context (Berman, 1997). From a societal perspective, a lack of such skills can have a profound effect on the individual as well as others. For instance, antisocial children, as adults, tend to be overrepresented in groups characterized by alcoholism, unemployment, divorce, and dependence on public assistance (Caspi, Elder, & Bern, 1987). Social responsibility is a popular word in the vocabularies of parents, educators, youth leaders, employers, and many others. Although there is a lengthy "literature of opinion" on how children may be guided in its development, little research on this important topic has been reported. This article summarizes the available literature and points up the conclusions to be drawn.

An important aspect of the acquisition of social responsibility relates to the adolescents' feelings of agency and control; the degree to which they perceive themselves as accountable for both personal achievements and failures. Adolescents learn social responsibility and social skills through interaction with their families, peers, mentors, and communities. At the social level, an adolescent develops self and social responsibility through after-school employment, extracurricular activities, school activities, and by participation within the community allowing the adolescent to acquire a sense of purpose and connectedness. The construct of social responsibility has been conceptualized in a variety of ways including volunteerism, community service, and human rights and civic activity (Avery, 1988; Fendrich, 1993; Greenberger, 1984). Of particular importance for educators is the fact that social responsibility is also associated with various aspects of school performance (Lambert & Nicoll, 1977; Mischel, 1961; Parker & Asher, 1987; Wentzel, Weinberger, Ford, & Feldman, 1990; Wentzel, 1986). For instance, the development of social responsibility in the form of citizenship skills and moral character is often considered to be a primary function of schooling (e.g., Dreeben, 1968; Jackson, 1968). From this perspective, the instructional process directly promotes the development of social responsibility, with social and intellectual competence being concurrent but separate goals for students to achieve while at school.



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

A second literature suggests that learning and behaving responsibly in the classroom are causally related. Behaving responsibly can create a classroom environment for students that is conducive to learning and cognitive development. Irresponsible behavior can result in classroom disorder or poor interpersonal relationships and tends to place children at risk for academic failure. From a motivational perspective, goals to be cooperative and compliant can provide additional incentives for students to achieve. Conversely, goals to be socially responsible can have a negative influence on achievement if the pursuit of these goals takes precedence over the pursuit of task-intrinsic learning goals.

It has been argued that there is an impression of emptiness in the role of today's youth due to insufficient opportunities for self-discovery through action, societal contributions, and experimentation with various adult roles (Holloway, 1982). To ensure successful navigation of their social settings and to build a foundation for the successful transition from adolescence into adulthood, an adolescent must begin early in the developmental process to gain feelings of competency regarding their individual actions and social interactions. When we "offer adolescents' participatory experiences that are meaningful, we allow them to discover their potency, assess their responsibility, acquire a sense of political processes, and commit to a moral-ethical ideology" (Youniss, McLellan, & Yates, 1997). It is equally important that the adolescent knows their contribution is important. This can only occur when youth are allowed to make meaningful contributions to their communities and to other human beings.

DEFINITION OF SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The word "responsibility" is kin to the word "response." A response is an answer. A responsibility is something, for which we are answerable (Overstreet, 1947). Responsibility may be defined as the habit of choosing, and accepting the consequences of the choice of behavior. . . . The ultimate aim of training is to teach the grown-up child to accept full responsibility for *all* his actions (Blatz, 1944). On the other hand, prefer the emphasis on reliability; taking responsibility means: accepting certain tasks as your own, expecting to carry them through to the end, and doing so; doing things well, according to your ability; keeping promises (Woodcock, 1948).



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

Social responsibility is the distinctive features of individual responsibility? Social responsibility is defined as adherence to social rules and role expectations (Ford, Wentzel, Wood, Stevens, & Siesfeld, 1989). These rules exist by virtue of social roles that define rules for group participation, as a reflection of broad social and cultural norms, or as a result of personal commitments to other individuals. Most relevant to social responsibility in the classroom are systems of rules and norms that define the student role. Indeed, students are required to adhere to rules and norms for interpersonal conduct as well as those that directly promote academic learning and performance. For instance, a variety of rules reflecting cooperation, respect for others, and positive forms of group participation govern social interaction in the classroom. In addition, students are expected to work hard, pay attention, participate in classroom activities, do their assignments, and study their lessons. Although not all of these activities are social in nature, they reflect rules of social conduct designed to guide the learning process.

The dictionary defines social responsibility as answerableness to the human group. It stems from what a person thinks and feels. Responsibility involves the willingness to accept the consequences of one's own behavior as well as dependability, trust worthiness, and a sense of obligation to the group and to one's own values (Harrison, 1952). Responsibility is more an attitude than a knowledge, skill, or aptitude (Dale, 1954). It is a constellation of attitudes toward work and one's personal relations in the family and community.

Social Responsibility and Student Achievement

Responsible behavior is the mainstay of democratic society. Social responsibility stems from what the person thinks and feels. A child who is socially responsible is responsible and accountable for his thoughts and actions. He is a willing worker and ready to carry his share of the load. As he matures he gradually assumes more and more responsibility until he is finally free from adult supervision. The more freedom an individual gains the more social responsibility he must be able to recognize and accept. The home which once could not function adequately without the labor of children, today, too often considers them a social,



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosval Bilimler E-Dergisi





economic, and emotional liability. Many children learn early that the responsibility given them in the home is pseudo, not related to a real need.

In the cooperation of organizing, manipulating, and completing such activities children can learn social responsibility. But the teacher must help distinguish between chores, which are things that need to be done, and responsibilities which represent sharing the reasons for doing the work and the rewards of a job well done (McCutcheon, 1960).

But a sense of responsibility comes not only through completing meaningful activities and projects but also from the feeling of belonging. The child responds to those with whom he feels an identity of values or needs. The child will grow in responsibility when he can sense the approval of those he likes and respects and when he feels that others really need him. The child learns responsibility only after he has learned to use it. Since habits of responsibility are usually new ventures to the elementary school child, the type of personal contact with the teacher will determine the amount of confidence he acquires within the school environment. The challenge for the teacher is to determine that children within that classroom situation have the environment and opportunity to secure such confidence and human rapport. Duty for the sake of duty will never establish a desirable kind of responsibility.' Understanding, patience, time and yes, even love must be evident on the part of the teacher if children are to grow and develop in responsibility (McAulay, 1966).

The teacher who helps children grow in social responsibility through the environment she organizes in the classroom as well as through her own behavior towards the child will thus develop a democratic atmosphere which recognizes different standards of workmanship for each child in the social studies. She will not view the delegation of responsibility as a time saver.

Social responsibility must be an essential aspect of the evaluative process of the social life. A list of suggestive situations which might identify pupil responsibility would be most helpful to the classroom teacher. A rating scale organized from tendencies associated with social responsibility might be appropriate for some social duty. Such a rating scale might include the



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

following tendencies; the child's tolerance, sociability, his academic drive and seriousness of purpose, his poise and personal security, his disapproval of privilege and favor, his concern for social and moral issues, his emphasis on duties and self-discipline, and his sense of trust and confidence in the world in general (Harris, 1955).

Component Elements of Social Responsibility

Recognition and acceptance of the consequences of each action and decision one undertakes caring attitude towards self and others.

Sense of control and competence.

Recognition and acceptance of individual and cultural diversity.

Recognition of basic human rights of self and others.

The ability to be open to new ideas, experiences, and people.

Understanding of the importance of volunteering in social and community activities.

Ability to engage in experimentation with various adult roles.

Development of leadership, communication, and social skills (Polk, 2001).

Social responsibility has implications for development well past the age of adolescence. For example, community service and childcare volunteers cited improved knowledge of themselves and others (Hamilton, 1988) and participation in volunteer organizations increased selective forms of political expression and voting rates years later (Fendrich, 1993; Hanks, 1981). Developing social responsibility is a complex process encompassing not only issues of control and agency for adolescence, but the need for recognition of the contributions they make. In addition, there is a need for adolescents' to practice various adult roles without having to suffer the full consequences of their decisions or having to make lifetime commitments (Holloway, 1982).

Social Responsibility as for Training Purposes

The promotion of socially responsible behavior in the form of moral character, conformity to social rules and norms, cooperation, and positive styles of social interaction has been a traditional and valued educational objective for schools. Indeed, an implicit goal of educational institutions has always been to socialize children into adult society by teaching



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi





work- and responsibility-oriented values such as dependability, punctuality, and obedience in conjunction with the learning process. More importantly, character development and social responsibility in general have been stated as explicit objectives for education in almost every being promoted with the same frequency as the development of academic skills. For instance, the earliest public ordinances concerning education were motivated by religious, social, and economic rather than intellectual concerns. Empirical work also suggests that the development of social responsibility is a valued educational objective (Krumboltz, 1987).

The suggestion that schools do play a role in the development of social responsibility is supported by literature indicating that teachers are sensitive to individual differences in classroom conduct, value socially competent behavior, and spend an enormous amount of time teaching their students how to behave and act responsibly. With respect to preferences for behavior, much research suggests that teachers discriminate between various types of student conduct and form opinions of children based on their classroom behavior. Specifically, teachers appear to make distinctions between types of student motivation. types of classroom disturbances, and various social orientations toward learning. Moreover, teachers consistently report preferences for students who are cooperative, conforming, cautious, and responsible rather than independent and assertive or argumentative and disruptive. Teachers tend to find negative aggressive behavior as most detrimental to classroom order.

When a student is disruptive in a classroom or school setting, he or she is showing a lack of concern or regard for others--other students' right to learn and the teacher's right to teach. The disrupting student is, in effect, demonstrating a lack of social responsibility. The approach is effective in promoting self-discipline and social responsibility, in part because punishment is not used. With punishment, ownership is relinquished; once the punishment has been served, the student is free and clear. With the approach described in this article, the responsibility stays with the student--which is where it belongs.

Principles to Practice: The strategy is based on six fundamental principles:

- 1. Positivity is a better teacher than negativity.
- 2. Choice empowers



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

- 3. Self-evaluation is essential for improvement.
- 4. Self-correction is the most successful approach to changing behavior.
- 5. Social responsibility must be taken, rather than given. Taking responsibility requires intrinsic motivation.
- 6. Authority can be used without punishment (Deming, 1986).

Deming understood that no one can legislate or dictate intrinsic motivation. His approach was to use self-evaluation for participant empowerment (1986). Referring to the Deming approach last May in their Bulletin article, Weller and Weller stated, "Unless these people have input, they will have no ownership in the proposed changes (p. 78). The Social Development Program described below sets the foundation for intrinsic motivation and participant ownership. The program uses the following instructional model:

- 1. Teaching the vocabulary/concepts
- 2. Checking for understanding.
- 3. Guided choices.

LeCompte (1978a, 1978b) reports similar findings from observations of elementary classrooms. For instance, these teachers expected children to conform to authority, follow schedules and not waste time, equate academic achievement with personal worth, keep busy, and maintain order. All of the teachers observed by LeCompte, regardless of instructional goals, teaching styles, and ethnicity, engaged in activities designed to communicate these expectations. Moreover, the majority of students understood that doing as they were told, keeping busy, and maintaining order were important rules to obey. An observational study of high school classrooms found similar rules to be in effect (Hargreaves, Hester, & Mellor, 1975). These authors also observed rules concerning obedience, manners, permission seeking, honesty, violence, and cooperation.

Finally, several studies have attempted to describe children's understanding of academic and social norms within classroom settings. Blumenfeld, Pintrich, and Hamilton (1986) report that elementary-aged students make fairly clear distinctions between ability, hard work, and conduct. Students equate ability most often with task performance and grades, effort with always working or finishing work, and conduct with being quiet and staying out of trouble. However, other research suggests that students often perceive expending effort as having



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

ability (Nicholls & Miller, 1984) as well as reflecting moral intent (Nicholls, 1976). In a recent study of junior high and high school students, being socially responsible was mentioned by 25% of the students as a means to achieve classroom success (Wentzel, 1987a). Thus, although students may have varying conceptions of what it means to have academic ability, they clearly associate socially responsible forms of behavior with competent performance at school (Wentzel, 1991).

Household and Social Responsibilities

In this regard, it is important to keep in mind that children also learn how to behave responsibly at home: Much of the literature cites tasks and jobs which facilitate the development of responsibility. While there is frequent mention of the age at which it is suitable to assign a task, there is very little mention of the age when training can be expected to be complete. Among the responsibilities earliest assigned are those dealing with personal independence. In the early years of childhood occur such tasks as feeding himself, tending to his own toilet needs, dressing, washing, brushing teeth, combing hair, learning and practicing safety rules, and, later, simple care of clothing. After six the child is considered increasingly competent to take complete responsibility of his own person, including bathing, changing underwear, selecting garments, giving care to garments, and remembering personal schedules. Learning responsible handling of money is assigned to these years, also.

Along with the development of responsibility in self-care come home tasks. Earliest in development is care of playthings, with simple household tasks such as straightening up his room/setting the table, and sharing in the care of pets coming soon thereafter. The school-age child, according to authorities, may be expected to make his own bed; clean his own room; wash dishes; attempt simple cooking; take over independent responsibility for care of chickens, eggs, and pets; and do simple errands. A conspicuous omission in the literature is reference to caring for younger brothers and sisters, and occasionally there is specific warning against expecting children to assume this responsibility. The school setting offers a great many tasks which presumably teach responsibility. In the voluminous literature on nursery and kindergarten education, mention is made of an array of tasks relating to the care of equipment and the schoolroom. School-age children are expected to learn responsibility by



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

taking over housekeeping tasks in the schoolroom and by increasingly assuming leadership positions in committee work and student government. The project method in education has made available a great number of activities which presumably instruct in responsible habits. In more recent years the literature has increasingly considered the possibility of learning responsibility in group planning and action (Anderson, 1963).

Responsible behavior at school also appears to be an important social competency that links the overall quality of family functioning to children's classroom achievement. For instance, parents' marital satisfaction and the use of child-centered and consistent childrearing practices are positively related to social responsibility in preadolescence. In addition, appropriate forms of parental control are related positively and parental hostility and maladaptive forms of parent-child interaction related negatively to classroom-specific measures of social responsibility (Wentzel, 1991). Of related concern is that nonintellectual factors as well as ability predict educational attainment and adult achievements (McClelland, 1973). In fact, in adulthood, practical intelligence appears to be more predictive of everyday competence than intelligence as assessed by traditional psychometric measures of aptitude or IQ (Willis & Schaie, 1986). Indeed, social skills that promote adaptation and integration into social settings are critical throughout the lifespan. The extent to which teachers' assessments of students reflect social competencies is unknown. However, educators may do well to acknowledge the development of social responsibility as an explicit goal for children and to include responsibility-related skills as formal targets for intervention and the development of competency standards (Zigler & Trickett, 1978).

A second way in which social responsibility can influence school performance is by way of motivational orientations to achieve academically. Based on the literature reviewed thus far, it would follow that students who try to achieve socially responsible outcomes at school would also display academic competencies. However, there also exists a substantial body of research on achievement motivation suggesting that attempts to achieve extrinsic and socially-defined outcomes can be detrimental to learning and academic performance. Thus, from a motivational perspective, social responsibility may detract from as well as enhance the learning process. One approach to explaining this contradictory evidence is to consider various ways in which



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

motivational components of social responsibility can be related to goals to achieve. These goal orientations have been consistently related to distinct types of learning behavior when initial attempts to learn result in failure. For instance, the pursuit of task-intrinsic goals is associated with high levels of effort, persistence at finding solutions to problems, and the development of new or alternative learning strategies. Conversely, extrinsic goal orientations have been associated with helplessness, withdrawal from tasks, and negative emotional states that appear to place children at risk for academic failure (Dweck, 1989).

One solution to this apparent contradiction is to consider various ways in which intrinsic (learning) and extrinsic (social responsibility) goals can be related to each other. For example, some students may coordinate these goals by pursuing them simultaneously, whereas others may organize them into hierarchically related networks of desired outcomes. Indeed, goals can be hierarchically as well as simultaneously pursued, with physiological, action-related, and concrete goals being subsumed under more complex, global, and abstract outcomes (Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985; Powers, 1978). These different methods of organizing goals have quite different implications for learning and subsequent performance.

The role of specifc emotional components or predictors of socially responsible behavior such as guilt, shame, or trust could be particularly important in this regard. For instance, recent work suggests that high achieving high school students anticipate feelings of guilt when they do not try to achieve at school, whereas low achievers typically report feelings of boredom rather than guilt (Wentzel, 1987b). In this case, social responsibility may promote achievement behavior by way of negative emotions such as guilt that might deter nonacademic, socially irresponsible behavior. Interpersonal trust also appears to be an important emotional factor related to socially responsible behavior (Ford et al., 1989; Dodge & Frame, 1982; Wentzel, in press-b). Although speculative, the ability to trust others may also contribute to a student's perceptions of personal control and willingness to cooperate with teachers and peers at school and, as such, contribute to positive academic outcomes.



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosval Bilimler E-Dergisi





CONCLUSIONS

To many people, discipline means punishment. But, actually, to discipline means to teach. Rather than punishment, discipline should be a positive way of helping and guiding children to achieve self-control. An effective discipline program of social responsibility has the student acknowledge inappropriate behavior, self-evaluate, take ownership, and develop a plan for improvement. The message is clearly communicated by the teacher's words and actions that the teacher is interested solely in the student's growth. The key to growth is what the student does. Irresponsible behavior in the classroom is a teaching opportunity. We no longer punish students when they do not perfect skills. Is not irresponsible behavior a demonstration that the student is lacking skills--the most important one of which is needed for success in relationships and on the job? People skills are essential for retaining employment. It is time to teach our students in a way that fosters social responsibility.

The suggestion that social responsibility is directly related to learning and instruction also has implications for classroom practice. For instance, social responsibility in the form of compliance is often viewed as a rather undesirable characteristic in that it can undermine feelings of selfdetermination, creativity, and independent thinking. Moreover, negative sanctions for noncompliance in the classroom can often lead to conforming, obedient, and submissive behavior on the one hand or to even more deviant and defiant behavior on the other. However, in the eyes of the beholder, adherence to rules and norms connotes trustworthiness, loyalty, and respect, characteristics that are not only valued but necessary for maintaining stable and harmonious social groups. Thus, it seems important that students develop a respect for and actually comply to social rules and expectations for behavior.

At a more general level, evidence of positive links between social responsibility and achievement suggests that researchers may do well to acknowledge the positive influence that extrinsic rewards can sometimes have on learning and performance. Given that maladaptive learning behavior is often associated with task-extrinsic and performance goals, it has often been suggested that educators should actively promote the development of learning and intrinsic goal orientations and discourage goals or reward structures that focus on outcomes extrinsic to task mastery. However, the tradition of comparing and contrasting the differential effects of learning and



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

performance goals on achievement behavior has led us to ignore the fact that in most cases, students must pursue both learning and performance goals if they are to succeed at school. In fact, extrinsic rewards may be necessary at times to initiate and maintain more intrinsic mastery-oriented goals (Connell & Ryan, 1987; Lepper & Hodell, 1989).

As a result;

a) Writers on the practical aspects of child training agree that training for responsibility is important. Adult responsibility is considered to be an outgrowth of childhood learning. b) Tasks, properly scaled to the child's abilities, motivated, and supervised are considered important training devices. c) There is no scarcity of rules or principles concerning how the training should be carried out. d) The research literature on this aspect of child personality is meager, contrasted with the wealth of the "literature of opinion." e) The research literature suggests that responsibility can be evaluated as an aspect of personality, that certain expressions of responsibility tend to be "reliable" (stable in time), to be inter-correlated modestly (at least enough to suggest some unifying aspects), and to be positively correlated with such aspects of adjustment as good family relations, good school marks, and leadership. f) The efl&cacy of training procedures for responsibility, the nature of its development, and indeed the multivariate nature of responsibility have been but little explored, considering the significance granted it in the literature. Helping children to achieve a balance between these multiple goals is an important and challenging task for parents and teachers alike.

REFERENCES

Anderson, H. H. (1936). "Growing in Responsibility", Childhood Education, XIII. 5-7.

Avery, P. (1988). "Adolescents, civic tolerance, and human rights". Social Education, 534-537.

Berman, S. (1997). Social Consciousness and the Development of Social Responsibility. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Blatz, W. E. (1944). Understanding the Young Child. New York: Wm. Morrow & Co.,

Blumenfeld, P. C, Pintrich, P. R., & Hamilton, V. L. (1986). "Children's concepts of ability, effort, and conduct". American Educational Research Journal, 23, 95-104.

Caspi, A., Elder, G. H., & Bern, D.J. (1987). "Moving against the world: Life-course patterns of explosive children". Developmental Psychology, 23, 308-313.



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

- Connell, J. P., & Ryan, R. M. (1987). "A developmental theory of motivation in the classroom". Teacher Education Quarterly, 11, (A-II.)
- Dale B. (1954). "The Measurement of Responsibility in Children." Child Development's (1), p. 2.1.
- Deming, W. E. (1986). Out of the Crisis. Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology
- Dreeben, R. (1968). On what is learned in school. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley.
- Dweck, C. S. (1989). "Motivation". In A. Lesgold & R. Glaser (Eds.), Foundations for a psychology of education (pp. 87-136). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Fendrich, J. M. (1993). Ideal Citizens: The Legacy of the Civil Rights Movement. New York: State University of New York Press.
- Ford, M. E., Wentzel, K. R., Wood, D. N., Stevens, E., & Siesfeld, G. A. (1989). "Processes associated with integrative social competence: Emotional and contextual influences on adolescent social responsibility". Journal of Adolescent Research, 4, 405-425.
- Greenberger, E. (1984). "Defining psychosocial maturity in adolescence". Advances in Child Behavioral Analysis and Therapy, 3, 1-37.
- Hamilton, S. F., & Fenzel, L. M. (1988). "The impact of volunteer experience on adolescent social development: Evidence of program effects". Journal of Adolescent Res. 3(1), 65-80.
- Hanks, M. (1981). "Youth, voluntary associations and political socialization". Social Forces, 60(1), 211-223.
- Hargreaves, D. H., Hester, S. K., & Mellor, F. J. (1975). Deviance in classrooms. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Harris D. B. (1955). "Personality Differences between responsible and less responsible children," Journal of Genetic Psychology, 87, p. 76.
- Harrison, G. (1952). "A Personality Scale for Social Responsibility," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 47, , p. 73.
- Hartup, W. W. (1983). Peer relations. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 4 (pp. 104-196). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Heckhausen, H., & Kuhl, J. (1985). "From wishes to action: The dead ends and short cuts on the long way to action. In M. Frese & J. Sabini (Eds.), Goal directed behavior: The concept of action in psychology (pp. 134-159). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

- Holloway, W. B. (1982)." Developing competence". Society, 19(6), 40-47.
- Jackson, P. W. (1968). Life in classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Krumboltz, J., Ford, M., Nichols, C, & Wentzel, K. (1987). The goals of education. In R. C. Calfee (Ed.), The study of Stanford and the schools: Views from the inside: Part II. Stanford, CA: School of Education.
- Lambert, N. M., & Nicoll, R. C. (1977). "Conceptual model for nonintellectual behavior and its relationship to early reading achievement". Journal of Educational Psychology, 69, 481-490.
- LeCompte, M. (1978a). "Establishing a workplace: Teacher control in the classroom". Education and Urban Society, 11, 87-106.
- LeCompte, M. (1978b). "Learning to work: The hidden curriculum of the classroom". Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 9, 22-37.
- Lepper, M. R., & Hodell, M. (1989). "Intrinsic motivation in the classroom". In C. Ames & R. Ames (Eds.), Research on motivation in education: Vol 3 (pp. 73-106). New York: Academic Press.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. A. (1983). "Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction" n. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 4 (pp. 1-101). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- McClelland, D. C. (1973). Testing for competence rather than for "intelligence." American Psychologist, 28, 1-14.
- McCutcheon, C. C. (1960). "Responsibilities, More than Chores," Childhood Education, 36, p. 308.
- Mischel, W. (1961). "Delay of gratification, need for achievement, and acquiescence in another culture". Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 62, 543-552.
- Nichous, J. G. (1976). "Effort is virtuous, but it's better to have ability: Evaluative responses to perceptions of effort and ability". Journal of Research in Personality, 10, 306-315.
- Nichous, J. G., & Miller, A. T. (1984). "Development and its discontents: The differentiation of the concept of ability". In M. L. Maehr (Ed.), Advances in motivation and achievement (pp. 185-218). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Overstreet, B. W. (1947). "Better Lives for All Our Children," National Parent-Teacher, XLII 14-16.



Uluslararası Hakemli Sosyal Bilimler E-Dergisi



ISSN:1694-528X İktisat ve Girişimcilik Üniversitesi, Türk Dünyası Kırgız – Türk Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Celalabat – KIRGIZİSTAN http://www.akademikbakis.org

- Parker, J. G., & Asher, S. R. (1987). "Peer relations and later personal adjustment: Are low-accepted children at risk?" Psychological Bulletin, 102, 357-389.
- Polk, K.R. (2000). "Social Responsibility. Developing competence." Society.24(3), 40-43.
- Powers, W. T. (1978). "Qualitative analysis of purposive systems: Some spadework at the foundations of scientific psychology". Psychological Review, 85, 417-435.
- Wentzel, K. R. (1987). "Social, emotional, and cognitive factors associated with classroom-related goals and academic competence in adolescence: A developmental systems approach to the study of motivation". Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, CA.
- Wentzel, K. R. (2001). "Relations between social competence and academic achievement in early adolescence". Child Development.
- Wentzel, K. R., Weinberger, D. A., Ford, M. E., & Feldman, S. S. (1990). "Academic achievement in preadolescence: The role of motivational, affective, and self-regulatory processes". Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 11, 179-193.
- Willis, S. L., & Schaie, K. W. (1986). "Practical Intelligence in later adulthood". In R. J. Sternberg & R. K. Wagner (Eds.), Practical intelligence: Nature and origins of competence in the everyday world (pp. 236-268). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Woodcock, L. P. (1948). "Standards for the Nursery Age." Child Study, XXV, 99-100.
- Youniss, J. & Yates, M. (1997). Community Service and Social Responsibility. University of Chicago Press: Chicago.
- Youniss, J., McLellan, J. A., & Yates, M. (1997). "What we know about engendering civic identity". American Behavioral Scientist, 40(5), 620-631.
- Zigler, E., & Trickett, P. K. (1978). "IQ, social competence, and evaluation of early childhood intervention programs". American Psychologist, 33, 789-798.