CHAPTER II :

RELATED STUDIES

- Introduction
- Studies Related to Students
- Studies Related to Family Background
- Studies Related to Schools
- The Present Study and Its Relevance
- Scope of the Study

2.000 Introduction: The studies on school systems gathered momentum after nationwide survey, carried out by Coleman (1966) on equality of educational opportunity in the U.S.A. The findings of this study were widely discussed and influenced to a great extent, the subsequent studies in this field. Jencks (1972) also conducted some studies on inequalities, based on economic factors. Guthrie et al (1971) carried on detailed study on the effects of educational inequality on the child. This field of study has comparatively remained an unexplored area in India. Whatever studies are available, they are basically related to the equality of educational opportunity for religious and geographical minorities.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to review the available related literature. The studies are divided under three headings: (1) Studies related to students, (2) Studies related to family background, and (3) Studies related to schools. How, different factors individually or collectively influence the achievement of the students is the major focus of this review.

2.100 STUDIES RELATED TO STUDENTS:

One important question that has beset all the educationists from time immemorial is whether the learner has the adequate capacity to assimilate and absorb what is being taught to him. Because, intelligence and capacity vary from individual to individual; some are fast learners, while, some are slow. The prepequisite of any teaching process is, therefore, to identify and explore the capability of the individual student and impart education in such a way as to make it possible for him to benefit fully from it.

The general thinking prevailing in the society is that the merit is related to particular caste, creed, class or sex. The groups thought to be inferior in intelligence, to name a few, are women, blacks, and schedule castes. An attempt is made here to review the studies regarding the distributed according controversial issue of intelligence being to the groups.

2.110 Intelligence And Ethnic Groups:

Studies examining differences in I.Q. scores between majority and minority groups reveal consistent differences - a finding that has aroused a lot of controversy.

On an average, Blacks obtained about one standard deviation or 15 I.Q. points below the average score of the White population. (Coleman et al,1966; Shuey, 1966; Tulkin and Newbrough, 1968; Jensen, 1970; Gerard, 1975). The most persistent question raised revolves around the relative contribution of genetic and environmental factors to the obtained differences. Are the differences due to innate genetic structures (implying the unmodifiable nature of intelligence), or, do they stem from differences in the cultural environments of various groups?

There are some researchers who argue: that I.Q. tests are biased to favour one particular group (Eells, 1951; Hunt, 1968a). Using Raven Progressive Matrices (supposed to be less 'culturally loaded') I.Q. differences were found to be smaller (but significant) than typical WISC comparison between Blacks and Whites, (Higgins and Sivers, 1958); or, differences were not significant (Semler and Iscoe, 1966); or, differences were at lower class level and not at upper class level (Tulkin and Newbrough, 1968). To add to the confusion, Jensen (1969) took the opposite stand and argued that Blacks obtained relatively lower scores on culture-free tests than on more 'conventional' tests, such as the WISC.

Jensen (1969) rejected the notion of environmental and culturally biased tests and suggested that the proportion of variance in I.Q. measures due to genetic factors was .80, while, the remaining .20 was due to nongenetic or environmental factors. Jencks (1972) using the same data but employing slightly different procedures and assumptions estimated that genetic factor controls .45 of I.Q. variance. Kamin (1974) and Hirsch (1970) pointed out various methodological limitations. The evidences in this regard are very fuzzy and will remain fuzzy (Gerard, 1975). The genetic structure underlying intelligence is, however, undoubtedly quite complex, involving many genes and their interactions, which manifest as different intelligence phenotypas (Bodmer, 1972). Research findings show that it is extremely unlikely that the huge achievement gap that exists between minority and majority groups is primarily due to differences in native ability (Clerk, 1923; Sherman and Key, 1932; Klineberg, 1935; 1963; Lee, 1951; Anastasi and D'Angelo, 1952; Pasamanick, 1955; Gerard, 1975). The issue still remains unresolved, but more researches support the view that environmental factors play dominant role in determining the group differences.

2.120 Intelligence and Socio-Economic Status:

Evidences support that some environmental factors do affect I.Q. scores and that socio-economic status is a prime factor. It implies the richness of the environment in which a child is reared.

Sexton (1964) compared I.Q. scores with family income and found a consistent increase in I.Q. with increase in income. Sperrazo and Wilkins (1958, 1959), found that the I.Q. scores of Whites increased directly with level of SES, while those of Blacks were the same at all levels of SES.

Lesser, Fifer and Clark (1965), and Stodolsky and Lesser (1967) pointed out that different ethnic groups have different patterns of abilities, and further, that these patterns of abilities were stable within each ethnic group and did not change across SES within the group. Therefore, it is not sufficient merely to equate ethnic groups on social class variables and expect differences in intellectual performance to disappear.

Jensen (1969) found that children moving from extremely deprived environment to good environmental circumstances could boost the I.Q. some 20 to 30 points. The same I.Q. boost were not found in children reared in rather average

circumstances and moving to better circumstances. In other words, the influence of the environment in intellectual development is not a linear function. Below a certain threshold of environmental adequacy, deprivation can have a markedly depressing effect on intelligence. But above this threshold, environmental variables cause relatively small differences.

2.130 Intelligence And Scholastic Achievement:

Intelligence has been fairly accepted as a mediating variable that predicts an individual's academic performance and achievement. Generally, the correlation between intelligence and academic achievement ranges from .50 to .70 (Day, 1968; McCandless 1970; Duncan, Featherman and Duncan, 1972). There were usually few differences between the correlations obtained for males and females, and prediction could become more precise if motivation was also measured in males (Khan, 1969), or in both males and females (Holtzman and Brown, 1968).

The person having better inborn capacities can overcome the adverse effect of comparatively poorer home environment. Curry (1962) studied the students of comparable intellectual ability but differing in socio-economic status. He found that (i) in high intelligence group, there was no significant

difference in achievement between three SES levels; (ii) in the medium intelligence group, the subjects of high SES were significantly better in language and total achievement but not in arithmetic and reading, and (iii) in the low intelligence group, achievement varied significantly according to SES. In other words, the child of above average intellectual ability can overcome the effects of deprived home environment. And as the intellectual ability decreases, the effect of home begins to have a more serious effect on scholastic achievement.

In sum, nothing can be said definitely about a particular race or group's having less inborn capacities till the inborn capacities can be measured directly. The disadvantageous environment at home has been found as very decisive in deciding the level of intelligence. Intelligence is positively related with achievement. Highly intelligent students can overcome the adverse effect of poor home environment.

2.200 STUDIES RELATED TO FAMILY BACKGROUND:

The educational opportunities were offered according to the socio-economic status of an individual in the past.

The family background had to determine to a large extent the the type of school that a student should attend. With ushering in

of liberal thinking and democratic values of life, new attempts are being made to offset this preponderance influence of family background on the growth of a child. Still, the family is the nursing ground for a child during his impressionable age and its influence on his mental growth has therefore to be reckoned with while making a study on the achievement of the students.

Studies related to family background are divided under two subheads:

- (1) Socio-economic status and type of education, and
- (2) Socio-economic status and achievement.

2.210 Socio-economic Status and Type of Education:

The history of educational reform can be viewed as a struggle to determine who will have access to schooling.

Among the first modern sociologists to examine these relationships systematically was Waller (1932). He believed that differences in position in the community determine important differences in the school. The child's status as the son of a particular family affects his status in the school and his attitude towards school. Children of poor and humble parents are those whom the teachers do not favour.

The quality of school services provided to a pupil is related to his socio-economic status and that relationship is such that lower quality school services are associated with a pupil's being from a lower socio-economic status (Guthrie et al, 1971; Singh, 1972; Education Commission, 1964-65; Carl, 1973).

In sum, wealthy people can by and large get the kind of education for their children that they want.

2.211 Educational Level of Parents' And Child's Education:

In 1968 an extensive talent search programme under the directorship of van Heek was carried out in Netherland to study the relationship between parents' social background, attitude and their children's school career. The findings were, (i) differences in participation in academic school within one and the same occupational group could be explained by differences in parental education, and (ii) if the educational level of the father was kept constant, "whilte collar" "manual" workers send their children in equal proportions to schools.

In other words, if parents are educated they send their children to better schools irrespective of whatever occupation

they have.

2.212 Parents React:

Singh (1972) interviewed some parents of private school going children and asked for the reasons for sending their children to private schools. Reactions of the parents were as follows:

- (i) They send their children to private schools because they did not find any other school providing equally good education and partly because of the pride they felt in getting their sons educated in private schools.
- (ii) They like private schools because they have many good features. The teachers appear to be more motivated and energetic than other school teachers. These schools have better discipline. Generally, those who send their children to private schools believe that these schools are better than other schools.
- 2.213 <u>Family Background and School Services</u>: Studies under this subhead are related to inequalities among different districts, schools and students.
- A. <u>Interdistrict Inequalities</u>: Benson (1965) studied 392 districts in California on the basis of data on

a few school services. He concluded that the districts wherein a large proportion of children entered schools with environmental advantages were the districts best provided with school resources and the districts in which a relatively large proportion of children entered schools under environmental handicaps were least provided with the means through which these handicaps could be overcome.

In another study in California, Charles Hansen (1969) examined the quality of school services in suburban and urban school districts throughout the San Francisco Bay area. He found that on almost every dimension, high SES districts provided higher quality services to students. Moreover, within districts, he found discrimination against low SES students, especially in terms of well educated and well-experienced teachers.

Alan (1968) concluded: The most favourable opportunities (in terms of school services) were available to students who lived in districts of (a) high per-pupil state equalised valuation, (b) high expenditures per pupil for education, (c) large size as measured by enrollment, (d) high social class in terms of levels of income, quality of residence, and a preponderance of higher status occupations.

Guthrie et al (1971) found interdistrict inequalities at five levels. The findings were :

- (i) High SES districts spend higher on research, testing and evaluation and they had access to electronic computers.
- (ii) High SES districts had more instructional aids like projectors, science laboratories etc. whereas, low SES districts were less likely to have adequate supplies of supplementary materials.
- (iii) In high SES districts, a higher percentage of students were enrolled in foreign language courses than in low SES districts. Low SES districts provided fewer instructional innovations than those that were high on the socio-economic scale.
 - (iv) Teachers in high SES districts had more exposure to current ideas and knowledge than the teachers in low SES districts.
 - (v) Children in low SES districts came in contact with a great many more low SES children than was the case for children in high SES districts.

In sum, schools in high SES districts provide better facilities compared to those schools which are in lower SES districts.

B. Interschool Inequalities: The most ambitious research effort that bears on inequalities among schools is the Coleman Report. Coleman et al (1966) described a number of school services that were inequalably distributed among White and Negro children. This information, combined with the evidence of racial separation by schools, supports the contention that the quality of educational services is distributed inequalably among schools.

Guthrieeetaal (1971) found interschool disparities at five levels:

- (i) Low SES schools, compared to high SES schools were housed in older building, were situated on small building sites, and they were more crowded because they had larger number of students. They were poorly equipped. Moreover, the lowest SES schools were able to provide 1.7 library books per child, while the highest SES schools provided 5.4 library books per child.
- (ii) Low SES schools were less able to provide services for the physical health of children, and they were not able to provide the services of a school psychologist.
- (iii) Low SES schools were less able to provide for the remedial needs of children, and services for the positive development of students' talents.

(iv) The most significant difference in the personnel was, that the teachers in low SES schools had lower scores on a measure of verbal ability. And they were more likely to choose another school if given the chance.

Teachers in poor schools had low estimates of the academic abilities of their students and they frequently described their students as not being interested in learning.

(v) There was too much of student and teacher turnover, and student absenteeism in low SES schools. Teachers complained about spending too much time on discipline. Also, teachers in low SES schools believed that they received inadequate support from the parents of their students.

In sum, the schools, where majority of the students are from low SES, provided poorer facilities compared to those schools which are mostly attended by high SES students.

C. <u>Interstudent Inequalities</u>: Lynd and Lynd (1937) conducted research on interstudent inequity in which they chose to examine social stratification. They described that the local school officials gave advantaged treatment to the sons and daughters of middle class and wealthy citizens.

Thornblad (1966), and Katzman (1968) examined the school

inequities and concluded that the services such as staff persons per child, per cent of tenured teachers, and amount of teacher turnover were distributed in such a fashion that they favoured children of higher socio-economic status.

Hobson in 1967 (as reported by Guthrie et al, 1971) argued that the tracking system discriminated against Negro and poor children by placing them in the lowest academic tracks. Thus, he said, they were deprived of access to higher quality services within the schools they attended.

Guthrie et al (1971) found that

- (i) Low SES children had less access to health services and had greater access to special classes for academically handicapped children. The teachers of low SES students believed that the schools placed too much emphasis on athletics.
- (ii) Low SES children had teachers who believed that the school's reputation was poor and that there was racial conflict among students and they were dissatisfied with their jobs.

The studies on interstudent inequality show that the teachers discriminate between the high SES students and low SES students.

The findings about the socio-economic status and type of education show that low SES districts, schools, and students are at a disadvantage in regards to administration of school services, equipment and facilities, curricular and instructional arrangement, staff characteristics and student environment.

2.220 Socio-Economic Status and Achievement:

Socio-economic status has an important influence on child's performance. There are quite a few studies which consider a socio-economic status as crucial factor responsible for the child's progress in school. In the following paragraphs same studies are given showing the relationship between the socio-economic status and academic achievement.

The Plowden Report (1967), a study of government schools in England found family and home environment as the most significant factors affecting school achievement.

George and Spindler (1971) emphasizing the role of family background said that the failure of children in class was mostly the result of forces outside the school and outside the control of education. Either the family was at the root of failure or something within the child himself.

Coleman et al (1966) and Scarr-Salapatek (1971) found that on the scholastic achievement test Blacks scored one standard deviation below those of the Whites.

Harry (1967) concluded that schools were remarkably similar in the effect that they had on achievement of their pupils when the socio-economic background of the students was taken into account.

In a study of language and cognitive development, Deutsch (1967) set out the relative effects of socio-economic status and race for children at first and fifth grades of school. At first grade, social class appeared to be correlated more often than race. At fifth grade, the deficiencies associated with socio-economic status had been joined by those of race. Deutsch implied that the additional handicap associated with race was the result of Negro children's growing increasingly aware of their subordinate status as they grew older and avoided contact with teachers because of different styles of communication.

Wilson (1967) found that the racial composition of the school, however, had no effect on achievement scores over and above the effect of the social class of the school.

Dave (1963) conducted a study to identify and measure the environmental process variables that were related to educational achievement. He concluded that the home has the greatest influence on the language development of the child and the least influence on skills taught primarily in the school.

Socio-economic status of the students influence their achievement (Mathur, 1964; and Chopra, 1964), intelligence and conduct (Mathur, 1964) and aspiration (Shah et al. 1971).

Raina (1964) found the mean socio-economic score of the parents of high achievers to be 15.95 as against 12.86 of the parents of low achievers. Sharma (1972) found that among those at an equal level of socio-economic status, the children of lawyers, doctors and engineers were higher in achievement.

Lohithakshan (1961) conducted an analytical and experimental study of backwardness at the primary school age.

The findings were:

- (i) Poor economic home conditions as well as irregular attendance were related to educational backwardness.
- (ii) The pupils of backward group were significantly lower in intelligence.

- (iii) The backward children were inferior with regard to the following traits: confidence, persistence, assertive attitude, observation, capability, concentration, favourable attitude towards schoolwork, sociability, sensitivity to praise and blame, and regard for self.
 - (iv) The backward pupils tended to be less enterprising in school work, less envious and less cheerful.
 - (v) They seemed to be less adjustable; the boys were less social and the girls less adjustable.
- (vi) The backward children preferred normal children as their friends.

In short, the family background has a great impact on child's language development, achievement scores and many other abilities.

2.300 Studies Related to Schools:

What it is that schools do and what it is that affects what schools do? Nowhere it is defined with precision, but schools are expected to transform pupils on a large number of dimensions. A wide variety of attitudes, skills, and knowlege are supposed to be given to each pupil by the educational system. It is not yet understood well as to what mechanism

inside the human body enables one to "learn" these things. Whatever the process or processes are, they are quite complex. It still seems reasonable to expect the schools to have an effect. And in order to enable the students to develop desirable attitudes, skills, and to gain knowledge, schools provide certain facilities or inputs. These are of various kinds, right from the blackboard to the personnel. One of the widely measured outcomes of these inputs is academic achievement (output).

The relevant studies on inputs and their effect on output are reviewed under two subheads:

- (1) Inequality in school services, and
- (2) School services and achievement.

2.310 Inequality In School Services:

Talking of the quality of schools Harry (1967) said that among the facilities that show some relationship to achievement are several for which minority pupil's schools were found to be less equipped relative to Whites.

Sharma (1975) found that schools attended by Muslim children were overcrowded, housed in dirty and ill-equipped buildings and lacked proper ventilation.

Coleman et al (1966) found that Whites as well as Negroes had about the same number of pupils per classroom. Whereas, Sharma (1975), Cligent (1974), and Harry (1967) found that compared to majority, minority children attended the schools, where classes were overcrowded.

Sharma (1975) investigated that the factors which discouraged Muslims from the use of available educational opportunities were scarcity of urdu medium books and provision of urdu medium schools. Coleman et al (1966) found that only 84 per cent of the Black pupils attended schools which had enough texts, compared to 94 per cent of White pupils.

Sharma (1975) found that schools attended by Muslims had less library facilities. Coleman et al (1966) found that the centralised school libraries were available to Whites as well as Negroes. But the Negro schools had 3.0 books per student, whereas, White schools had 5.0 books per student. But as far as librarian is concerned, more Negro school students than White students were in schools with a full time librarian.

Harry (1967) found that Black students tended to have limited access to dramatic club, debate teams, school newspapers,

science and language laboratories, and accelerated curriculum programmes.

Coleman et al (1966) investigated that the average Negro pupil was likely to be taught by teachers who scored less in verbal ability test, were less likely to be trained in teachers colleges, and were less often members of academic honorary societies. More White pupils attended schools in which there were full time Art and Music teachers than the Negro pupils. Cligent (1974) concluded that White students attended the schools where teacher-pupil ratio was less compared to Negro students' schools. Sharma (1975) found that schools attended by Muslim children were understaffed.

In India, inter-state expenditures on primary education showed large differences. Some states spent more on school services compared to others. According to Naik (1965) per pupil direct expenditure on elementary schools was less in the State of Bihar (8.20.10) and West Bengal (8.25.50), in comparison to Punjab (8.40.40), Madhya Pradesh (8.40.50), and Kerala (8.56.30). The findings show that there are considerable inequalities in per pupil expenditure on education in different states.

In sum, it can be said that the services of the schools attended by disadvantaged groups are of lower quality.

2.320 School Services and Achievement:

The school services act as a catalyst to the mental development of a student. They create necessary avenues in which the student can pursue his learning with greater effectiveness. Though their influence on the achievement of a student may not be as important as that of family background, yet their absence may have detrimental effect on the learning of a student.

Harry (1967) conducted a survey on segregation and the public schools. He found that with some exceptions the average minority pupil scored distinctly lower on the achievement tests at every level than the average white pupil. And there were many factors that in combination accounted for the difference in achievement. These were libraries, teachers and laboratories. The average white student's achievement was less affected by the strength or weakness of his school's facilities than was the average minority pupil's. Coleman et al (1966) found somewhat similar results. The Negroes' averages tended to be about one standard deviation below those of whites.

And there was indirect evidence that school factors were more important in affecting achievement of minority group students.

One of the forerruners in educational input-output analysis is a study done in 1956 for the Educational Testing Service by Mollenkopf and Donald. The authors assessed the school's contribution to student performance while attempting to control for out-of-school influences. They reported four school service measures to be significantly related to pupil achievement. These were, (i) number of special staff (psychologists, reading specialists, councellors) in the school, (ii) class size, (iii) pupil-teacher ratio, and (iv) instructional expenditures per student. Goodman (1959) reported, per pupil instructional expenditures and number of special staff per 1000 students to be significantly correlated with the achievement test scores of seventh grade students. In addition, two other characteristics were found to be significantly linked to pupil performance; these were teachers'. experience and classroom atmosphere.

Alan (1962) conducted an inquiry about school effectiveness. Three measures of school service were found to be significantly related with students' test scores. These

measures were -

(i) beginning teachers' salaries, (ii) teacher's experience, and (iii) number of volumes in the school library.

One of Kiesling's (1967) major findings was that expenditures per pupil were positively related to student achievement.

coleman et al (1966) found the relationship of achievement to various school inputs. They were: (1) attributes of other students accounted for far more variation in the achievement of minority group children than do any attributes of school facilities and slightly more than do attributes of staff, (2) comprehensiveness of the curriculum showed small and inconsistent relations to achievement, (3) the number of volumes per student in the school library showed small and inconsistent relations to achievement (4) the number of science laboratories and the number of extra-curricular activities had a consistent relation of moderate size to achievement, (5) teacher differences showed a cumulative effect over the years in school, (6) teacher differences showed more relation to difference in achievement of educationally disadvantaged than to achievement of the advantaged. Lastly,

student's achievement test results tended to increase in direct relation to the verbal ability level of his teacher. When the measure of verbal ability was taken to represent the general intelligence level of the teacher, the finding could be construed to mean that an intellectually facile instructor was more adept at tasks such as finding means to motivate students, adapting materials to their ability levels, and communicating in ways that make the subject matter more understandable.

Cohn (1968) reported that amount of teacher salary and number of instructional assignments per teacher were associated with increments of pupil achievement. Raymond (1968) regressed school service components on the two output measures and found teachers' salaries to explain a significant portion of the variance in students' performance.

The study done by Katzman (1968) examined the relation-ship between school services and student achievement. The ratio of students to staff members was found to have consistent and significant correlation with school attendance and school persistence output measures. The percentage of permanently employed teachers was found to have minor, but nevertheless positive effects on all output measures.

The greater the percentage of permanently employed, or tenured teachers, the better the performance of pupils. Percent of teachers who have possessed a master's degree was found to have generally positive effects.

Bowles (1968) found that the relative presence of science laboratory facilities, average amount of time a teacher spends in guidance activities, and number of days the school stays in session during a school year are significantly associated with students' scores on tests of verbal ability. The interpretation can be a school lacking science laboratories is also likely to be in a poor position with regard to other facilities used for instruction.

Hanushek's (1968) study found a significant relation—ship to achievement and teachers' verbal ability and years of teaching experience. Also Ribich (1968) found that pupils' performance on standardised achievement tests was directly related to expenditures per pupil.

Guthrie et al (1971) examined twelve school service components against the output measures. The measures of pupil performance were threefold: (i) a test of reading ability, (ii) a test of mathematics understanding, and (iii) a test of verbal facility. All the school service components

were significantly related with output measures. The findings were : (i) The physical facilities like school site, size, age of school building, number of class-rooms per 1000 students and percent of makeshift class-rooms were found to be significantly associated with achievement. The writers argued that the physical facilities may not affect the achievement directly but if taken as proxies, they may influence learning in two ways: (i) they may influence child's attitude and motivation and (ii) a limited physical environment may restrict the range and intensity of curriculum offerings. They concluded that inadequate physical facilities were linked to lower levels of academic achievement. 2. The number of library volumes per 1000 students was significantly correlated with achievement. (iii) Teacher attributes like verbal ability was highly correlated with achievement tests while, year of teaching experience was the weakest measure. The degree with which the teacher was satisfied was found λ correlated with the achievement tests. If the teachers' perception of colleague was not comparable, the achievement declined. (iv) Greater the amount of student turnover in a school, the lower the students' scores on achievement (v) Enrolment size was found to be negatively related. That is, the larger the number of students attending a school, the lower the level of achievement.

Kumar (1972) investigated the social climate in school and characteristics of pupils. The aim of the study was to examine the effect of six types of social climate in schools on student behaviour in terms of personal social adjustment, value orientation and attitude toward certain educational objects and scholastic achievement. The findings suggest that different social climates have differential effects on certain aspects of student behaviour. Among the climates, the schools with open climate, tended to show better personal adjustment of pupils than the other groups of climate. Next to open climate was the closed climate group of schools on this criterian, the autonomous, the controlled, and the paternal occupy the mid position in this respect, and the familiar being the last among the climates. The findings demonstrated empirically what so far has been assumed on a prior basis regarding the effectiveness of the open climate for the proper development of personality and adjustment of pupils.

Feldvebel (1964) used Stanford Achievement Scale,
Andrews (1965) and Hale (1966) used California achievement
scale and reported that there was no significant relationship
between student achievement and school's global climate.

Pumphrey (1969) used Lonze-Thorndike test Iowa, Guy (1970)

used achievement test in reading, language and arithmetic, and found that there was no significant association between climate and academic achievement of students. Whereas, Rice (1958) reported slight correlation between open climate and high achievement and no relation between closed climate and low achievement.

Robinson (1970) reported that organizational climate was a structural variable which directly affected the daily work of teachers and to a lesser degree the performance of the pupils.

Sharma (1971) found a significant correlation between high achievement and openness of climate.

Feldvebel (1964), further analyzing the dimension of climate found that there was a significant relationship between student achievement and consideration, but negative relationship between production emphasis and student achievement.

Equality of educational opportunity survey (1966), in America as well as the Plowden Survey (1967) in England indicated that while certain facilities and policies sometimes have a slight relationship to cognitive achievement,

the general effect of variations in finding, facilities, teachers, or other students upon a student's cognitive skills is either slight or unpredictable. Jencks (1972) says, that all children learn more by going to school, especially elementary school than they would without schools. It is only when one moves from the obsolute effects of schooling to the comparison of schools with each other that differences in achievement become slight. Jencks suggests that racial desegregation, accompanied by socio-economic desegregation eliminates roughly 20 per cent of the difference between the scores of Blacks and Whites on achievement tests, whether desegregation results in achievement gains for Black children may depend on the social and economic characteristics of the children, and their classmates, as well as the grade level and the type of school. St. John (1971) argued that academic performance of minority group children will be higher in integrated schools provided they are supported by staff and accepted by peers.

The studies reviewed here bring forth the inherent complexities of the problem of implementing the noble concept of equality of educational opportunity. Simply stated, equality of educational opportunity means that 'all should

get equal opportunities'. But, there are many hindrances that come in the way of removing the age old inconsistencies prevailing in the society. Three main sources of differences are there. Firstly, all are not equipped equally in various abilities. If people differ in their basic abilities, how can they be given the equal treatment? Perhaps, due to this problem, the proponents of equality specify that 'equal opportunity should be given according to equal potentiality'. To add to the problem, there is a strong feeling in the society that some groups are less endowed in capacities required for higher mental work, so, they should not be given equal opportunities though, it is not proved empirically that some groups are less capable compared to others.

Secondly, differences in family background, due to social structure are also major source of inequalities. Students of better socio-economic status not only get better education, but attitude of the teachers is also favorable towards these students. According to Guthrie et al, the disparity can be at three levels, interdistrict, interschool, and interstudent, and the students of the disadvantaged groups are discriminated against at all these levels.

Thirdly, there are differences in the schools. All the schools are not equally good. The variation in the school services determine whether the schools are good or bad. The schools having better school facilities have better student achievement also, compared to the schools which have inferior facilities. Thus, inferior schools are also one of the causes of inequality.

It is revealed in various studies that students of minority groups not only have disadvantageous family background, but they also attend the schools, which provide poor facilities. The achievement level of these students is one standard deviation below that of the others.

The major difficulty faced by the proponents of 'equality' is that they can not do anything to change either the innate capacity, or the family background of the child. Education is the indirect means through which changes can be brought in the socio-economic level of disadvantageous groups, ultimately, only one field remains within the perview of the educationists, and that is - school. Coleman has rightly pointed out that the battle against inequality can be fought only in the arena of school. Schools should be so equipped that the adverse

effect of poor family background can be reversed and by 'positive discrimination' and 'compensatory education', the child can be brought at the level of the affluent peers. So, it becomes necessary to know more and more about the school, its functioning, assets as well as limitations. Moreover, to know as to where the changes are required so that the results can be achieved in the desirable directions. Therefore, proper evaluation of the school services, and the remedial treatment may ultimately make the dream of equality turn into reality.

2.400 The Present Study and Its Relevance:

While making a global survey of educational opportunities from the historical perspective, it was observed that India had a chequered past as far as the educational development is concerned. That is more so, because the country has diverse groups of people belonging to many different racial and linguistic groups. The Indian society consists of rigid and hierarchical caste system where women and scheduled caste etc. are considered to be at the lowest ebb, and thus, they were deprived of many privileges.

To introduce the concept of equality to a society based with so many different groups, is a difficult proposition and

will naturally face strong social resistance. But the country being wedded to the democratic principles, it becomes imperative that all the citizens are to develop their own capabilities. This presupposes that the necessary grounding required to equip an individual to stand on the same footing as his fellowmen should be the same and of equal quality.

In keeping with the above commitment, large scale efforts have been made by the government to provide educational facilities to all children of school going age. With the awareness of this noble idea, free elementary schools have been started in the country. And it is to these schools that the children of the masses are going. But, along with this a parallel system of schools run by the private enterprise is also in existence and there is a feeling that this system of schools has a better standard of education (Education Commission. 1964-66). The disparity in the quality of education imparted in the different systems of schools in a class and casteridden society can lead to serious social consequences. While free elementary education is being made available to all by the state, it is also true that this parallel system of private schools exists to enable the affluent parents to send their children to a different set of schools presumably of better quality and with a certain degree of exclusiveness.

If the qualitative gulf between such privately run schools and the public schools is as big as to become unbridgable then it may breed inequality, a fact that will run counter to the professed goals of an egalitarian society.

The existence of a large number of such fee-charging private schools in a country where primary education is being provided free of cost, may indicate that a qualitative gap does exist between these two systems. One can find the dirference not only in terms of instructional processes but also in terms of achievement. Many questions can be raised regarding the issue - Is the disparity mainly in terms of finance? Or, is it in terms of facilities and co-curricular activities? Or, in the efficiency of teaching? Or, is it because of the student's abilities and background? Or, is there something wrong in the set-up of the system itself? Many more questions can be raised, but with no definite answer as the empirical evidence is not adequate enough to help in drawing any conclusions.

A glance at related literature of the present study shows that the researches done in the area of inequality in education in India are mainly related to either the religious

or the geographical disparities. The disparities between private and public schools have not yet gained sufficient attention. However, without ascertaining these differences such disparities can not be removed.

The doubts raised by the Education Commission (1964-66) and the prominent educationists about the disparities between private and public schools need immediate attention. And it becomes important to find out whether there is any difference in the quality of education imparted in the two systems of schools. Otherwise the disparity may lead to the classification of better education and poor education which runs counter to the professed goal of equality of educational opportunity to all.

Most of the questions raised here could be amswered only after sufficient empirical evidence is gathered. In order to make a quantitative and qualitative evaluation of both the systems it is proposed to make a comparative study of private and public schools.

2.500 Scope of the Study:

The scope of the study is -

1. It is conducted in the city of Baroda.

- 2. Private and Public schools having classes I to VII are included in the study.
- 3. Principals, teachers, students and parents form the sample of the study.
- 4. The pedagogical, economical and socio-psychological inputs, and achievement as output are included in this study.

The present chapter reviews the related literature, gives the rationale of the study and specifies the scope of the study. Problem and procedure are given in the next chapter.