

CHAPTER

II

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

The review of literature in any research study gives the investigator a background of thinking in a problem area, familiarises him with various studies done in the area of his interest, equips him with new understanding and insight which subsequently help in planning the study properly. It also helps the investigator in selecting or developing instruments for data collection and in adopting techniques for the analysis and interpretation of data. It finally provides results for comparison with findings of the executed research. Thus review of previous researches happens to be a continuous process throughout any investigation, right from the inception of the problem to the conclusions drawn from the investigation.

Attempt has been made to include in the review as many studies as possible which are of both Bangladeshi and of foreign origin. One would find more emphasis on Indian studies. The reasons are obvious. India, though a developing country in the third world, has made tremendous progress along with other areas in the field of educational research, and numerous studies are being conducted every year both at institutional and personal level. Moreover, both Bangladesh and India, were parts of British India upto 1947, and both the countries inherited their education systems from the Britishers. Besides these, the socio-cultural and also economic background of the two countries are more or less the same. Thus the investigator thought that an exhaustive review of Indian studies would be of immense help for proper understanding and conducting the present research in absence of adequate number of studies in Bangladesh.

2.1 STUDIES DEALING WITH CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS

The focus of the review has been mainly on the researches which have studied the following characteristics in general and

also in relation to college entry in particular.

1. Background characteristics
 - a. Sex ✓
 - b. Home location ✓
 - c. Religion ✓
 - d. Stream of study ✓
 - e. Birth order ✓
 - f. Age ✓
2. Socio-economic background
 - a. Socio-economic status ✓
 - b. Nature of family ✓
 - c. Size of family ✓
 - d. Education of siblings ✓
 - e. Students' residence ✓ 16 !
3. Home environment ✓
4. Academic performance ✓
5. Educational aspiration ✓
6. Occupational aspiration ✓
7. Co-curricular interests ✓
8. Institutional adjustment ✓
9. Achievement motivation ✓

While reporting the studies under each characteristic, the studies undertaken with respect to the general characteristic of students have been narrated first, followed by others dealing with the influence of the characteristic on college entry, persistence - dropping out, success-failure and academic performance.

2.1.1 Background Characteristics

The characteristics, which students inherit since their birth, such as sex, religion, birth order and other variables like home location, stream of courses and age of students are likely to affect student's entry into institutions of higher education and achievement at different examinations. Below are reviewed research studies which were conducted regarding these variables.

a. Sex :

In male dominated traditional societies, where females in general are still not in a position to share equal responsibilities in national or human resource development or in family's income. Sex turns out to be a powerful factor with respect to entry into higher education. The following research studies have focussed on the proportion of boys and girls in higher educational institutions and the influence of sex of the students in entry to higher education.

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Huq et al. (1983) found that female students constituted only a small proportion (13.07 per cent) of the students of higher education in Bangladesh. Seetharamu (1982) found that among the rural students studying in Bangalore University in Post-graduate classes nearly 85 per cent were boys. Chitnis (1974) in Maharashtra and Dubey (1974) in Assam and Sachchidananda (1974) in Bihar found that the percentage of SC/ST women students in higher education was very low. Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) found in Poona University that women students formed 40 per cent of the students joining arts class and they were much greater in number than those joining the science class.

While studying the influence of sex on achievement, Satyanandam (1969) and Gaur (1974) did not find any effect of sex on the achievement, but Abraham (1974) found that there was a greater proportion of normal achievers among girls as against boys. Khandeker's (1974) study reported that girls ratio was less in dropouts.

The American Council on Education (1949) conducted a study "On Getting into College" which reported that sex was the third most influential factor in determining whether or not student attended college. Goetsch (1940) and Berdie (1954) observed greater tendency to attend college among boys than girls. Besides, the study further revealed that even among the high ability students wastage of talent in case of girls was 50 per cent greater than boys.

b. Home Location :

The factor which has been continuously drawing the attention of researchers world over is the home location of the student. It refers to the place or area where the student had grown up, where he had spent his early life and still where his parents reside-his permanent parental home. Generally three levels of home residence have been identified in the research studies; these are rural, urban and metropolitan area. The following studies show how this factor discriminates college students and affects college entry and achievement of students.

Huq et al. (1983) noted in Bangladesh that 75 per cent of the students of higher education came from rural areas, but Hossain (1984) found that 52 per cent of the students who were studying in Rajshahi University were from urban areas. He further noted that among the boys 61.7 per cent belonged to rural families while 67.5 per cent girls came from urban areas.

Lal (1979) found that nearly 60 per cent of the graduate students of Meerut University belonged to rural areas, but Seetharamu (1982) observed that only one out of every three (33%) students given admission to post-graduate courses in Bangalore University was from rural areas. Similarly in ICMR (1972) survey, it was found that most of the Indian medical students were from urban areas. Rath and Misra (1974) found that 93 per cent of the SC college students of Orissa were from rural areas.

While investigating the effect of home location on achievement, Sinha (1965) observed that among the low achievers large proportion hailed from rural areas. On the otherhand, Gaur (1974) and Mohanty and Satpathy (1983) found that academic achievement was not related to place of residence.

Forster (1959), Summerskill (1962) and Astin (1964) all have referred home location of the student as a variable which appeared to influence academic achievement. Students who

resided nearer the campus performed better.

The studies of American Council on Education (1949) and Berdie (1954) proved beyond doubt that students coming from metropolitan areas were more likely to attend college than those coming from farms. The findings of Iffert (1958) and Gurin et al. (1968) are adequate to conclude that "college persisters are more likely to come from families whose parents are more urbane." Summerskill (1962) reviewed many American researches and found that attrition or dropping out, was often higher among rural students than among those from cities and towns.

c. Religion :

In a modern, democratic society theoretically religion of a student has nothing to do with his/her education. But in reality, it has been found that some religious communities or caste groups dominate over others in the educational and occupational scene and also in exercising state powers. Some communities were exposed to this modern education much earlier than others as religious beliefs of some communities hindered their way of taking this education.

Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) found in Poona University that more than 50 per cent of men graduate students and more than 70 per cent of women students were brahmins. Chitra (1969) also observed that Brahmins had the highest representation among hindu undergraduate women students in Mysore city as compared with the dominant peasant castes or other non-brahmin castes. Desai (1969) found in Bombay that the married women students predominantly belonged to upper caste and there was total absence of SC students. Lal's (1974) study revealed that the enrolment of ST was low at each level of education in Rajasthan. Uplaonkar (1982) found in Karnataka that among the pre-university second year students 83.92 per cent were hindus and 16.08 per cent were muslims. He further found that among the hindus 74 per cent

100%

Christians

St. Joseph's
Mount Carmel
Egna Miss
etc.

St. Joseph's
Christians
etc.

students were from higher castes, while 25 per cent were from lower castes viz., SC and ST.

Rajalakshmiamma (1973) noted that caste was an important factor in achievement. She found that non-repeating successful group comprised of pupils of forward class in greater proportion than those of backward and SC groups. Nayar (1975) found that the stagnation and wastage were more among SC than ST students, whereas Misra's (1978) study did not support the idea that dropouts belonged mainly to backward classes.

Hopkins et al. (1958) in UK did not find any significant difference between graduates and failures of different religion. However, the study conducted by American Council on Education (1949) and also that of Steiter (1951) reported that religion was one of the important determinant of college attendance in USA. The jews went in greater proportion to the college than did the catholics and protestants.

d. Stream of Study : ✓

With growing emphasis on vocationalization of secondary education, diversified streams of courses are available to the students of secondary stage. They choose their courses according to their interests, educational and occupational goals and on the availability of a particular stream in the institution where the students want to study. The specialized nature and objective of each stream of courses affect the achievement of the students and the entry to higher education. The researches in this field are as under:

Adiseshiah and Ramanathan (1974) in Tamil Nadu, Chitnis (1974) in Maharashtra, Gangrade (1974A) in Haryana, Rath and Misra (1974) in Orissa and Sachchidananda (1974) in Bihar found that majority of the SC and or ST College students went to arts course and very few were in science and commerce courses. Sachchidananda (1974) further observed that by and large the male and female students did not differ in the choice of their course of studies.

Shah (1975) also found that wards of highly educated parents tended to join science courses, while the wards of less educated parents mostly joined arts courses. NCERT's (1975) study reported that in Udaipur (Rajasthan), students offering science generally belonged to high and upper middle income group families with low white collared jobs, upper and middle castes, families having elementary, secondary and college educated parents. Rao (1982) observed that students from high SES offered science stream. Sinha (1965) found that most of the high achievers were the students of Science.

e. Birth Order : ✓

The birth order of a child decides his status, treatment and future responsibilities in his family. Thus the position of a child among his siblings i.e., birthorder is another factor which is likely to affect the educational attainment of the child.

Hayes (1938), Abernethy (1940), Attus (1965) and Fischer et al. (1968) reported first borns to be over represented in universities and colleges in the United States. Bayer (1967) reported that first borns excelled others on earning a doctorate; Cattell (1947) and Roe (1953) showed firstborns to be over represented in eminent scientists and Schacter (1963) found a higher percentage of first borns among eminent men in the general population in USA.

While studying the effect of birth order on academic achievement in India, Reddy (1976) and Contractor (1977) found that birth order was not related to scholastic performance, but Lalithamma (1975) reported that achievement of first borns was better than that of the last borns.

When family size was controlled by research selection, no significant relationship appeared between birthorder and educational attainment in Barger and Hall's (1966) sample. Schacter (1963) found first borns having slightly higher grades in school and Terman (1925) too noticed that first borns were over represented in his intellectually gifted subjects.

Bayer's (1966) study demonstrated that first borns excelled over others on possibility of college attendance. He also reported that the oldest and youngest siblings were about equal in probability for attending college when sex and SES were controlled by research selection. But Adams and Meidam (1968) controlling for SES, sex and sibship size, found no consistent pattern resulting from birthorder. Glass et al. (1974) found that first born of higher socio economic background had greater probability of attending college than others having same socio-economic background.

f. Age :

In the formal education system, students of a particular class are expected to be of almost the same age. But due to failures or due to superior performance in early academic life on the part of some students, a particular class may not be homogeneous in terms of age. Thus, age is likely to be a factor affecting performance and college attendance. Few research studies reviewed regarding age are as under.

Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) found in Poona University that urban students were on an average younger than the rural ones. Uplaonkar (1982) found in Karnataka that the average age of pre-university second year students was 18.98 yrs. He also observed that the SC students were older than non-SC students. Gangrade (1974B) in Haryana noted that majority of the SC students were older for the classes they studied. Lal (1979) observed that the average age of the science students was lower than that of the students of other faculties. Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) also observed that average age of students coming from high income group was less than that of their low income group counterparts. Salunke (1979) also found that SES had relationship with age groups.

The studies of Sinha (1965), Wig and Nagpal (1970) and Gaur (1974) showed that age of the students influenced their

achievement. They found that the successful students and high achievers were significantly more represented in the lower age group. Sanders (1963) cited six studies which indicated that younger candidates tend to obtain better grade results. Harris (1940), Flecker (1959), and Howell (1962) had made similar findings. However, Harris when controlled intelligence, found no difference between age groups, and in Howell's study the tendency for younger students to get better results was only marginal.

Goetsch (1940) found that there was a tendency for students who were young at the time of graduation from the high school to attend college to a greater extent than their older counterparts.

Desai and Desai (1957) observed that the tendency to leave the school increased with the age of entrance to school. They also found that the age factor in dropouts affected girls more than boys.

2.1.2 Socio-Economic Background

Studies dealing with the variables which determine the social and economic position of a person in society or in family or of a family in the society have been reviewed here. Such variables are : (a) Socio-economic status, (b) Nature of the family, (c) Size of the family, (d) Siblings' education and (e) Students' residence.

a. Socio-Economics Status :

Socio-economic status refers to the position or status a person or a family commands in his/its neighbouring society. It is an umbrella concept and covers many dimensions of which education, occupation, income of the members of the family along with the/movable and immovable property/possessed by the family are important. It also includes the/cultural and social activities of the family. Sociologists and educationists who deal with the variable include various dimensions to measure the

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SES according to the purpose of their study and research. Thus to arrive at the trend of researches and for understanding the influence of the variable and its components, the review has been done taking individual aspects of SES. The review of composite SES has been done in the beginning.

Islam et al. (1981) studied the socio-economic background of Dhaka University students and found that majority of the boys were coming from lower and lower middle classes, while the girls were coming from middle and higher classes. Tapan and Majumdar (1985) noted that students leaders of Dhaka University mainly belonged to middle (29.33%), upper middle (42.67%) and upper (28%) SES groups.

Lal (1979) found that in Meerut University 17.33 per cent college students belonged to high SES group while 70 per cent belonged to middle SES. The rest of the students were from low SES. According to Chitra (1969) women from upper strata of Mysore society had greater opportunities for higher education than those from middle and lower strata. But Mehta (1974) found that in Udaipur, almost all the college girls came from middle or lower middle class (families. Deb (1980) observed significant differences in professional, educational and income level of guardians of rural and urban students. Aikara (1980) found that in Bombay, the socio-economic background of non-scheduled caste students was better than schedule caste students. Upbaonkar (1982) found in Karnataka that three-fourth of the non-SC students came from a higher social background.

Varma (1966) found that the successful students had better socio-economic background. Contractor (1977) observed that educational attainment was functionally related positively with SES though Bhaduri (1971) noted that under achievers tended to have higher SES, but Reddy (1973), Gaur (1974) and Salunke (1979) did not find significant influence of SES on achievement. Similar was the finding of Jha (1970) when he observed that there was no relationship between achievement in science and SES.

Bordua (1960) noted that SES was related positively to college plans in both sexes and in all religious affiliation. Similarly Chopra (1982) found that socio-economic background was a very important determinant for continuation of education.

Astin (1964), Eckland (1964A), Wolford (1964), Lembesis (1965), McMammon (1965), Wegner (1967), Panos and Astin (1968) and Rumberger (1983) demonstrated that "SES appears to be inversely related to dropout". Taking intelligence into account, Sewell and Shah (1967) reported that children from lower status families exhibited higher rates of dropout than did children of higher status families. On the other hand Kohen et al. (1978) from their multivariate analysis concluded that "parental SES bears no net relation to dropping out".

(i) Parents' Education : Huq et al. (1983) found that only two per cent of the students of higher education in Bangladesh came from families whose senior members had no education at all.

Hooda (1968) found in Bombay that 24.6 per cent of the parents were sufficiently educated, 44.5 per cent were moderately educated, 25.5 per cent of the parents were just literate, while 5.4 per cent were illiterate. But Lal (1979) found in Meerut that overwhelming majority of the students came from uneducated families. Baker (1973) found in Bombay that three-fourth of the fathers and nine-tenth of the mothers of women graduate students (excluding SNDT women's University) had almost no college education.

Chitnis (1974) in Maharashtra, Dubey (1974) in Assam, Gangrade (1974A) in Haryana, Pimpley (1974) in Punjab, Rath and Misra (1974) in Orissa and Shah and Thaker (1974) in Gujarat found that majority of the SC and or ST college students had illiterate parents and most of them were first generation students.

Himmelweit and Summerfield (1951) did not find any significant difference between over achievers and under achievers in respect of parents' education in UK. But in India, Sinha

(1965) and Wig and Nagpal (1970) found that parents of low achievers were poorly educated. Satyanandam (1969) also noted that the children of graduate parents performed better than the children of matriculates. Dave and Dave (1971) and Tandon (1978) found that parents of under achievers were less qualified. Sarma (1982) too, observed that parental education was highly associated with the academic achievement of their sons and daughters.

Berdie's (1954) study is a classic one. He found that parents who had progressed far in school, particularly those who had attended college, were more likely to have children who plan to attend college than parents in similar occupations who had not attended college. His analysis holds true even when the children had comparable ability. He further demonstrated that metropolitan boys and girls planning for college tended to come more often from homes where the parents had some college training than did farm boys and girls who were planning for college.

Sewell and Shah (1968B) reported from their analysis that both father's and mother's educational achievements were positively and significantly related to college plans, college attendance and graduation from college. Carpenter and Western (1982) found that girls whose mothers or fathers had tertiary education were more likely to plan to enter college. Rumberger's (1983) investigation in USA produced interesting findings. In his investigation both parent's education levels appeared important depending on the sex of the child. Young black and white females whose mothers had completed more schooling were less likely to dropout. A young woman's probability to dropout did not appear to depend on her father's education level. On the other hand, higher education levels for fathers did reduce the chances of droppingout among males, while mother's education levels only affected the probability among black males. His analysis further revealed that the effects of parental education were stronger for lower SES families. He demonstrated that a one year increase in mother's education level reduces the

probability of dropping out by four percentage points among white females from lower SES family, but only two percentage points among white females from a higher SES family.

Krauss (1964) noted that in middle class families, students whose fathers had college training but whose mothers had not, were less likely to have college plans than those whose mother and father both had gone to college.

Spady (1967) in a study on educational mobility and access, asserted that the relative chances of boys from lower social strata reaching and completing college as compared with the sons of college educated fathers, had not kept pace with each other over time. Moreover, the relative probabilities of going to college and graduating had dropped slightly for low status sons when there was an increase in number of low status sons in the institutions of higher education. At the same time, it was found that there had been an even greater increase in enrolment and graduation of sons with college educated fathers. Khandeker (1974) in India found that fathers of the dropouts were generally poorly educated.

Though Robbins Committee (1963) found no evidence in UK that 'first generation university students left without success than other students', Astin (1964) collected the empirical evidence to show that there is a highly significant relationship between the tendency to dropout from college and low level of mothers' and father's education. It appeared from the studies of Chase (1970), Jaffe and Adams, (1970) and Spady (1971) that 'college persisters are more likely to come from families whose parents are more educated'.

(ii) Parents Occupation : While studying the socio-economic background of students at different universities in Bangladesh Islam et al. (1981) and Hossain (1984) noted under representation of the children of farmers in this agrarian country. Islam et al.'s (1981) study revealed that 24 per cent of the students of Dhaka University were the children of farmers as against

32 per cent of servicemen, 21 per cent of businessmen, eight per cent of teachers and five per cent of professionals. Hossain (1984), too, found in Rajshahi University that 31 per cent of the students were the children of farmers while 42 per cent's fathers were engaged in service and 19 per cent came from business families. The representation of daughters of farmers was quite weak as they represented only 11 per cent of the girls-sub-sample in Islam et al.'s (1981) study. Tapan and Majumdar (1985) ~~Majumdar (1985)~~ observed that 41 per cent of the fathers of student leaders of Dhaka University were businessmen, 25 per cent of them were farmers, 9 per cent were school teachers and 9 per cent were professionals.

Concerning the guardian's occupation, Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) noted preponderance of professional classes viz., doctors, pleaders, etc. in Poona University. ICMR's (1972) survey also revealed that the guardians of most of the Indian medical students belonged to technical professions or administrative services, while very few were agriculturist. On the other hand Lal (1979) observed in Meerut University that majority of the students were drawn from agricultural families.

Chitnis (1974) found that most of the Maharashtra SC college students' fathers were engaged in rural occupations. Schonell (1965) provided an evidence that students from working class families did not do as well as students from homes of parents in professional, semi-professional and administrative groups. Wig and Nagpal (1970) found that among the high achievers there was significantly higher incidence of fathers with professional and executive positions. In most of the cases the low achievers had fathers having agricultural background while most of the students who had failed were the children of businessmen. Dave and Dave (1971) found that higher percentage of ranked students belonged to homes having higher parental occupation. Chopra's (1964) study reported that the percentage of failures among the students from the professional, administrative and managerial group was 27, while that for

agriculturist and unskilled worker group ranged between 59 and 61. Similarly Rajalakshmiamma (1973) observed that a large proportion of successful children had fathers in high level occupations. In this study, high level occupation of the mother demonstrated positive relationship with success in schools. Tandon's (1978) study also revealed that the professions of fathers of male underachievers were less remunerative.

Chopra (1964) found that none of the sons of fathers engaged in professional, administrative, executive and managerial jobs expected to discontinue education while the corresponding figures for the agriculturist and unskilled worker groups were as high as 64 and 66 per cent respectively. Sri Avinashlingam Home-Science College's (1970) study reported that parents of high occupational levels favoured their daughters going to school.

The study of American Council on Education (1949) very well demonstrated that children of higher occupational groups attended college in more proportion than the children of lower occupational groups. A similar result was reported by Anderson and Berning (1941) who found that "the probability that a farmer's child with high scholastic ability will attend college is quite low in comparison to the probability of able high school graduates from other occupational groups".

The research findings of Berdie (1954) is worthnoting. His follow up study of high school graduates revealed that the children coming from high level economic homes tended to carry out their college plans to a greater extent than did children from homes low on occupational ladder.

Keller's (1950) study also reported similar findings when he wrote "almost two women in every three, whose fathers were professional men enrolled in a college or university upon graduation from high school. At the lower end of the occupational scale, on the other hand, for every daughter of an unskilled labourer who was in college, fifteen had not enrolled." Similar results were also found by Berdie (1954) and nearly three decades

after him by Carpenter and Western (1982). They observed that a girl, having a father in the upper white collar occupation was at an advantage in planning to enter tertiary education.

(iii) Family Income : Huq et al. (1983) found in Bangladesh that only nine per cent of the students of higher education came from lower income households while 36 per cent of them represented upper income groups. Tapan and Majumdar (1985) found that most of the student leaders of Dhaka University belonged to high income group and very few of them came from low income group. They noted that 41 per cent of the student leaders' guardians had more income than those getting highest salary of the National Pay Scale of Bangladesh.

Lal (1979) found that one third of the college students of Meerut University belonged to upper income group and nearly half of the graduate students were drawn from lower class. ICMR (1972) survey revealed that approximately two-third of the Indian Medical students came from families of low income group.

Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) noted in Poona University that guardians of women students had on an average higher income. Similar results were also found by Chitra (1969) in Mysore city where women from higher economic strata enjoyed the higher representation in higher education. Desai (1969) found in Bombay that the married women students belonged to middle and upper income groups.

Adiseshiah and Ramanathan (1974) found in Tamil Nadu that majority of the SC and ST students were in difficult financial position. Rath and Misra (1974) in Orissa also found that the ST students had a poor economic background. A significant association between family income and achievement was found by Satyanandam (1969), Dave and Dave (1971) and Rajalakshmiamma (1973). They noted that higher the income, higher was the achievement.

The survey of Goetsch (1940) showed that of all the students of high ability coming from families in the top financial brackets, 100 per cent were in college, whereas of the students coming from the lowest financial brackets, only 20 per cent were in college. Baker (1946) studied 910 high school students of same intelligence and found that 93 per cent of students coming from high income groups graduated from high school and 57 per cent attended college, whereas only 72 per cent of students coming from lower income groups graduated from high school and only 13 per cent went to college. Gallagher (1950) estimated that probably one-half of youths with ability and ambition for college were blocked because of low parental income and inadequate money aids to students. Berdie's (1954) comprehensive study confirmed that children coming from homes of high economic level planned to attend college to a far greater extent than did children from homes lower on economic ladder. Carpenter and Western (1982) demonstrated that girls from well-to-do homes were likely to aspire for higher education than other girls.

Though Merrill (1964) found in his sample that persisters and non-persisters did not differ significantly regarding yearly income, but other studies indicate the contrary. Iffert (1957) reported that dropout families had significantly less income than graduating students' families. Summerskill (1962) reviewed twenty two research studies and found that the findings were equivocal regarding financial difficulty and tendency to dropout. Most of the twentytwo studies reviewed by him ranked financial difficulty as first, second or third in importance. Rumberger (1983) observed that higher levels of parents' earnings reduced the probability of dropping out, but only for whites.

(iv) Social and Cultural Level : Berdie (1954) collected empirical evidence to show that "cultural status is certainly as important as, if not more important than, economic status in determining whether or not a high school graduate plans to attend college. He found that a child coming from a home with many books would be more likely to plan to attend college than

a child of similar ability coming from a home with similar economic resources but having few books. He also observed that parents active in community organizations were more likely to have children who plan to attend college than otherwise similar parents who did not participate in community activities.

Rowland's (1961) study revealed that the cultural level of the homes of secondary school boys was much more closely related than economic level to the tendency of boys to enter university. Cultural index appeared as most uniform predictor among different sub-samples in Rumberger's (1983) study, which suggested that more reading material in the household reduced the probability of dropping out. Sanders (1963) observed that a culturally deprived home with poor study facilities, and even a materially better home given to frequent entertainments, was deterrent to academic success.

b. Nature of the Family :

With the gradual development of Civilization, changes started occurring in the nature and composition of family. The big and joint families of the past are rapidly disintegrating into small and nuclear ones keeping pace with industrialization and urbanization. The nature of the family certainly determines at least to some extent the atmosphere where the child grows up; the treatment, love and affection he gets from the members of the family and the authority his parents can exercise in spending money and arranging better facilities for his education and development. Below are reviewed few research studies which have been done in this area.

Though Lal (1979) observed nuclear families only in industrial and urban areas, Seetharamu (1982) noted in Bangalore University that majority of the rural students were from nuclear families. Mohanty and Satpathy (1983) found in Orissa University of Agriculture and Technology that about two thirds of the students belonged to single family system. While investigating the relationship between family size and academic achievements they did not find any significant relationship.

c. Size of the Family :

Family size is another factor which plays an important role in a child's growth, development and education. Family-size i.e., the number of siblings not only determines the quantum of resources of the family and the facilities that a particular child gets for his education and establishment, but also the environment wherein he grows up. The following studies show how the family size affects achievement and college entry.

Seetharamu (1982) found in Bangalore University that majority of the post graduate students had come from small sized families. Reddy (1976) and Mohaty and Satpathy (1983) did not find any relationship between family size and scholastic performance. On the other hand, Contractor (1977) found that educational attainment was related negatively to family size. Tandon (1978) also noted in his sample that male underachievers hailed from large families. Rajalakshimma (1973) observed that the number of siblings indicated notable difference among repeaters and non-repeaters. A great proportion of non-repeaters were either only children or children from the families having four and less than four children.

The study of Sri Avinashlingam Home Science College (1970) revealed that parents of small family structure favoured their daughters going to school.

Anastasi (1956) and Zajonac et al. (1979) showed that 'family size related negatively to intellectual level.' Douglas (1964) confirmed that even after allowing for environmental differences among families of differing size, children from large families did not generally score as high in tests of ability as children from smaller families. The findings of Nuttal^{et al.} (1976) after controlling I.Q. led to the conclusion that small family boys tend to have better grades than large family boys. Rankin et al. (1979) tested the impact of sibship size on the test scores and found a curvilinear relation. Those coming from larger as well as smaller families scored low.

Adams and Maidam (1968) represented one of the most complicated accounts of the effects of family structure on college attendance. They found that the limiting effect of sibship size did not appear sharply restrictive until the female was one of the four siblings, or the male was one of the five in white collar families. While children of blue collar families started out with fewer chances of college attendance in comparison with white collar families, significant effect from sibship size began showing up for females with four or five siblings, and for males with seven or more siblings. They concluded, "beyond these sizes, each additional offspring makes it less likely that a given child will attend college." In case of the only child, there was of course a greater educational advantage regardless of sex. They further postulated that within each sex and status category, the individual whose sibling was separated from him by five or more years was more likely to attend college. In fact their study showed "as the number of year increases, the chance of either or both attending college also increases."

Velandia (1979) observed almost no family size effect for the lower SES group among the college application in a developing country like Columbia. Rumberger (1983) noticed that white children from large families showed higher predicted dropout rates, while family size showed no effect among minorities.

d. Education of the Siblings :

In a family with tradition of education, not only the elder members inspire the youngsters to attain education, but the youngsters strive to reach at par with the elder ones. Education of elder siblings is thus likely to play an important role in the scholastic achievement and educational attainment of the students. Few research studies in this area have been reviewed below.

Gangrade (1974A) found in Haryana that majority of SC college students had illiterate siblings. Lal (1974) observed

in Rajasthan that SC and ST college students were highly educated in comparison to their siblings. Berdie (1954) while studying the effect of siblings education, found that for the farm boys' planning on college, the modal education of elder brothers was high school graduation, whereas for the metropolitan and non-farm boys' planning on college, the modal education of the elder brothers was some college education. Figures for the girls with the older brothers were almost identical. The modal education of older sisters of metropolitan boys' planning on college was high school graduation. The non-farm boys had more older sisters with advanced schooling than did metropolitan boys.

e. Students' Residence :

Transport facilities and atmosphere for study depend on the accomodation enjoyed by a student either with parents or relatives or at hostel. Residence facilities have specific influence in motivating a student for further studies.

Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) observed in Poona University that at least 10 per cent of the students had no satisfactory accomodation. Seetharamu (1982) found in Bangalore University that two-third of the rural students lived in hostels.

Sinha (1965) observed that those who did better in university examinations lived generally with their parents or guardians and many of the low achievers were residing in hired houses.

Suddarth (1957) reported that students in halls had by far the greatest dropout rates and the lowest graduation. The second poorest group in academic achievement in his sample was those living at home with parents. Next came students living in private homes or apartments. By far, the greatest proportion of graduates and least proportion of dropouts were among students in sorotities and fraternities. Hopkins et al. (1958) found no significant differences between residence of students who

left university without a degree. Anderson and Prestley (1960) found that students in halls performed better academically than those living at home, students in lodging did least well.

Holbraad (1962) conducted a comprehensive survey of 3174 students in most of the British Universities. She found that students enjoying satisfactory accomodation had 30 per cent higher chance of getting a good degree. She also found the percentages of failure twice as high among students having unsatisfactory accomodation. Albrow (1965) compared two groups of students, one residing in halls and other in lodging and found that hall residents tended to perform better academically, but the trend was statistically insignificant. Schonell et al.'s (1962) study revealed that women residents' performance was markedly inferior to that of women living at home or in lodgings, and for men a similar though non-significant trend in the same direction was found.

2.1.3 Home Environment

The environment prevailing in a home i.e., the emotional tone, the relationship amongst its members, the facilities available for study, the interests taken by the parents and the encouragement provided by them as enjoyed by a child in a home likely to influence the educational attainment, scholastic performance and aspiration for education of the child.

Gangrade (1974B) in Haryana, Singh et al. (1974) in U.P. and Misra (1978) in MP found that SC students lacked a conducive environment at home which was a prerequisite for the educational development. Still however with respect to encouragement from parents, Gangrade (1974A) and Rajagopalan (1974) observed that most of the SC and ST students got necessary encouragement from their parents.

Hooda (1968) observed that more than two-third of Bombay, collegians had a home atmosphere where both the parents were cooperative. Kumar (1963) observed in Meerut that one-fifth

of the students felt that they were not loved in the family and that their parents were disappointed with them.

Mahale (1975) found in Bombay that 90 per cent of the parents, (of English medium students) kept themselves well informed of their child's progress in school. Greater percentage of highly educated parents did this than parents having poor education.

Jain (1965), Reddy (1973) and Salunke (1979) found that different dimensions of home environment were positively related with academic achievement. In Reddy's study home environment appeared as most prominent potential predictor of academic achievement after intelligence. Jain further noted that the influence of emotional tone of the home on school achievement was positive in case of boys while it was negative in case of girls. Rajalakshmiamma (1973) observed that hindrances to study showed a positive relationship to class repetition and parental attention was a variable conducive to success in schools. But Tandon (1978) did not find home environment a relevant factor in the under-achievement of female underachievers. On the other hand, Bhaduri's (1971) study revealed that underachievers tended to have a more congenial home condition.

In Berdie's (1954) study, the children planned to attend college reported that their parents were more favourable to the idea of college than did children who had other plans. Sewell and Shah (1968A) found that in each category of SES and intelligence, the proportions of male and female planning to attend college was greater among those who perceived parental encouragement than among those who did not. From the studies of Spenner and Featherman (1978), PUNCH and Waugh (1980) parental encouragement emerged not only as important determinants of educational aspirations but also as intervening variables between the social origins of individuals, their scholastic performances and their aspiration for higher education.

The research studies done by Weigand (1957), Congdon (1964), Merrill (1964), Trent and Ruyle (1965) showed that college persisters tend to come from families whose parents tend to enjoy more open, democratic, supportive and less conflicting relationship with their children.

Merrill (1964) studied the relation of non-intellectual factors to persistence of low ability students and found a clear distinction between the family relationship they had experienced. Low ability persisters had experienced more stable family relations than the non-persisters. Hackman and Sysinger (1970) reported college persisters had parents who expressed greater expectations for their children's further education. Trent and Ruyle (1965) collected evidence to show that college persisters got more parental advice and praise and expressed interest in their college experiences.

2.1.4 Academic Performance

Academic performance is generally a measure of potentials of a student which at tertiary stage opens avenues for the next higher education. Researches undoubtedly provided evidence that academic performance is directly related to intelligence and is one of the most important factors or sometimes the only factor considered by the authorities for admission to an institution. Some research studies which included academic performance as a variable have been reviewed in the following pages.

Dharm Bir and Srivastava (1965) showed that students offering science subjects did better at higher stage than those taking up arts subjects.

Rani's (1980) study brought out that academic achievement of the SC undergraduate engineering students was significantly lower than that of non-SC students. Aruna's (1981) study also reported similar results. However, the achievement of ST students was found to be higher than that of SC students.

Baril (1966) found in Patna that there was no significant difference in the educational achievement of students belonging to various social classes. Dhani (1974) observed in Punjab that there was a relationship between scholastic achievement and SES, which was though statistically significant but was not very high. On the other hand Chopra (1964) and Reddy (1976) noted that students hailing from higher SES homes performed better. Chopra cited that percentage of students securing first class marks from the professional, administrative, executive and managerial group was 28 and that from agriculturist and unskilled worker group was seven only. Lalithamma (1975) found in Kerala that achievement in Mathematics was positively related to SES. Dhani (1974) noted that the effect of SES on scholastic achievement of girls was more striking than boys.

Buch (1963) found moderate correlations between the composite scores of SSC examinations and subsequent higher level examinations. Palsane (1965) also found that the predictive value of the grand total marks was quite high. But Dharam Bir and Srivastava (1965) observed that matriculation results were undoubtedly not the best predictor of possible performance at the university stage. Wig and Nagpal (1970) in Chandigarh University found that the students with better achievement in previous examination and with less incidence of failure did better at university examination. On the other hand, Gaur (1974) noted a relationship of very low order between marks in the intermediate science examination and the achievement in the courses in medicine.

In Astin's (1971) study, performance in high school, as measured either by grade point average or rank in class had been shown to be an important predictor of future college performance. Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) from the regression analysis of examination marks of graduate students concluded that although SSC marks might appear reasonably to be a good indicator of the capacity of students to complete college education, it might not be a good indicator of the course of his academic development and performance in college.

The American Council on Education (1949) collected empirical evidence to show that high school achievement is the second most important factor in determining college attendance (family background has been found to be the most important factor). The studies of Anderson and Berning (1941), Terman (1947) Phearman (1948), Morehead (1950), Keller (1950) and Hollinshead (1952) provided data to conclude that students who achieve high in high school are more likely to attend college.

The research studies of Coker (1968), Lavin (1965), Panos and Astin (1968), Chase (1970), Jaffe and Adams (1970), Taylor and Hansen (1970), Blanchfield (1971), Lawhorn (1971) and Smith (1971) showed that grade performance in high school was related to persistence in college. Combs and Cooley (1968), Sewell et al. (1981) reported that on an average dropouts demonstrated lower levels of ability than students who finished high school. Sewell and Shah (1967) even estimated that measured ability was nearly twice as important in accounting for dropout as was the social status of the family.

2.1.5 Educational Aspiration

Educational aspiration generally refers to the type and level of education a student wishes to attain. This aspiration drives him to achieve his educational goals. Studies reviewed below have reference to educational aspirations of students and the influence of the variable on academic achievement and college entry.

Govil (1967) observed in UP that among the post-graduate students males wanted to continue their studies till they get a job while females wanted to continue till they get married.

Adiseshiah and Ramanathan (1974) in Tamil Nadu, Chitnis (1974) in Maharashtra, Dubey (1974) in Assam, Misra (1978) in MP, Pimpley (1974) in Punjab, Sachchidanada (1974) in Bihar and Soni (1975) in UP found that SC and ST college students had high educational aspirations. On the contrary, Gangrade (1974A) in Haryana found that educational aspirations of SC college students were very low.

Studying the educational aspiration of secondary students Patel (1960) and Shah et al. (1971) found in Gujarat that large number of students generally aspired for college education. Mahle (1975) also observed in Bombay that nearly 62 per cent of English medium students intended to continue for higher studies. Shah et al. (1971) had further noted that quite a large member of aspirants for the college education, especially males, desired to join college presumably as a temporary activity in the prevailing conditions of high rate of unemployment and difficulties in finding a suitable white collar job.

Bisht (1972) found that urban boys had a higher educational aspiration than rural boys. Mathur (1970) noted in Mathura district of UP that adolescents had a higher level of educational aspiration than their socio-economic condition would permit. Parental education (Bisht, 1972) and income (Shah et al. 1971, Bisht 1972) were found to have significant influence on educational aspiration.

Bisht (1972) and Shah et al. (1971) also found positive relationship between academic performance and educational aspirations. They further found that when academic performance was controlled, there was significant social class differences in the educational aspirations of both males and females, although such differences were greater among females than among males. The independent influence of SES was much greater than that of academic performance on the educational aspirations, although the magnitude of independent influence of both SES and academic performance on educational aspirations among females was greater than that among males.

Sri Avinashlingam Home Science College's (1970) study revealed that school going girls had high aspirations than dropout girls.

The research studies conducted by Weigand (1957), Coker (1968), Medsker and Trent (1968), Bucklin and Bucklin (1970), Krebs and Liberty (1971) and White (1971) provided evidences to

to conclude that whether measured in terms of educational plans, educational expectations, or career expectations, those having higher level of plans, are more likely to remain in college. Sewell and Shah (1967) found that the level of educational plans held by the individual had the strongest independent influence upon college completion, once family social status and ability were taken into account.

Coble's (1971) study revealed that higher the level of SES, higher was the level of aspirations even when sex, intelligence and parental encouragement were controlled.

Marini and Greenberger's (1978) study produced interesting findings. They found boys both aspired to and expect higher levels of educational attainment than girls. Girls were less likely than boys to fall at the extremes of the distribution and more often had educational aspirations and expectations in the middle range of prospective educational attainment. They further observed that both socio-economic background and academic ability, as measured by an achievement test, had a greater effect on educational ambition for boys than girls.

After controlling the family background and other exogeneous factors, Rumberger (1983) found that higher levels of educational aspirations reduced the chances of dropping out. Although, whether low educational aspirations caused dropping out or vice versa remained unclear.

2.1.6 Occupational Aspiration

In today's world, occupation is almost completely linked with education. Prestigious occupations need higher education. Students aspiring for particular occupation must acquire certain type and level of education. Thus occupational aspiration of a student is likely to play an important role in his educational attainment and hence in his academic achievement and college entry.

Islam et al. (1981) found in Dhaka University that 29.08 per cent of the students aspired for some sort of service and an equal percentage (28.61) wanted to associate themselves with research and training.

Huq et al. (1983) found in Bangladesh that 80 per cent of the male students and 82 per cent of the female students expressed their preference for the jobs in public sector. They further noted that within the public sector itself, the difference in the preference pattern of males and females was more remarkable. While 'superior administration' appeared most attractive to male students, female students clearly preferred 'teaching in government institution'. More than 51 per cent of the female students mentioned 'government education' and 'university teaching' as their expected career. The corresponding figure for male students was only 17.6. They also noted that students of rural origin preferred the public sector jobs (81 per cent) more than those of urban origin (76 per cent).

Hooda (1968) observed that "to be a doctor" was the ambition for a large number of Bombay Collegians followed by the preference for "engineer", "graduate" and "lawyer". Singh (1983) studied the professional choices of Punjab University students. He found that students gave top preference to IAS, the second place was given to university teaching and research and art, law, agriculture and IPS were preferred the least.

Govil (1967) observed in UP that professions considered suitable for women were those of teachers, physicians, surgeons, nurses, clerks, stenographers and administrators. Among the college students of Janshi, Saxena (1972) found that majority of the boys aspired for technical jobs as engineers and doctors, while girls preferred medicine and teaching as their profession. Singh (1983) noted that male students attached little importance to politics, art and law and the females students attached little importance to IPS and military.

Ahmad (1968) found that among the women undergraduates of Delhi University, some selected their college and course in terms of long range plans of adult life. The majority were not deeply concerned with their future work and career. A considerable lower portion of qualified young girls looked upon marriage as their ultimate objective. Lyngdoh (1976) observed in Shillong that aspiration of girls for occupation was higher than that of boys. But Pendharkar (1977) in Indore noted that male students and not female students were associated with aspiration for high, non-manual occupations.

Thirtha (1966) observed in Andhra Pradesh that more than 80 per cent of the urban final year college students preferred white collar occupations.

Chitnis (1974) in Maharashtra, Dubey (1974) in Assam, Pimpley (1974) in Punjab, Sachchidanda (1974) in Bihar found that most of the SC and ST college students had high occupational aspirations. But Gangrade (1974A) in Haryana found that occupational aspirations of SC college students were very low. Adiseshiah and Ramanathan (1974) in Tamil Nadu found that ST college girls had clear professional aspirations. Chitnis (1974) and Rath and Misra (1974) noted that most of the SC and ST college students did not want to follow their family profession. George (1975) observed in Kerala that SC and ST college students did not show high aspiration for technical and professional jobs.

Singh (1983) found in Punjab University that humanity group favoured IAS and science students favoured research. Thirtha (1966) observed in Osmania University that only 8 per cent of the commerce students preferred business.

Lyngdoh (1976) found in Shillong that low SES students had higher aspiration for occupation than the middle and high SES students. Middle SES students had higher occupational aspirations than high SES students, but Pendharkar (1977) observed in Indore that higher the occupational status of father, the higher the parental level of education and income, the higher was the level of occupational aspiration of the students.

Sinha (1965) found in Allahabad that high achievers had clear and definite vocational plans, while the low achievers displayed considerable rangeness about the nature of the stated vocations.

The research studies by Powell and Bloom (1962), Douvan and Adelson (1966), Clark (1967), Connell (1975), Sinclair et al. (1977), Marini and Greenberger (1978), Early (1981) and Saha (1982) had proved that girls tend to choose different types of jobs from boys, centering their choices on teaching nursing and white collar (clerical) occupations. Girls also have been found to choose from among smaller range of jobs compared to boys (Douvan and Adelson, 1966; Marini and Greenberger, 1978; Sinclair et al. 1977).

Rushing (1964) found that lower class adolescents tend to choose jobs requiring less education and of a lower status (e.g. lower class boys choose skilled jobs) whereas higher social class adolescents choose jobs requiring further education and higher in status (e.g. higher class boys choose scientific/technical jobs). Clark (1967) found that middle class boys expressed greater preference for white collar and professional jobs compared to lower class boys. Such a difference was not however found for girls who, no matter what social class they belonged preferred the jobs of teacher and nurse.

Spaeth (1970) demonstrated that the individual's expectation for his future occupational status after ability, was the single most important independent predictor of actual attainment.

2.1.7 Co-Curricular Interest

Every institution provides facilities for activities like games and sports, extra-reading, debate, drama, scout/girls guide, NCC to its students as co-curricular activities which help them in their overall personality growth and development. The following research studies estimate the interests of the students in these activities and also the effect of their co-curricular interests in their academic achievement and college attendance.

Hooda (1968) found that among the Bombay collegians, excursion and picnic were the most liked extra-curricular activities. Jai Prakash (1972) observed in MP that film music and radio listening were the most popular pastime for all students of secondary stage. He also revealed that football was the most popular game for boys, while badminton and carom were more liked by the girls. He further noted that interest in literature was feminine attribute while that in science and technical aspect was a masculine attribute.

Naik (1963) studying the reading interests of adolescents found that news papers were read more than any other material, magazines were read only for recreation and sports magazines were very popular. Badami (1969) found in Gujarat that majority of the students had interests in reading novels, short stories, and detective stories and very few were found to have interests in reading poems, eassys, letters, diaries and criticism; practically no one was found to have interest in books on industrial and commercial arts, science and travels. He also observed that significantly more males than females had expressed interests in novels, detective stories and biographies while comparatively more females were interested in reading poems. Pandey (1960) found that adolescents were highly interested in poetry, drama and story than in essay, novel and criticism.

Adiseshiah and Ramanathan (1974) found that the ST college students of Tamil Nadu did not take part in extra-curricular activities. Similar result was found in Maharashtra by Chitnis (1974) where neither the SC nor the ST students were deeply involved in co-curricular activities. But Dubey (1974) in Assam found that both the SC and ST college students showed interests in extra-curricular activities and a small percentage of SC/ST students participated in political activities. Lal (1974) observed in Rajasthan that large portion of SC and ST college students participated more in sports/NCC than other activities. Gangrade's (1974A) study reported that in Haryana only one-tenth of SC students had high level of participation in extra-curricular studies while Soni (1975) in UP found that

about two-thirds of the SC students participated in co-curricular activities. Nayar (1975) in Kerala found that participation of SC students in extra curricular activities was limited in debate and literary activities. Sharma (1975) in Patna found that leisuretime activity was independent of social class.

Wig and Nagpal's (1970) study in Chandigarh reported that both high and low achievers spent less time in extra-curricular activities. Pal and Saxena (1970) found that under achievers were more interested in outdoor games; as Bhaduri (1971) found that the underachievers tended to have more of leisure time activities. But Srivastava's (1974) findings contradicted the notion that "larger the number of activities under taken by an individual, lower is the level of his scholastic achievement." In Rajalakshmiamma's (1973) study participation in NCC, scouting and student organisation activities demonstrated significant association with stagnation.

Otto (1975) provided evidence supporting the hypothesis that participation in extracurricular activities plays a significant role in the educational attainment process independent of the influence of background socio-economic status, academic ability and and academic performance. Similar findings were also earlier reported by Spady (1970).

Harris (1940) reviewed many studies regarding the affect of co-curricular activities on academic performance and found that there was no general relationship. Though there are other studies which reported the contrary. Lucas et al. (1966) found that unsuccessful students participated less in social activities than successful students and Himmelweit and Summerfield (1951) obtained a similar result, but a group of engineers in Gray and Short's (1961) sample who took part to a great extent in extra-curricular matters did not perform well. Marris (1964) also found that students who were active in Union affairs, societies, or sports were chronic academic failures. Malleson (1960) found that students who isolated themselves socially, achieved first class degrees in greater proportion than those who took part in union affairs.

In the studies reviewed by Summerskill (1962) however, there was little evidence to support the notion that dropouts were frequently caused by over participation. On the contrary, some studies showed a positive correlation, and Gray and Short (1961) found that for their sample generally extra curricular activities made no significant difference to academic performance.

According to the findings by Rehberg and Schafer (1968) athletic participation was strongly associated with educational expectations, particularly among students with low parental encouragement and low academic performance. Similar findings were presented by Schafer and Armer (1968).

2.1.8 Institutional Adjustment

In a formal system of education, a student comes across different types of situations wherein he interacts with people of different categories - his teachers, his peers, his classmates. He has to observe rules and regulations of the institution. This requires adjustment with the environment which is referred here as institutional adjustment.

Kumar (1963) in Meerut found that school adjustment of students in general was poor whereas Bhagia (1966) in Rajasthan found that girls exceed significantly in their adjustment to general environment and organizational aspect of the school. He also noted that rural school pupils exceeded urban school pupils significantly in adjustment to their teachers, classmates and self.

Ganguly (1969) in West Bengal found that students of humanities were more maladjusted than those belonging to science and commerce. Reddy (1966) found in AP a direct relationship between the level of adjustment in the children and the education of the parents. Higher the level of education of the parents, better was the degree of adjustment in their wards. Ganguly (1969) also found that boys having better economic conditions, better home environment and having better educated parents were better adjusted. Similar result was found by Reddy (1969) when he noted that higher income was associated with better adjustment and upper middle income group boys were least maladjusted.

Wig and Nagpal (1970) found that successful candidates and failures differed on school and college adjustment. Nagpal's (1979) study revealed that academic adjustment was an important correlate of over and under achievement. Shashilata (1977) also observed that 'adjustment to academic environment' was a predictor for success in the examinations. Sri Avinashlingam Home Science College's (1970) study revealed that school going girls had less problems than dropout girls.

2.1.9 Achievement Motivation

Achievement motivation i.e., motive to compete and strive for success is a factor which has been drawing attention of researchers world over. Many researches have been completed to study achievement motivation in relation to other variables. The studies which have some bearing on the present investigation are reviewed below.

Abrol (1977) in his study in Delhi concluded that the n-Ach of boys was significantly greater than that of girls but Pathak (1974) in Kaira, Gujarat found no difference in n-Ach scores between boys and girls whereas Agarwal (1974) in Haryana and Parikh (1976) in Bombay revealed that girls had higher n-Ach scores than boys.

Mehta (1969) in Delhi concluded that the rural and urban boys showed no difference in their n-Ach level, but Mulay (1971) observed in Nagpur that urban students had a significant higher achievement motivation than the rural students.

De and Khan (1969) observed in Patna that science students had higher achievement motivation than arts students.

Bariyal (1966) did not find any significant difference in achievement motivation belonging to various social classes, but Agarwal (1974), Desai (1971) and Parikh (1976) found that n-Ach was positively related to SES. Mulay (1971) observed that among the urban boys those belonging to high SES and higher achievement motivation than those in the average and low SES

groups. The urban girls belonging to high and low SES groups had a higher level of achievement motivation than the rural boys and girls in the corresponding SES groups. Desai (1971) noted that n-Ach score was positively and significantly related with the parental education, but Mehta's (1969) study reported that boys whose fathers' educational level was either high or low showed higher n-Ach level than those whose fathers had received only secondary education. Lyngdoh (1976) noted that the middle SES students had higher n-Ach level than the high SES students.

Sinha (1965) though did not find any significant difference in achievement motivation between high and low achievers; Sinha (1970) and Seetha (1975) observed that high achievers' mean n-Ach score was significantly higher than that of low achievers.

Mehta (1969), Pathak (1974), Tewari and Rai (1976) and Contractor (1977) found that achievement motivation was positively related with scholastic achievement, but Barial (1966) and Ghuman (1976) found no such relationship. On the other hand Dhaliwal (1971) observed that need for achievement bore a curvilinear relationship with over and under achievement.

In abroad, positive and significant relationship between need achievement and academic achievement of the students in schools and colleges has been reported in the studies of McClelland et al. (1953), Bending (1958), Atkinson and Litwin (1960), Meyer et al. (1965), Litting and Yeracaris (1965). On the other hand Ricciuti (1954), Uhlinger and Stephens (1960) found zero order relationship. Inverse or negative relationship between these two factors have been reported by Cole et al. (1962) and Olson (1973).

2.2 STUDIES DEALING WITH CAUSES OF NON-CONTINUANCE AND DROPPING OUT

Pandey (1966) investigated the factors affecting the continuance of girls' education. His investigation revealed that:

1. factors responsible for continuance of girls' education were eligibility for service, the motive for being literate

and civilized, urged for new knowledge and developing the skill of home management;

2. discontinuance of studies was attributed by the respondents to the reasons of parents liking, marriage, lack of interest, absence of further facilities for study, inability of parents to afford further education and distance from the school;
3. parents held that girls' education discontinued mainly due to marriage, poverty of the family, repeated failure of the ward, illness of girls and illness of the mother, distance from school, house work and absence from school.

In Poona University, Kamat and Deshmukh (1963) estimated wastage for science students as approximately 40 per cent. They also found that there was less stagnation among students from non-local schools than among those who come from local schools in the first stage, but the situation was reversed for the second stage and for complete four year course where stagnation was worse among non-local students than local students.

While studying the wastage in Agricultural education in Maharashtra IAMR (1969) observed that the main reasons for dropping out was either lack of finances, or failures, or availability of employment elsewhere. It was further found that majority of dropouts from B.Sc. (Agri) were employed in non-agricultural jobs, whereas the majority of dropouts from M.Sc. (Agri) were employed in jobs like agricultural supervisors, assistants, gram sewaks, garden inspectors and extension workers. Goetsch (1940) found that of the high ability students she studied who were not in college, 64 per cent said they were not in college because of lack of money. Barber (1941) in a study of high ability high school graduates found that 34 per cent of those not in college gave lack of money as the reason.

Schonell et al. (1962) found that students who dropped out or transferred gave loss of interest in their original courses, which they had often undertaken in response to family pressures or incentives that were later withdrawn, following failures as reasons for their respective performances.

Astin (1964) studied the dropouts. In his sample, male students most often dropped out because of indecision about the nature of study, unsatisfactory grades, and burden of being a student, while female students gave up studies mostly because of financial reasons or family responsibilities or because they were tired of student life. The reasons like 'only few of their friends being at college, discouragement from faculty, lack of confidence in ability and termination of grant (women), college not relevant to student's goals and family ties (men)' were given least frequently.

In the studies of Marini (1978), Waite and More (1978) and Howell and Frese (1982) early school leaving often appeared to be related to early marriage and pregnancy. Rumberger's (1983) findings also confirmed this. In his sample females, specially blacks, most often cited marriage and pregnancy as reasons for leaving schools. His other findings were; a large number of males reported leaving school because they disliked it; almost 40 per cent of Hispanic males dropped out for economic reasons - home responsibilities, good job offers, or financial difficulties. Economic reasons were often cited by black and white males as well. Other reasons included lack of ability, poor grades, and expulsions or suspensions.

Having done the reporting of the studies, their results and findings; an overview of inferences, gaps and implications is presented in the pages that follow.

2.3

AN OVERVIEW

Review of the studies relating to the characteristics of the students in terms of the selected variables and the influence of the same on college entry, success and dropping out, suggests that the selected variables have some bearing on these phenomena. A critical look into the results of the above studies reveals several interesting findings and suggests some conclusions.

Research evidence from all over the world reveals that demographic factors like sex, home residence; sociological factors such as educational, occupational and economic level of parents; psychological factors like interest, aspiration, motivation; cognitive factors such as ability, academic performance etc., make considerable differences among the three groups of students viz., college entrants, dropouts, and failures. These factors play important roles in determining whether the child will enter into the realm of higher education or will dropout from education scene. Studies in these respects also reveal that the effects of the variables are not the same for the whole student community. These influences differ depending upon the children's sex, residence, social status and ability.

All the studies are equivocal that the girls are very much under represented in higher education irrespective of their place of residence, or religion or caste. Though everywhere higher education is highly subsidized, yet students have to pay a lot if not for fees, but for books, other educational materials and accomodations. Since almost all the societies are male dominated, parents appear to be more willing to spend money for boys than for girls as an investment. Another corollary that can be drawn from the findings is that girls are less likely to enter the college and are more likely to dropout from education.

From the Bangladeshi and Indian studies, it might appear at a first glance that among the students of higher education a large number of percentage of them belong to rural areas. But before arriving at a definite conclusion, one must remember the demographic condition of that area. Looking into the percentage of rural people in the total population, it can be very safely concluded that the urban people are in highly advantageous position in respect of availing the opportunities of higher education. The overseas studies also provide adequate evidence to conclude that "college persisters are more likely to come from families whose parents are more urban".

Of course, it is not simply the location that matters but the trend of the people with respect to educational attainment norms. For this trend, researchers put forth the point that most of the institutions of higher education are located in urban areas and all the institutions can not provide residential facilities to all its students, nor all the students have the adequate financial means to meet the expenses of the residential hall/hostels. So, the rural students either have to travel a long distance from their homes every day to attend lectures, or they have to find a place in urban areas, which most of the time pose problems of various nature. This is particularly true for developing countries where communication system is not developed to such an extent that students can easily travel a long distance daily to attend their classes and also due to the overcrowding of the cities and towns, residential facilities are rare and costly. Urban students are free from these constraints. Besides these, it is no denying fact that as rural people fail to realise the relevance of higher education for their wards, they are lagging behind their urban counterparts in respect of education. Kanspo

The results of the studies regarding the religion/caste of the students are more or less conclusive. The Indian studies report that students of all stages particularly of higher education, belong to upper caste and the proportion of SC and ST is very low in student's population. The foreign studies indicate that the Jews are at an advantage in this respect. One reason may be this, that the Indian society is traditionally a stratified one. The SC and ST people are both socially and economically backward since ages. Thus the dominating upper caste people avail the benefit of higher education in larger proportions.

The studies regarding the course of study or stream are less conclusive. No definite trend has emerged from this review. Students from backward communities choose arts in greater number, but it was not always the same. Generally the high achievers and students from high socio-economic background choose science subjects irrespective of their sex. This may be explained in

the light of the fact that modern societies are developing more scientific and technical based professions and vocations, which demand high ability. Only the students of high calibre can cope with the intellectual capacity demanded by science subjects. Hence the parents of higher socio-economic classes perceive easily the trend of the society and can provide necessary facilities to their wards for developing children's innate capacity.

9 The findings of the studies reviewed here, regarding the influence of birth order on college attendance are *quite* confusing. Though most of the studies report that first borns are over represented in the institutions of higher education as also in the eminent persons, but when other variables such as sex, family size, SES etc., which exhibit profound influence on college attendance, are controlled by research design, no consistent pattern resulting from birth order emerges. It seems reasonable that the only child or earlier born offsprings have an educational advantage over latter born siblings just in natural course. In a middle class family the eldest child especially a male, tends to bear a major portion of parent's aspirations. But as the first borns are more likely to develop patterns of responsibility, in the lower class family, the elder children frequently have to dropout even before completing high school either in order to help the family economically or atleast to reduce the financial burden.

9 The results that appeared from this review regarding age are interesting. Most of the studies show that younger students do better in examination than the olders. The younger students are also more represented in urban, science, higher SES and higher caste samples than their corresponding counterparts. The reason is obvious. It is probable that superior academic performance of younger students is not as much a function of age as of intelligence. Students who enter college or university earlier than their peers are, most likely to be of superior ability. Harris' (1940) study confirms this. On the other hand,

it is generally believed that older students who are probably more matured, less adventurous and more committed to their educational and occupational goals than the younger students, should do better at least in some subjects which are more closely related to life experience. The findings reported here are general findings and not broken down by subjects studied. Sander's (1963) findings confirm the above possibility where he cites evidence that maturity associated with increasing age and experience seems to be a positive predictor of success in English, philosophy, law, psychology, history and economics.

A review of the relevant studies leads to conclude that the higher the SES, the greater is a given offspring's chances of attending college. The studies in India reveal that, though there are students of low SES, but mostly the students of middle and higher SES are coming to higher education. This is also true for different subgroups like girls, urbans and high castes. The results of the studies, reviewed here, regarding the influence of SES on achievement i.e. success or failure are not at all conclusive. All the three possible types of results have emerged from these studies viz., (a) SES is positively related to achievement; (b) SES is not related to achievement and (c) SES is negatively related to achievement. Though most of the studies in India and abroad demonstrated "SES to be inversely related to dropout", yet opposite and neutral results are also reported. While discussing the effects of SES on success or college attendance one must remember that there are number of other variables which influence these phenomena. Socio-economic status, which itself is an umbrella concept, covers a host of variables some of which are interrelated, some are independent. Most of the studies discussed here reported zero-order relationship. It will be appropriate here to cite Miller's (1971) comment, "Social class per se does not in itself account for the differences. Correlations between social class and attainment are generally of the order of 0.30 to 0.35". Thus the social class accounts for approximately

maximum 12 per cent of variance in academic performance.

9 The positive effect of SES on college attendance or success or persistence is obvious. The no effect or inverse effect can also be explained. While examining the effects of social class on academic achievement particularly, in higher education, one must take into consideration the fact that the considered group is a select one. Not only are they generally of superior ability, but they are also of a comparatively restricted range of social class in the sense that, very few from the lower classes have survived upto this stage. This means that one should not expect social class to have such an overall influence in higher education as for the whole range of population. The inverse effect of SES on achievement might be explained by considering the fact that lower class or working class students are sometimes superior academically, perhaps they are more highly selected (Marris, 1964). They would be less likely to go to college or university unless they were of exceptional ability, and as their education most often involves sacrifices for their parents, they feel they should justify by doing well. More over, as higher education has been regarded especially by the lower class people as a golden opportunity for going up in the world economically and socially, they are highly motivated also.

9 The studies regarding the parental education and its effect on success or dropping out should be viewed in the particular socio-economic background of the place of investigation. This is confirmed when one sees that the modal parental education of the students reported by foreign studies is higher than that reported by Indian studies. Whereas the overseas studies focuss^f on whether a parent had higher education or not, emphasis of Indian studies is on acquisition of literacy. The Indian studies identified differences in the levels of parental education of rural-urban, male-female, forward-backward community students. The general (trend) every- where is that higher the parental education, higher are the

chances of childrens' going to college. With few exception, another general finding that emerges from the review is that parental education is positively related to achievement and inversely related to dropout. Better educated parents may perceive well the role of education in the present day society, encourage their children to achieve high and spend more time with them which can motivate the students and increase their academic ability and ultimately their liking for remaining in the school or college. Higher educated parents might also serve as better role-models, influencing their children's aspirations for more education.

Almost all the studies reviewed in this section unani-
mously report that the students, whose parents are engaged in the occupations which are higher in the occupational ladder such as professional, administrative and other white collar jobs, are more apt to go to college. Though some Indian studies also reported that the parents of the students of backward communities are engaged in agricultural and manual occupations, but looking into their proportion in total population and in higher educational institutions, one can certainly conclude that they are very well under represented. Another fact also appears from this review that students from families of higher occupations achieve more and tendency of dropout is less in their case.

Regarding the family income of the students, review of the relevent studies show that most of the students are from 'higher or middle income group'. These studies also pointed out that 'higher the income, higher the achievement'. All studies, reviewed here, except Merrill's (1964) identify income as one of the important factors of college persistence. Higher levels of parent's earnings reduce the probability of dropping out. As it is also noted earlier that though higher education is highly subsidized, yet the students have to spend for books, other materials, lodging, housing and for other personal expenses. Thus for students, finance or lack of it, is crucial to their being able to get themselves admitted or continued in

or/and

Educated, well-to-do groups have an advantage (unlike SEP, SMP & Carter's R.C.)
 Students take

the institutions of higher education. Obviously, higher education is open only to those who can afford it. The other point that has emerged from the review is that since higher income families live in advanced communities with better financed schools, their children are more likely to have more supportive and rewarding educational expenses. The children from poor families may feel pressure or urge to lessen the burden and to contribute their family economically, so they are more likely to dropout from institutions and seek jobs.

✓ Though the studies regarding the cultural status of the family are not many, but those which are reviewed here, provide adequate evidence to conclude that cultural level is a very important factor which affects college entry and persistence. Although the cultural and economic levels are closely inter-related, they have a far from perfect relationship. For example, cultural level of the home of a school teacher is somewhat higher than the cultural level of the home of a contractor, though the latter certainly earns considerably more than the former. The cultural level of the home is certainly associated with the books, journals, newspapers etc. at home and participation in the social and community works. Thus higher cultural level homes provide more educational facilities to their children, have a cordial and frank parent-child relation, perceive the need of education, which are all helpful for the formation of aspiration and attainment.

Most of the Indian studies reviewed here report that majority of the students of higher education are from single-family system. Though traditionally the Indian families were compact and joint, but with increasing complexity in family and social life, the joint families are rapidly disintegrating into nuclear type. This is evident from reviewed studies (Lal, 1979, Seetharamu, 1982 and Mohanty and Satpathy, 1983). Moreover, a child from single family gets better means as well as encouragement for pursuing his education, but a child from

a joint family many a times is subjected to the decision of many guardians, not only his parents alone, who might not perceive the need of education as the parents would perceive for their children.

No conclusive evidence has been provided by the studies regarding the effect of family size on college entry or achievement or persistence, neither in India, nor abroad. Rather contradictory findings are reported. It seems possible that there are also other variables which intervene particularly the economic level of the family. Most of the studies are not designed to control other variables. It might be logical that children from nuclear size families face less competition for monetary support than the children of large families having same income.

The studies regarding the education of the siblings are not many and no conclusion can be drawn.

In India, studies regarding the students' residence are very few. All of these, except that of Sinha (1965) who studied the variable in relation to achievement, mainly concentrated on description. The overseas studies are also not many. Yet the findings of these small number of studies vary widely. No conclusive decision can be arrived at, regarding the type of students' residence contributing best for the success of the students. In this respect the findings of Holbraad (1962) is worth mentioning where she finds that students who are satisfied with their accomodation do better in examinations.

From the review of a sizable number of studies both Indian and overseas about home environment as well as its different dimensions it has been found that though the findings of Indian studies are divided regarding the effects of home environment on college attendance or on success, most of the overseas studies in general lead to the conclusion that a congenial home atmosphere helps pupils to achieve high. The studies show in general terms that the achieving scholars tend

to come from families where better study facilities exist, parents are harmonious and take interest in the academic career of their children and encourage them by offering adequate freedom in taking decisions with respect to their problem. This is obvious because in such homes, students are getting necessary means for pursuing their studies on one hand, while on the other hand they are less strained and so to say emotionally more stable and more motivated for further achievement and attainment. *plausible*

From the review of researches regarding the past academic performance, the general impression that emerges is that a student who performed better in the secondary stage is a positive case for pursuing the college studies. However, one Indian study (Lal, 1979) reported that higher education was easily available to students of low intellectual calibre, and few other studies also mentioned that with backward class students attending higher education, the calibre was comparatively lower. The implications of both the types of findings are clear. School grade performance of course with some reservations, measures the ability. It is precisely known that students cannot achieve at any particular level without necessary ability, but necessary ability does not need to be as high as is generally believed. Though, success in higher education demands high ability, the students may sometimes, though with comparatively low ability, find themselves in the institutions of higher education by virtue of their superior or inferior financial and social position; e.g. the high SES students find their way with their own means, while the state provides some concessions, in form of reservations to the backward class students for upgrading them.

No definite trend has emerged regarding the influence of co-curricular interests on achievement or dropping out from the studies reviewed, as they are not conclusive. It is reasonable to assume that the influence of participation in co-curricular activities on the performance depends a greatly *Deep. 49*

on how the students budget their time. From the reviewed studies it appears to be of great importance for students to exercise careful judgement about their allocation of time to academic and co-curricular activities.

The research reports, which were reviewed in this section, find that in general, the students of higher education possess higher level of educational aspirations. Also the level of educational aspiration varies with students' sex, residence, religion/caste, SES. College attendance and completion are also found to be the functions of educational aspiration even when one or more intervening variables are controlled. But from review, another point that emerges is i.e., that the students generally aspire to a level which sometimes seems to be beyond their ability or socio-economic conditions.

The studies reviewed here regarding occupational aspiration lead to some interesting conclusions. In general, the students aspire for jobs, which are on the higher side of the occupational ladder. Boys' aspirations are higher than girls' though Lyngdoh (1976) found the contrary in Meghalaya. This may be explained by the fact that Lyngdoh's sample was drawn from an area which is predominately a tribal one where matrilocal society exists. The studies also show that girls are more decisive in their choice in comparison to boys, they tend to choose different types of jobs and from a smaller range of jobs. The occupational aspirations of students also vary with their SES, religion/caste. All these are understandable, if one remembers the structure of the traditional societies. Fewer real vocational alternatives are open to women and hence they are compelled to centre their choices on a limited range of jobs. The social pressures on males to succeed in occupational sphere produce higher aspirations and expectations among males than females for the educational attainment for challenging occupational achievement.

The studies regarding the achievement motivation are not at all conclusive. From the review no definite patterns was

found about the n-Ach of boys and girls, urban and rural students or students of various SES and religion/caste. Even regarding the effect of n-Ach on academic achievement, no logical conclusion can be drawn.

The reviewed studies relating to institutional adjustment show that adjustment itself is a function of many other variables. Of course, from the studies, the general trend that appears is that the better adjusted students perform better and are less likely to discontinue their education.

Though studies regarding the causes of non-continuance and dropouts reviewed in this chapter are few, yet many factors emerged from these studies as responsible for non-continuance or dropping out. Some of the causes are related to the persons themselves, some are with their families, while others are related to institutions. When students are interviewed about the circumstances which have led to dropping out it can not be assumed that their answers are entirely objective, because consciously or unconsciously they employ ego defence mechanism and of these rationalization is probably the main. Of course, the reasons students give must be treated with respect, while allowing for some inevitable rationalization for failure.

Differences in research design and sampling would account for some of the difference in emphasis between findings, but similar factors were shown to be operating in almost all the studies. The most important factor which emerged as responsible for dropping out is poverty which itself counts several other factors such as lack of suitable study facilities, uncongenial home environment, unsatisfactory residence, etc., along with other factors like lack of interest in study, social and psychological disturbances. For girls, besides the social constraints, early marriage is an important factor for discontinuance.

2.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PRESENT STUDY ✓

In summary, it may be stated that though the research evidence in respect of the variables is not necessarily conclusive and definite, yet they have contributed a lot to the understanding of the problem. However, it is important to critically examine some of the research gaps present in the area and its implication for the present study.

Though in the sub-continent, there are studies regarding the description of students of higher and secondary education; about the failures and dropouts at different stages of education, but the investigator was unable to locate even a single study which dealt directly with the factors affecting the entry into higher education. It has also been seen that a good number of studies dealt with one, two, or three factor-variables only. The findings are therefore scattered and unconnected. ✓ Though the above review suggests the existence of significant relationship among the selected variables, it is possible that some of the relationships are due to the influence of other intervening variables. ✓ Studies in which the possible influence of other variable(s) on the relationship of two variables, are held constant, are not many. Such controlling of variables are often important in the field of education and psychology, if one wants to find the true relationship between two variables. A third important gap emerged from the review is that there is a significant variation in the methodology, both in the tools and methods employed for collection of data and in the analysis of data. Many researchers used non-parametric techniques like percentage analysis and chi-square, while few used correlation and regression analysis and a very few recent studies employed path analysis to identify direct and mediated effects of variables. ✓ Quite a good number of studies also lacked appropriate sample techniques. ✓ Another important gap is that though the process of college entry appears to be multidimensional there is hardly any study in which the influence of a

group of variables was simultaneously investigated and their relative influence established.

The immediate implications of the above findings of the review and the located gaps which have a bearing on the present study are as under:

1. Since the area of "entry into higher education" is a new and relatively unexplored one, attempt should be made to organise all the available research findings within a broad framework. This is also necessary to direct future research in a meaningful way. A tentative theoretical framework has to be developed so that a set of logical relationships can be hypothesized and tested empirically.
2. The factors affecting the college entry seems to be multiple. They include characteristics which are both external and internal to the individual. Therefore, any investigation which aims at studying the phenomenon of college entry must include as many significant variables as possible.
3. Different researchers employed different psychometric techniques for measuring the factor-variables quantitatively. Depending upon the purpose of the study, suitable instruments are to be developed to yield data which can be subjected to appropriate statistical techniques.

Having been reviewed the related researches, critically examined the findings, discussed the implications for present investigation the theoretical framework that has been developed in the light of the objectives of the present study and this review, is presented in the next chapter.