Introduction
INTRODUCTION

The word ‘Environment’ refers to everything around us: the air, the water, the land, plants, animals and microorganism. Environment includes the abiotic and biotic factors. Abiotic are non-living factors and include physical factors. Biotic are the living factors and include species of animals and plants. The individuals of same species and of different species are included in it. Tagiuri defined climate and atmosphere as summary concepts dealing with the total environmental quality within an organisation. According to Tagiuri, dimensions of an environment include its ecology (the physical and material aspects), its milieu (the social dimension concerned with the presence of persons and groups), its social system (the social dimension concerned with the patterned relationships of persons and groups), and its culture (the social dimension concerned with belief systems, values, cognitive structures and meaning).

Moos (1974) and Insel and Moos (1974) gave their delineation of human environments as social ecology which involves human interactions with physical and social dimensions of the environment. In a most general way, environment is that which surrounds, which exists around us. It covers all the outside factors that have acted on the individuals, since he began life. The environment is everything that affects the individual except his genes. Infact environment is an outside force; it exists everywhere around the individual and affects the growth, development, behaviour, nature and the very existence of an individual.

During the late 1950’s, a new line of inquiry appeared in the educational and social sciences, that brought the term ‘Environment’ into prominent popular usage. The term ‘environment’ is recognised as a complex system of situational dimensions that exert an influence upon participating individuals. Situational dimensions may be factors of social, physical, emotional and intellectual significance. These considerations are in accordance with Bloom (1964) and Guralnik (1975). Bloom characterised environment as ...... the conditions, forces, and external stimuli which impinge on the individuals. These may be physical, social as well as intellectual forces and conditions.

Education, in a controlled environment, is essential for human development. School
Introduction

Introduction is a special environment where a certain quality of life and certain type of activities and occupations are provided with the job of securing child’s development on desirable lines. The conduct of any individual at any one time depends in large measure on what objects are in his environment to which he has to respond. Within certain limits, the child’s behaviour can be directed and controlled by setting the stage as it were. And over a period of time, he will tend to develop habits of responding in accustomed ways to the kinds of things, he is used to even seeking them out if they are not immediately present. If a poor environment is responsible for mental retardation and if effects are reversible, then any improvement in the child’s environment must lead him to a high performance in academic tests.

The environment, therefore, even apart from verbal directions and regulations, is an important aspect of education and contributes to the satisfaction of the pupil’s needs, the development of his attitudes and the nature of the learning that takes place.

Carter V. Good (1959) defined it as ‘the sum of all physical, social, emotional and mental factors that contribute to the total teaching-learning situations.

1.1 ENVIRONMENTAL INFLUENCES

Until the early 1960s, it was not uncommon for individuals writing about life in classrooms to act as though, schools were detached from the world around them. Classroom activities were treated as if they resulted exclusively from the intentions of teachers, school officials, and students. In recent years educators and researchers have begun to note that intentions are not always realized. Their efforts to explain this fact have led them to investigate the impact of environmental influences.

Environmental influences can be divided into at least seven categories: technological, legal, political, economic, demographic, ecological and cultural (Duke 1979b). These influences rarely operate in isolation from each other. Together they help to mould the expectations, that teachers and students bring to school, shape the nature of formal constraints on their conduct, and determine the resources to which they have access.

1.1.1 Technological Influences

While many teachers insist that teaching is more an art than science, they nonetheless have
come to rely heavily on technological developments. Some technological influences on classroom management are so pervasive that it may be difficult for most teachers to realise they’re taking place. These influences foster attitudes and predispositions, which guide how teachers think about what they do.

Another set of technological influences on classroom management takes the form of systematic research based strategies for dealing with student motivation and behaviour problems. A third form of technological influence comes in the form of time-saving and labour-saving equipment. Computers are a current example. In class, micro computers can be used to individualized students learning, thus reducing the likelihood of student frustration over the pace of instruction. Teachers have more time to work intensively with particular students. At a school level, computers can be used for monitoring student attendance, grading and other record-keeping, thus reducing teachers’ information-processing tasks.

Television also illustrates the mixed impact of new technology.

A final type of technological influence comes in the form of change in the learning environment. Architects and design specialists exert a direct impact on classroom management by determining how comfortable, well-lit, vandal-proof and conducive to teaching and learning these schools and classrooms are:

1.1.2 Legal Influences

Courts of law have tended to play a more active role in schools in industrialised nations than elsewhere. Elementary and secondary education in many under-developed countries is subject to highly centralized federal and state authority. Legal influences in the developed countries take several forms, viz: trespassing on the constitutional rights of students. Professional malpractices and litigation concerning interpretations of teacher contracts.

1.1.3 Political Influences

Schools have been shaped by political influences in some countries. Political decisions having a direct bearing on the nature of classroom management, designation of a school leaving age, the determination of how schools will be financed and the specification of societal expectations for schools and students. The decision to “mainstream” handicapped
students in regular classrooms etc. was another political decision, with major implications for classroom management.

1.1.4 Economic Influences

The quality of schooling available to a particular group of students is a function, in large measure, of the fiscal resources the community is willing to allocate to education. Money buys talented teachers and administrators, learning materials and facilities. Classroom management is not immune to the economic behaviour of the citizenry or to fluctuations in the economy.

The effects may be: removal of staff members increase in the work load of teachers, less time for individual attention to students, frustration and restlessness among students, increase in behaviour problems, less time for direct instruction and low level of achievement.

1.1.5 Demographic Influences

Classroom management is subject to a variety of demographic influences, ranging from fluctuations in the birth rate to changes in the types of students with whom teachers must work. For example, following the Second World War, the birth rate rose dramatically in many industrialized nations. Unprepared for the rapid growth in students, school systems lacked adequate facilities and appropriately trained teachers. It is conceivable that part of the purported increase in student behaviour problems during the 1960s and early 1970s can be attributed directly to overcrowding and lack of skilled personnel. Demographic changes not only seem to have influenced the behaviour problems, with which teachers must deal and the nature of their relationships with parents, but the way classroom resources are allocated.

1.1.6 Ecological Influences

Ecological influences include the organisations that interact with schools on a regular basis. Among the organisations that can partially exert an influence on classroom management are large corporations, local business, foundations, interest groups, lobbies and agencies at various levels of government. A variety of agencies - public and private.
have specialised in providing services to troubled youth. As a result, in many industrialised nations, teachers can often turn for assistance to child welfare workers, probation officials, juvenile justice specialists, psychiatric social workers and paediatricians specialising in behaviour problems as well as school-based guidance personnel, school psychologists, peer counsellors, and community liaisons.

1.1.7 Cultural Influences

Cultural influences on classroom management though often among the most pervasive and potent, are difficult to identify. They involve phenomenon such as norms, values, and beliefs about the young, authority, society and learning. Classroom management is subject to cultural influence through the expectations that teachers and students bring to class.

1.2 LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

The learning environment consists of all those physical-sensory elements such as lighting, colour, sound, space, furniture and so on that characterise the place in which a student is expected to learn. This surrounding should be designed so that learning may proceed with maximum stress and maximum effectiveness. Thus, it should promote sensory comfort and high auditory and visual acuity; and its dimensions and physical layout should accommodate scheduled activities, allow for people’s sense of personal space and promote desirable patterns of social interactions and communications.

In addition to supporting human functioning, the learning environment must accommodate the equipments, tools and materials that are used in education and training. The introduction of these media, be it chalkboard, computer terminal, video or film display, inevitably alters the nature of the environment. When media is prudently integrated into the learning environment, it may be effectively employed in ways that are coordinated with basic human sensory processes. However, when media technology adds glare, noise or excessive heat to the learning situation, it vitiates the design of that environment and interferes with those same processes.

Learning environment thus depends upon physical facilities and human functioning.
1.2.1 The Physical Facilities

The physical facilities which have been considered important in affecting learning environment have been discussed below.

1.2.1.1 Room Characteristics Room Size and Seating Configuration

The size of teaching-learning space should be such that it accommodates the programmed number of occupants and provides additional space for its intended activities. Seating capacity and configuration are major factors in determining room size.

- **Room shape and Viewing**: A room’s shape is a major factor contributing to a space's aesthetic character, its overall sense of perceptual appropriateness, and the kind of social interaction pattern which its planners desire to promote among its occupants. In rooms planned for extensive media use, the configuration of a room and its viewing area can be one of the most significant factors contributing to the effectiveness of the display system, the viewer’s comfort and the strength and clarity of the instructor’s voice.

- **Room Shape**: A room’s shape affects its acoustics. The orientation of a room’s walls, ceiling and floor should be such that sound is effected from the front of the room towards the back. Other major features affecting a room’s acoustical acceptability include its sonic isolation from neighbouring spaces and the general background noise level produced by its architectural support systems, for example, lighting and so on.

1.2.1.2 Sound Systems

Voice and programme amplification systems can contributed to the effectiveness of large group instruction and the use of audio visual materials. A good sound reinforcement system should have sufficient power, good sensitivity, low distortion and smooth frequency response. Ideally, reinforced sound should appear to emanate from where the teacher/lecturer is standing or, in the case of an audiovisual presentation. Certain room shapes are best served by particular types of sound systems.
1.2.1.3 Illumination

Educational spaces require lighting that produces a pattern of brightness from room surfaces that is, aesthetically pleasing and that promotes good depth perception. They also require enough illumination on major and supplementary task areas such as chalkboards, desks etc. Other work surface to allow students to complete their visual task in comforts and with a high degree of visual efficiency. Control of all sources of illumination is imperative particularly in rooms where media is used.

1.2.1.4 Brightness contrast ratios (BCR)

The BCR of large adjoining areas under moderate to high illumination levels should fall somewhere between 1:1 and 3:1.

1.2.1.5 Glare

A luminous condition that brings about discomfort and/or a reduction in visual activity, is caused by either an unduly bright source of light in the visual field (Kaufman 1981).

1.2.1.6 Flicker

All light sources which produce noticeable and discomforting flicker should be either modified or eliminated from the classroom.

1.2.1.7 Windows

The windowless classroom eliminates the glare and extreme brightness contrasts caused by many window exposures. Other advantages frequently cited are the elimination of outside noise and visual distraction and better thermal control. Other benefits include, safeguarding the building and students from vandalism and air-pollution factors currently plaguing urban centre schools.

1.2.1.8 Colour

When used properly and combined with the right kind of illumination, colour can be an effective tool for the facility designer and the classroom teacher. It has relatively predictable behavioural concomitants both as a surface treatment and as an illuminant. Different colours evoke different psychological awareness levels and emotional attitudinal responses (Birren 1969). as well as producing different psychological effects which can
Introduction

be used effectively by the facility designer in his/her treatment of the school interior and by the classroom teacher in the arrangement of displays and decoration of the school’s or training centre’s work and study environment.

1.2.1.9 Thermal Factors

The nature of the thermal exchange between people and their surroundings is a major factor affecting mental alertness, level of comfort, and effectiveness with which they complete their tasks. Consequently, the learning environment must be designed with thermal conditions that promote study and work.

1.2.1.10 Display System

One of the most important components of the learning environment and particularly of spaces used extensively for media presentation, is the display system. Display systems range in sophistication from a basic set up, which typically include a television monitor, a couple of projectors, and a matter white screen, to highly complex front and rear projection multimedia systems.

1.2.2 Human Functioning

Out of the human resources that require arrangement in a learning environment are:

- Teacher input
- Student input

1.2.2.1 Teacher input

The role of the teacher in our modern and complicated system of education today is indeed an important and complex one. No longer can the teacher become successful by simply knowing his subject well and by directing the teaching process and decision-making of students equally well. Today, it seems imperative that the teacher must also function effectively and be evaluated by his peers and by the public as an individual in a school and in a community. Teaching is a complex process which takes many forms with no limits. Effective teaching depends on highly competent teachers, trained in required skills and right type of behaviour.

The qualities of citizens depends on the fundamental measures in the quality of the teachers. The Secondary Education commission in its report (1952-53) has rightly
Introduction

recognized the place of teacher. The resolution on National Education Policy has also recognised this fact in the following words - “of all the factors which determine the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the teacher is undoubtedly the most important. His effective working will bring such important national factors as social cohesions and movement towards socialistic society, economic and cultural development and national security.” The nation’s political resources are also in the ultimate analysis development to a great extent upon the kind of teachers, they have.

The crucial and vital importance of teachers in the man making process can not be over estimated. In a true sense, the teacher is a guide, who is directing the journey of those whom he teaches. Taking into consideration, the economic and social needs of the present situation of our country, effective or competent teachers appear to be essential for the hope and promises of our society, who will help the students, become self-sufficient, useful and resourceful members of the nation. The effective teacher leaves a very strong impression upon the young minds of the pupils by his several traits like personality, creativity, intelligence, emotional maturity, self-concept attitude etc. Regarding the personality characteristics, the teacher can choose to be friendly, sympathetic, sarcastic, antagonistic, poised, tolerant, social adjustable or whatever he chooses. A happy, friendly, tolerant teacher is likely to have pupils who are happy, friendly and tolerant.

Other Personality factors of a teacher also influence the classroom climate. The emotional maturity of a teacher can also affect the classroom climate. Since the teacher is largely responsible for his adjustment to the world in which he lives and works, he should be familiar with some of the important aspects of good mental health. In the place, a teacher who is emotionally stable and well-adjusted secure a large measure of satisfaction out of life. Certainly his relationship with pupils, school and community will be good and provide satisfaction.

Teaching-learning process requires a high level of ability to think rationally and do effectively. Intelligence is required to think over the problems and to solve it. Those considering teaching as a career should be intellectually curious, they should be able to
explore new areas of knowledge. Unless the teachers are equipped with high intellect, the problems which arise everyday in classroom, can’t be solved. Teacher is considered as future nation-builder especially when the country is at the crucial stage of development and instrumental in bringing about a revolution in various facets of human life. This work is done only when teachers are effective and efficient. Teaching is effective to the extent that the teacher acts in ways that are favourable to the development of basic skills, understanding, work-habits, desirable attitudes, value judgement and adequate personal adjustment of the pupils.

Anand (1974) opined that job satisfaction, and Sharma (1974) reported that academic performance of teachers were very important determinants of classroom behaviour of teachers and their relationship with their students.

Evertson, Anderson and Brophy (1978) have stated that students who performed better also expressed favourable attitudes towards the subject and classroom teachers. Some of the conclusions reached by Evertson Anderson and Brophy (1978), as to how effective teachers behave in the classroom were:

- More successful teachers emphasised class-discussion, lectures and drill and spent less time using individualised instructional technique.
- More successful teachers were highly task-oriented in their instruction (although there were indications that personal interest in students and tolerance of some distractions were affective in low-ability classes).
- More successful teachers were more active (e.g. they had more instructions with students and tended to dominate patterns of interaction).
- More successful teachers made more extensive use of praise during class discussion and treated students contributions with respect.

Bhatia (1977) assessed the dominative and integrative behaviour of teachers in contact with the children. Dominative behaviour is exemplified by force, commands, threats, blame and attacks against the other person by inflexibility and rigidity and an urge to make others behave according to one’s own desires. Dominative behaviour thus kills the spirit of freedom, initiative, spontaneity and promotes authoritarian attitudes. On the other hand, integrative behaviour is one in which one makes a request to another person if something has to be done, behaviour is flexible and fosters a spirit of co-operation, learning and scientific enquiry. The results of these earlier studies reported that teachers who behaved
in a dominative manner made the classroom social climate generally dominative where students became more compliant to teacher but autocratic in their attitudes towards each other. On the other hand, integrative behaviour on the part of teacher promoted integrative behaviour among pupils who became more spontaneous, co-operative and developed greater social awareness.

1.2.2.2 Student Input

The role of classroom teacher in education is central. The teacher is, after all, the point of contact between the educational system and the pupil. The impact of any educational programme or innovation on the pupil operates through the pupil’s teacher. It is, therefore, quite accurate to say that a school’s effectiveness directly depends upon the effectiveness of its teachers. This is not a teacher characteristic, but it has a great deal to do with how effective the teacher is, since the amount a pupil learns depends on what the pupil does (what experience he or she has). Any effect the teacher has on pupil learning must result from some effect the teacher has on the pupils learning experiences.

Sorenson (1977) quoted a study regarding specific teacher behaviour that students respond favourably to. The study showed that students liked teachers who were courteous, friendly and approachable; possessed a sense of humour; showed interest in all the students; gave help kindly, sincerely and patiently and maintained good discipline.

Personality characteristics which students disliked in teachers were being grouchy or irritable, having fits of temper; being over critical and scolding sarcastically; having pets and disliking or picking on students; being unfair; being dull; and taking a negative approach to teaching and learning problems by maintaining poor discipline.

A teacher interacts with students by speaking, writing or other physical gestures. Students may use the same means of interacting, but it is the teacher, who usually controls the kind and amount of interactions.

Good and Groups (1975) studied the role of teacher-pupil rapport in good teaching by asking pupils to evaluate their classroom climate. They reported that a good rapport was predictive of pupil’s achievement: the better the rapport, the more the students achieved.
Teacher’s classroom behaviour thus plays a decisive role in shaping the classroom climate, which may influence learning outcome of the student.

Panda (1988) concluded that teacher’s perception of the pupil and pupil’s perception of the teacher influence each other reciprocally. Situational factors, personality factors and behaviour patterns may generate stimulating or inhibiting influences. The cumulative effect of all these complexes and interlocking patterns in a sociological and psychological frame work of classroom create a climate.

1.3 IMPACT OF LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

The environment in which the child lives, handles and fights is surely the most familiar element which can be exploited for making the child’s learning effective. It has been rightly observed that children need good environment for effective learning. The various learning opportunities in the environmental career offer wide scope for teaching about environment. Attention to environmental matters in their formative years will influence the future social behaviour and enable them to become more responsible citizens of the society.

The definition given by Johnson (1970) has been accepted for the study of learning environment of the schools. According to Johnson, “The school may be viewed as an organisation that receives two types of inputs from its environment.

- Students and
- Teachers, materials, building, money and other resources.

The school uses the teachers, materials and buildings to transform uneducated children into socialised self actualising, skilled young adults, which then, returns to the environment to enter economic occupational organisation.” Keeping this view in mind, the investigator planned to study the students, teachers, material equipments and other resources in relation to learning environment.

Learning environment is one, which arranges human and non-human resources in an efficient manner to bring about effective student learning. The Educational environment of a school may be described as one in which intellectual, creative, physical and productive powers of a child blossom and flourish to their full. Such an environment motivates the
students to learn, to play and to make all kinds of concentrated efforts to achieve their scholastic goals. Educational environment possesses the potentiality of stimulating the student to develop their power of analysis, synthesis, conceptual thinking and critical evaluation. It inspires independent self-study and encourages originality and creativity.

The environment of school is a part of the educational system and also the part of the society. If changes take place in society’s values, norms or standards, the environment of school is bound to be affected. The environment of school in turn will effect the workers in the field that is the teachers, students and others.

It is a known fact that education is a product of the interaction of many factors or variables, stemming from the individual and the environment. Schools are formal agencies for educating the young, according to the acceptable social values and the attitudes of the society. Whatever contributes to the proper and adequate realisation of the social objectives, the educational environment must be given serious consideration by those whose mission is to educate the young people of the community. The environment of school has a serious impact upon the pupils, because educationists, as the appointed agents of society, help the youth in developing intellectual, physical, social, moral and emotional faculties to make the boy fit member of the society.

School environment reflects the history of internal and external struggle, the type of people, the organisation attracts, its work process, the mode of communication, the exercise of authority within the system. In school environment, the focus is generally on the interpersonal relationship between members and the organisation. The students performance in academic setting also has been related to an interaction between students personality and demands of the curriculum, situational stress, instructors personality and the type of examination.

It is a fact that, the children of the community are influenced by the environment, in which they grow up and in which they are taught. There are many constituents of environment, like the school plant, rules and regulations, teacher-student relationships, quality and qualifications of teachers and other feelings about the school.
Introduction

Time has, therefore, come to take into account the environmental variables and endeavour to develop instruments to measure the difference of environmental traits with a view to achieving a full understanding of all the forces that interact to produce an educational system. It is clear that the environment of school profoundly affects the whole intellectual process academically, socially, emotionally, physically and such an environment is worthy to study. In general, it is felt that environment affects intellectual development mainly as ‘Threshold Variable’; it is extremely important in the lower ranges of ability. In other words, it operates quite like a diet in relation to physical growth.

1.4 DIMENSIONS OF LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

There is a clear evidence based on observation and experience at first hand as well as from the products of educational institutions, that schools and colleges differ in a great deal in educational environment. According to Stern (1963), the environment of schools, colleges ranges along a continuum from low to high.

1.4.1 High Educational Environment

- Intellectual orientation: School with high educational environment tend to emphasize scholarly interests as an end in themselves. Subject matter seems to be of great importance than emotional attachment to the ‘Almamater.’ Working hard for the high grade is not usual in class discussions, papers and examinations. The emphasis is on breadth of understanding, perceptive and critical judgement.

Students in such schools are likely to insist on greater academic freedom to select the course of their own choice, to enhance interest in modern art and a student who insists on analysing and classifying are not likely to be regarded as odd students of a more independent mind. Students who are concerned with developing their own personal and private system of values are not uncommon. Students don’t always accept what the teachers have to offer and are likely to argue with the teacher. They like to understand themselves and others: better and also like to read stories, try to show what people really think and feel themselves. They are also interested in learning about the cases of some of society vs social and political problems. They give all their energy to whatever they happen to be
engaged in. exerting themselves to the utmost for something usually important or enjoyable. They are likely to put a lot of energy and enthusiasm into their teaching and are prepared to accept interruption from students who disagree.

- **Social Relationship**: Schools with intellectual orientation also tend to emphasize a high degree of personal independence for their students, as well as forms of emotional expression associated with the social effectiveness. Relationship between the teacher and student are more intimate and less likely to be confined to bureaucratic side. There is a high regard for nonconformity and intellectual freedom. Students’ organisations are not closely supervised and the students are encouraged to be independent and individualistic. Written excuses are not required for absence from class. Grade lists are not publicly posted. Student leaders have no special privileges.

- **Physical Standards**: The school plant is befitting and meets the requirements of the physical development of the students. There are adequate sports and recreation facilities where the students play on their own. They do not like to be guided as to which game they should play. The teachers also do not insist on them any particular game. The competitions in all the games are organised at class, house and school level. Maximum participation is encouraged and not forced.

1.4.2 Low Educational Environment

In the school, characterised by low educational environment, there are many similarities with the high type of environment, but the differences are serious and the emphasis is not the same.

- **Intellectual Orientation**: Education in a school characterised by low educational environment, tends to make students more practical and realistic. The future goals of the students stress job security, family happiness and good citizenship. There is little emphasis and orientation for graduate work. The percentage of students who opt for high studies is very low. Students here follow more closely a rigid time and a class schedule. There are a few discussions and debates. There is less interest in Art and Music and less individuality in choosing courses. Book dealing with psychological
problems or personal values are rarely read or discussed.

- **Social Relationship**: Students quickly learn what is expected of them, what rules and regulations are to be observed. The academic process is more narrowly and lightly organised and there is an evidence of greater separation between the student peer culture and academic community. Teachers take attendance regularly and classes meet only at their appointed times and places. The classes are as orderly as the buildings which usually appear well kept.

  Students papers and reports must be neat and examination results are usually posted publically. There is uniformity of behaviour pattern among the students body and few students try to pattern themselves after outstanding people they admire. They show little enthusiasm for examination. They also share a variety of extra-curricular activities. These students enjoy talking with younger people about things they like to do and the way they feel about things. Their practical bent finds expression in skills like type-writing, knitting, carpentry and they are anxious to prove themselves efficient and successful in practical affairs. They feel embarrassed, when people laugh at their mistakes.

- **Physical Standards**: They like to participate in the games and sports and recreational activities, but they find it a problem to decide as to which game to play and are capable of excelling in that. They need to be guided and physical activities are followed under a rigid programme.

- **Administrative and Organisational Differences**: Administration and organisation of institutions having low educational environment do not cultivate in students higher mental processes. Students’ needs are not given more recognition. Participation of students in the school administration through project system is not encouraged and then opinions are not invited on important issues.

- **Students Activities**: The institutions having low educational environment offer a variety of technical courses and specialised fields. Special emphasis is markedly instrumental. Such activities of various kinds are prominent in high educational environment institutions. Student Government, dormitory social activities and house
Introductory functions are of particular importance in such schools. Keeves (1972) has proposed three powerful dimensions of educational environment of the school, the home and the peer groups.

- **The structural dimension** indicates that occupational status, educational level, income and size of the family belong to the home and expenditure per student, school type, class size and the school size are common structural variables concerned with school environment. They may not influence educational outcomes directly, yet they are correlated with other components of the environment and may be seen as exerting an indirect influence.

- **The attitudinal dimension** is characterised by attitudes, objectives and expectations held by the Principal, tutor in the environment.

- **The process dimension** is related to the things done by parents, teachers and friends to which the child attends or reacts and influences the child’s educational performance. Moos (1973) has also conceptualised three dimensions of school environments:

  - **Relationship dimension**, which identifies the nature and intensity of personal relationships within the environment. It assesses the extent to which individuals are involved in the environment and the extent to which they support and help each other.

  - **Personal development and goal-orientation dimensions** that considers the potential or opportunity in the environment for personal growth and development of self-esteem. The precise nature of this dimension, varies somewhat among different environments and depends mainly on the goals of a particular environment.

  - **System maintenance and system change dimension** which examines the extent to which the environment is orderly and clear in its expectations, maintains control and is responsive to change.

The present study takes a position without apology that the learning environment is of serious importance to the students who live and grow in that atmosphere as well as to the authorities, who are responsible for their administration and the teaching staff whose duty is to maintain the atmosphere, particularly in schools.
1.5 TYPES OF SCHOOLS

The organisational pattern of the schools, in India, is of many types. Some schools are residential, some are non-residential. There are schools which are day-boarding. Due to different organisational patterns, the learning environment of these schools is different.

1.5.1 Residential and Non-Residential Schools

By residential schools we mean those schools where the students stay in hostel. Residential schools involve the students living with their teachers as family members. The teacher takes full responsibility for the growth and development of his wards. Once a child is admitted to the school, he/she is not permitted to leave the school premises till he/she has completed his/her education. Apart from parents, no outsider is permitted to meet the students in the school. Students however, can write letters to their parents. If a child is ill, he/she is attended by the doctor of the institution. Residential school children live under protected conditions away from society and its problems. They also lack opportunities for varied mental experiences.

Whereas the children in the non-residential school live with their parents and their life outside the school is comparatively free. Moreover the non-residential school children are exposed to the problems of society and are encouraged to move about and see the country for themselves. The comparison of these two types of schools clearly indicates that the students in the non-residential schools live and study under flexible and varied conditions. Whereas, residential school children have to live under inflexible and narrow environment.

1.5.1.1 Novodaya Vidyalayas (Central Government Residential Schools)

In pursuance of the directions of the National Policy on Education 1986, the Government of India has launched a scheme to establish one Navodaya Vidyalaya in each of the 450 districts in the country. Two hundred and forty six Navodaya Vidyalayas covering 22 States and 7 Union Territories had been established by 1988. Navodaya Vidyalayas are co-educational. Efforts are made to ensure that at least one third of the students in each Navodaya Vidyalaya are girls.
Reservation of seats, in favour of children belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is provided in proportion to their population in the concerned district, provided that in no district such reservation is less than the national average. Atleast 75% of the seats in a district are filled by candidates selected from rural areas and the remaining seats are filled from the urban areas of the district.

A candidate seeking under the rural quota must have studied in classes III, IV and V completing full academic sessions without repetition in class, gap and/or break from recognised school located in rural areas. These schools are fully financed by Government of India through an autonomous organisation, Navodaya Vidyalaya Samiti. The medium of instruction in Navodaya Vidyalaya is the mother tongue/regiona l language upto class VII and English thereafter for Maths, Science and Hindi for Social Science. Students of the Novadaya Vidyalayas appear for X and XII class examination of Central Board of Secondary Education.

A maximum of eighty students are admitted in class VI in each Vidyalaya, subject to availability of suitable candidates. The samiti reserves the right to reduce the seats to 40. The basis of admission to Navodaya Vidyalayas is a test conducted by NCERT. The medium of the test is the mother tongue or regional language. Test is largely of non-verbal nature, class neutral and so designed as to ensure that talented students from rural schools are able to complete without suffering a disadvantage.

1.5.1.2 Privately Managed Residential Schools

These schools are open to all Children, irrespective of caste, creed or community. Students are admitted at the age of eleven on the result of an entrance test. An outstanding team of teachers is attracted to the schools by offering them scales of salaries better than those prevailing in other institutions. This gave rise to a chain of public schools in India. At present, there are countless residential public schools in India. The house in these schools is the administrative unit and provides the family atmosphere of which the headmaster is head. It is his function to get to know each student thoroughly by seeking...
his/her confidence and taking a personal interest in them. Games occupy an important place as a means of physical development and character training. The players are taught to take defeat sportingly and to congratulate winners. Students, particularly boys, over a certain age are required to do a quota of social service every week. Editing a paper, running the tuckshop, helping in the literary and some form of manual work, such as preparing the school gardens for vegetables or sweeping up leaves.

Facilities are also offered for spare time activities such as music, carpentry, photography, swimming, riding, hiking, shooting, stamp collecting, gardening etc. The students are taught to write neatly and to concentrate on their work. They are also taught to take notes methodically and to develop the capacity for clear expression.

Although the public schools are a pleasant contrast to the overcrowded and ill-equipped average schools, yet they do not escape the criticism that they tend to create a class of young men/women who develop a superiority complex, which may not be encouraged in a democratic set up. Even then, all-round education is possible in the public schools, because they are residential.

1.5.1.3 Non-Residential Schools (Central Government Schools/Kendriya Vidyalayas)

In Nov. 1962, the Government of India approved the scheme to provide educational facilities for children of the Defence Personnels and Central Government Employees liable to transfer, subject inter alia to the conditions that-

(i) the new schools would be started only at those places where it was essential to do so (i.e. places having concentration of transferable Defence Personnels and Central School Employees and (ii) the existing schools run in defence etc. establishment would be utilized as far as possible.

The idea for encouraging the growth of secondary schools with a common syllabus and medium of instruction for the benefit of the children of Central Government Employees, liable to frequent transfer, was first moted by the second Central Pay Commission who recommended provisions of this facility by Government for its
employees, the education of whose children occasionally suffered great setbacks due to their frequent and sudden transfers in the public interest. This gained momentum following the war that started in Oct., 1962 and the consequent declaration of “National Emergency and Conditions” created by it. The need to provide adequate schooling facilities for the children of the Defence personnel and transferable Government servants became paramount. Accordingly, the Government of India decided to implement this recommendation of the pay commission by launching the scheme of establishing about hundred Kendriya Vidyalayas at different places in the country having large concentration of transferable in the Central Government employees including defence personnel.

1.5.1.4 Non-residential schools (Privately managed Public Schools)

In the non-residential public school, students are admitted at the age of 5 years to the preparatory class. They can go up to the tenth class or twelfth class by yearly promotions. The school staff is highly qualified and trained in the modern techniques of imparting instructions. They also avail themselves of the “School broadcast” programme of All India Radio and frequently display educational films before the students. In teaching, their main emphasis is on Science, Mathematics and Social Studies. The medium of instruction is English/Hindi of these schools. Students come to the school in the uniform prescribed. Classes are held in adequately furnished rooms.

In addition, two to three excursions are arranged for each class every year. Inter-house tournaments, in different games (Hockey, Football, Cricket, Athletics, Gymnastics), debates, dramas and music competitions are regular features of the school programme. Students are also encouraged to participate in all such activities at the district or state level competitions. Most of these schools are situated in big towns, where reasonable modern facilities are available.

Students are day scholars and live with their parents or guardians. Only those parents, who are interested in good education send their children to these schools.
Introduction

For the present study, residential and non-residential schools of similar administration have been compared, viz:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residential</th>
<th>Non-Residential</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Navodaya Vidyalaya (Central Govt.)</td>
<td>Kendriya Vidyalaya (Central Govt.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shivalik Residential School (Private)</td>
<td>Shivalik Day School (Private)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.6 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Academic achievement generally refers to the scores obtained in the annual examination or refers to the degree or level of success or that of proficiency attained in some specific areas concerning scholastic or academic work. The term ‘academic’ has been derived from the term ‘academy’. The meaning of the term academy is, “a school where special type of instructions are imparted”.

According to A. Biswas and J.C. Aggarwal’s Encyclopaedic Dictionary and Directory of Education (1971), the term academic means pertaining to school subjects, or to the fields of liberal arts, or to the sphere of ideas and abstractions.

According to G.R. Hawes and L.S. Hawes’s The Concise Dictionary of Education (1982), the word academic means referring to the institutional system of formal education within a school, college or university; theoretical and not of practical importance; a scholarly person who works in higher education.

According to Advanced Twentieth Century Dictionary (1995), the term academic means relating to education, or to an academy or other educational institutions.

The operational definition of the term academic is any activity pertaining to scholastic in nature or any scholarly activity.

Pressey and others (1941) have defined achievement as status or level of persons’ learning and his ability to apply what he had learned. According to Crow and Crow (1969), “Achievement means the extent to which a learner is profiting from instructions in a given area of learning, i.e. achievement is reflected by the extent to which skill or knowledge has been acquired by a person from the training imparted to him”.
Walia (1979) holds that achievement signifies accomplishment or gain are a performance carried out successfully.

Thus, achievement is synonymous with accomplishment, proficiency of performance, social acknowledgement of one’s skills, his proficiency in a given area of learning, depth of his knowledge. It can also be defined as the product of learning, aptitude and interest because they are learned, retained and forgotten just as knowledge. It may mean to be a person’s level of skill or range or breadth of information and what he has accomplished in designed area of learning or behaviour. These are the indicators of the extent of achievement.

Academic achievement is the core of a wider term i.e. educational growth plays an important role in the life of a child. High academic achievement in school builds self-esteem and self-confidence which leads to better adjustment with the group. It is a unique, prime and special responsibility of a school and other educational institutions, established by the society to promote a whole some scholastic growth and development of a child. The greatness of it depends upon the quality and quantity of scholars and intellectual robots it produces. Its brilliant academic records are supposed to be the most widely used index of its worth and success. Academic development shows through gradual progress in achievement from year to year. Achievement encompasses enhancement self-actualization, self-improvement and some form of competitiveness (Moslow 1954).

Trout (1949) contented that academic achievement of a pupil is the knowledge attained and skills developed by him in the subject, in which, he is imparted training in schools.

Thaw (1953) defined academic achievement as “the attained ability or degree of competence usually measured by standardized test and expressed in percentage or grade units based on norms derived from a wide sampling of performance”.

In view of the several authors there seems to be considerable similarities in as
Introduction

much as all of them place emphasis on knowledge attained or skills developed in the academic subjects and usually designated by test scores. It is different from proficiency in the areas of different arts or physical skills. Academic or educational age, accomplishment quotient or achievement quotient are the most commonly used means to interpret the level of academic achievement of pupils in general or in specific given subject matter.

According to Christian (1980), the word performance indicates the learning outcome of students. As a result of learning different subjects, the behaviour pattern of the students changes. Learning affects three major areas of behaviour of students (i) cognitive (ii) affective and (iii) psychomotor Christian (1980) is of the view that all these three levels are not affected in equal measure at a time, a student may be at a high level in one domain and lower in another.

According to The Concise Dictionary of Education (1982), academic achievement means successful accomplishment or performance in particular subjects, areas or courses usually by reasons of skill, hard work and interest. Typically summarized in various types of grades, marks, scores or descriptive commentary.

According to Taneja’s Dictionary of Education (1989). Academic achievement refers to performance in school or college in a standardized series of educational test. In New Webster’s Dictionary and Theasaurus (1992), achievement means to bring to a successful end or a performance. According to Random House Webster’s College Theasaurus (1997), man’s first walk on the moon was a stunning technological achievement: accomplishment, attainment, realization, fulfillment, effort, act, deed. Playing the piano is just one of the achievements; skill mastery, expertise, command.

Academic achievement means those qualities or attributes or characteristics or traits of an individual which contribute to or have a direct bearing or effect or influence on the accomplishment or proficiency of performance pertaining to any activity scholastic in nature or any scholarly activity.
The prediction of academic achievement has assumed enormous importance in view of its practical view. It forms the main basis of admission and promotion in a class. It is also important for attaining a degree and getting a job. Success in life may have a pervasive effect on the student's personality. As a young person improves his achievement, he develops his powers and his self-confidence increases. The way pupils apply themselves is an important factor in scholastic achievement.

1.7 INITIATIVE

Initiative is the ability to act independently or an act of taking the first step. Some students show initiative, others don't. The students who show initiative are self-confident, active, alert, sincere, and honest. Every personality is a unique collection of personality traits that permit comparison among different people. The idea of trait grows out of everyday descriptions of people, such as intelligent, jolly, anxious, acting like a tyrant (Sundberg 1984). A broad definition of personality typically includes the dimensions of stability, determinism, and uniqueness. That is, personality changes little over time. It is determined by internal processes and external factors and reflects an individual's distinctive qualities (Magill 1996).

Allport (1937) defined personality in terms of some 4,000 traits, such as, friendliness, ambition, cleanliness, enthusiasm, exclusiveness, shyness, and talkativeness. A year earlier, Allport and Odbert (1936) reported 17,954 traits names from Webster's second unabridged Dictionary, some 4,504 of which they deemed descriptive of real traits. Cattell (1950, 1957) further reduced the set to 171 items, by eliminating words which he considered synonymous with others in the set and he collected rating based upon these 171 items. Eysenck (1982) and most other traits theorists see personality as organised hierarchically with major predispositions encompassing a set of related traits; for instance, the introverted type includes traits such as sociability, impulsiveness, and activity.

Initiative is one of the personality traits, described as an act designed to originate or set on foot as a trait of events, energy or aptitude displayed in initiation, especially of...
action that pioneer in some field; self-reliant enterprise; power to introduce a new measure or course of action (Webster 1971). Levey and Greenhall (1987) stated initiative as ritual transition from one status to another as from childhood to adulthood with attendant ceremonies and ordeals. A dominant theme is the symbolism of death and rebirth; testing the initiate’s worthiness to enter the new status, it often involves special instructions, restrictions, seclusion and/or mutilation. Simpron and Weiner (1989) in the Oxford English Dictionary stated that initiative means stem of initiare, that which initiates, begins: the first step in some enterprize or process: hence the act or action of initiating or taking the first step or lead; beginning commencement, origination characterized by initiating, having the function, power or faculty of beginning or originating something.

Brown (1993), through his New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary explained the term initiative as the power or right to begin something; mental power to initiate things; enterprise, self motivation to action: action of initiating something, an independent or enterprising act.

According to Proctor’s Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1995) initiative means judgement, the ability to use your judgement to make decisions without mentioning what to do; first action, the active or movement, often intended to solve a problem. Pearsall and Trumble (1995) in the Oxford English Reference Dictionary stated the initiative as the ability to initiate things; beginning, originating.

In short, initiative is the ability to act independently, the power to originate or commence something; an act of taking the first step or lead without depending on fellow beings. A list of eight personality traits namely – Self-confidence. Expressive. Active. Alert. Assertive. Determination. Persistent and Integrity which attributed to initiative was prepared by Mehra V. (1986). The meaning and dimension of all traits alongwith their operational definitions have been recorded in table 1.1.
### Table 1.1
Eight traits of initiative along with their operational definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension and Meaning</th>
<th>Operational Aspects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Self-confidence**   | - can commence some activity on his own  
                          | - has faith on his powers to be able to do something.  
| Faith in oneself; self-reliance, impudent reliance on one's powers. | |
| **Expressive**        | - can answer teacher's questions properly.  
                          | - can put forward genuine doubts before the teacher  
                          | - shows creative thinking.  
| To represent vividly; action of manifesting in words or symbols | |
| **Active**            | - runs to do any task assigned by the teacher.  
                          | - shows responsibility.  
                          | - does something beyond the routine classroom work.  
                          | - accepts home and classroom assignments enthusiastically.  
| Spontaneous; energetic; originating or communicating action. | |
| **Alert**             | - does not sleep in classroom.  
                          | - listens carefully to whatever the teacher teaches.  
                          | - does not yawn in the classroom.  
                          | - is quick in taking decisions or answering questions of teachers in the classroom.  
| Watchful; wide awake; quick in attention and motion, on the look-out | |
| **Assertive**         | - can prove this point.  
                          | - does not go back from his words.  
                          | - hard working.  
                          | - not disheartened by failures.  
                          | - wants to achieve higher.  
| To maintain or defend a cause confidently determination  
A fixed intention; resolution, strength of mind towards an object or end. | |
| **Persistence**       | - continues to act inspite of problems in any activity in school.  
                          | - does not change his ideas with change in circumstances.  
| Obstinate continuance in a particular course; act of continuing firmly in opinion, purpose, or a course of action. especially against opposition. | |
| **Integrity**         | - valuing his own words and promises.  
                          | - is disciplined.  
                          | - does not cheat in class.  
                          | - can confess his misdeeds boldly.  
| Original, perfect state; honesty; uprightness; sincerity; uncorrupted state. | |
1.8 MANNERISM

Manners are a person’s habitual behaviour; Mode in which a person conducts himself in society. It is a moral character and the way in which person acts. Research literature suggests a list of eleven dimensions of mannerism such as- Cheerful, Friendly, Frank, Altruist, Modest, Obedient, Responsible, Attentive, Tolerant, Disciplined and Sportmanship Spirit. The dimension wise meaning of all these traits with their operational definitions has been given as follows:

Table 1.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension and Meaning</th>
<th>Operational Aspects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cheerful:</td>
<td>full of gaiety, lively and in good spirits, joyful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- looks happy most of the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- cracks healthy jokes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Friendly:</td>
<td>affectionate; not hostile; one who is on good terms with another.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- not rude to teachers or fellow students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- has many friends</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frank:</td>
<td>Open, unreserved, outspoken, unrestrained.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- opens his heart in front of friends teachers, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- speaks out whatever is in his mind.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Altruist:</td>
<td>One who lives and acts for the good of others; not selfish or self-centered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- helpful, sympathetic, not self-centered thoughtful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modest:</td>
<td>humble; unassuming, restrained by a sense of propriety; moderate; well conducted.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- speaks with humility, not impulsive, has good character, exhibits regards to teachers; polite, calm/mild.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obedient:</td>
<td>dutiful; one who does what is directed or commanded.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- following directions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- accepting responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- carrying out instructions out of the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsible:</td>
<td>reliable trustworthy, capable of fulfilling an obligation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- dependable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- links to do some chores for teachers and fellow students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attentive:</td>
<td>heedful; steadily applying one’s mind or energies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- listens carefully teachers lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- does not sleep in the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- does not yawn in the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant:</td>
<td>to obtain from judging harshly or condemning; endurable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- is not impulsive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- thinks and then takes decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplined:</td>
<td>shows proper conduct and action: mentally and morally trained; one whose mode of life is in accordance with rules.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- is regular, punctual, tidy, neatly dressed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- wishes the teachers, exhibits regards towards the teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportmanship spirit:</td>
<td>one who faces good and bad luck with equanimity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Optimistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- is not disheartened by failure.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.9 COOPERATION

Cooperation, as its name applies, means some sort of joint action on the part of two or more persons. It began as soon as people began to associate as social beings. Cooperation is thus as old as people began to associate as social beings. In fact, cooperation is as old as the civilization itself. In joint family, we find an excellent example of practical cooperation. Members of such a family earn and spend jointly. They have communities and are joint in food, worship and estate.

The term ‘Cooperation’ is derived from two Latin words ‘Co’ and ‘Opevari’. Co means together and opevari means to work. It means to work together. It is thus a joint activity in pursuit of common goals or shared rewards. It involves two elements i.e. common goal and organised effort. Therefore, in its simplest sense, cooperation means working together in a co-ordinated manner for a common goal.

Cooperation has been perceived as behaviour involving collaboration directed towards goals to be shared. Maller (1929) in his classic study of cooperation and competition among school children regard a cooperative situation as one which stimulates an individual to strive with other members of his group for a goal object which is to be shared. Mead (1937) on the basis of her survey of cooperation and competition among primitive tribes has defined cooperation as “the act of working to one end”. However, she asserted that a distinction must be made between cooperation and helpfulness. In cooperation, the goal is shared and it is the link with the goal which holds the cooperating individuals together; in helpfulness, the goal is shared only through the relationship of the helpers to the individuals whose goal it actually is.

In line with the above definition, May and Doob (1937) stated that cooperation is directed towards the same social end by at least two individuals.... (the end) can be achieved by all or at least all of the individuals concerned. They postulated the following theory of cooperation based on its conditions and forms: On a social level, individuals cooperate with one another when:

- They are striving to achieve the same or complimentary goals that can be shared;
they are required by the rules of the situation to achieve this goal in nearly amounts;
they perform better when the goal can be achieved in equal amounts; and
eye have relatively many psychological affiliative contacts with one another.

On a psychological level, an individual cooperates with others when:

• there is a discrepancy between his level of achievement and his level of aspirations;
• his knowledge of the goal that he indicates that it can be achieved by striving with others;
• his attitudes produce within him a state in which his attitude towards cooperating overbalances possible conflicting attitudes towards potential cooperators towards the rules of institutions, and
• his skill is of such a nature that under the rules of the situation he has a reasonable chance of success by cooperating.

Thus, the necessary conditions for a disposition to cooperate would include aspirations towards goals that can be shared and the knowledge that one’s aspirations can best be attained by working together.

Barnard (1938) has theorised regarding the origin of cooperative action. He suggested that “among the most important limiting factors in the situation of each individual are his own biological limitations. The most effective method of overcoming these limitations has been that of cooperation. This requires the adoption of group or non-personal purpose. He has also discussed factors related to the persistence and survival of cooperation. He suggested that the persistence of cooperation depends upon two factors - its effectiveness and its efficiency. Effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of the social purpose. Efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives. The test of effectiveness is the accomplishment of a common purpose. The test of efficiency is the eliciting of sufficient individual wills to cooperate. The survival of cooperation depends upon two interrelated and inter dependent classes of processes:

• those which relate to the system of cooperation as a whole in relation to the environment; and
• those which are related to the creation or distribution of satisfactions among individuals.
Introduction

The behaviouralistic definitions operationalize cooperation in terms of reinforcement. Keller and Schoenfeld (1950) view cooperation as “the case in which the combined behaviour of two or more organism is in some way needed to procure positive or remove negative reinforcement for either”.

Homans (1961) stated that “Cooperation occurs when by emitting activities to one another or by emitting activities in concert to the environment, atleast two men achieve a greater total reward than either could have achieved by working alone”. Zajonc (1966) regarded cooperation as behaviour that constitutes or leads to mutual reinforcement. There are investigations who have emphasised fairness in cooperation. Vinacke Lichtman and Cherulnick (1967) referred to accommodative strategy rather than cooperation as, “seeking to arrange outcomes to please as many members of the group as possible and emphasizing fairness to members of the group.” Kohn, Hottes and Davis (1971) regard Cooperation as a form of interaction which makes unified social attainment possible because it is a form of social action in which all participants are benefitted by attaining the goals. It usually refers to a style of behaviour characterized by fairness, equality and sharing.

Some writers have viewed cooperation as behaviour promoting common interest or cause. Smead (1972) stated that “a cooperative motive is a mutual or shared one. a person who possesses a cooperative motive seeks the outcome that is most beneficial to all participants”.

Cooperation involves promotive interdependence (among goals). Cook and Stingle (1974) stated that in cooperative behaviour:

- each person’s action is discriminative for the other’s performance;
- each person is reinforced for the part he/she plays in the cooperative scheme; and
- some cognition and or awareness of the goal exists.

In other words, his theoretical analysis suggests that cooperation is most likely to develop in a relationship where both goals and means are positively inter-dependent. It was also suggested that cooperation results when positive goal interdependence is
coupled with independence/dependence of means. Even when there is no positive goal interdependence, cooperation will probably continue if people remain interdependent with respect to means.

Marwell and Schmitt (1975) have delineated five elements that constitute cooperation, namely - goal directed behaviour, reward for each participant, distributed responses, co-ordination and social coordination.

Popenoe (1977) regarded Cooperation as “Interaction in which individuals or groups act together in order to promote common interest or shared goals.”

On a broad front, cooperation has also been defined as the process whereby “persons or groups in pursuit of an objective are in agreement with one another and engage in interactions to obtain the objective” (Hardert et al. 1977). Warren (1977) regards cooperation as “the conscious alignment of social action by individuals or groups.” A minimum requirement for cooperative behaviour is not physical togetherness nor joint action, nor even synchronous complementary behaviour, but a diminution of ego demands so that the requirements of the objective situation and of the other person may function freely. In truly cooperative work, person needs can function only if they are relevant to the objective situation; the common objective. Since the self is not focal, another person’s activities - the cooperating person’s - may be as satisfactory as your own”.

Pareek (1982) regarded cooperation as reward to be shared among all participants according to some agreement. He stated that cooperation results from the perception of the goal as sharable, the perception that both or all involved have power and a minimum level of trust prevailing among those involved in the task. Finally cooperation results from the initiative taken by the individual to cooperate. Pareek studied the structure of cooperation in a non-zero sum game in which a cooperative move runs the risk of losing a great deal and if both cooperate, the pay-off is not very high. He found three factors related to cooperation on the basis of factor analysis:

- Cooperative initiative consisting of trust and retaliation where trust has been defined as the initiative taken by the individual to cooperate after both he
and his partner have made moves of defection; Retaliation occurs when after both partners have cooperated, one exploits the situation and as a result, the other individual defects in retaliation for breaking the relationship.

- Compensatory cooperation which is characterized by exploitation and repentance. The individual after having exploited a cooperative situation, repents and cooperates as a compensation.
- Unconditional cooperation which consists of trust-worthiness and forgiveness. Forgiveness has been defined as making a cooperative more even after the partner has made a defection. Trust worthiness is responding to the continued trust of the partner.

According to Deutsch (1982, 1983) the following are the characteristics of cooperation:

- Cooperation induces and is induced by perceived similarity in beliefs and attitudes.
- It is accompanied and facilitated by effective inter-member communication.
- More friendliness, more helpfulness and less obstructive is expressed.
- There is more coordination of effort, more division of labour, more orientation to task achievement, more orderliness in discussion and higher productivity.
- Sensitivity to common interest and de-emphasis of opposed interest with an orientation towards enhancing mutual powers rather than power differences.

Cooperative behaviour, thus, is the result of relationship existing between two individuals or groups, in which both have at least a minimum level of trust and see each other as having power.

Cooperation in one form or the other exists informally in many walks of life, e.g., a number of peasants join hands to cultivate their lands. It is called ‘LANA’ system. In many villages, there is common system of watch and ward. In famine days, there are good number of instances of people jointly cultivating the common land.

Cooperation is a special method of doing work jointly. It is self-help as well as mutual help. Cooperation has an inspiring motto: “Each for all and all for each”. This principle should form part of a child’s education from the earliest years and constant opportunity be given to him to work together in cooperation fields till he comes of age. Such a training of young students in cooperative living will foster self-expression, comradeship, community life, mutual confidence, and trust, which are essential qualities
Introduction

for building up the national character. The quality of cooperative living will stand young people in good stead at school, enrich their home life and later on lead them to organise and cooperate for action in the service of the community and the nation.

1.10 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Unlike other animals, that start anew with each generation, man builds upon the accumulated and recorded knowledge of the past. His constant adding to the vast store of knowledge makes possible progress in all areas of human endeavour (Best, 1978).

The present investigation, deals with the impact of learning environment on students’ academic achievement, initiative, mannerism and cooperation. In this part of the chapter, an attempt has been made to take stock of studies, which have relevance to the present problem. The review has been intended to provide a background to the study that follows. The literature having a direct or indirect bearing on the present study has been dealt with in following paragraphs:

1.10.1 Research Studies related to Learning Environment

Carpenter, J.K. (1986) compared the effects of competitively and cooperatively structured learning environments on students achievement and attitudes in college fencing classes. Results showed that no significant difference was found to exist between students’ performance scores for selected fencing skills. Analysis of data showed a significant difference between students in cooperative and competitive learning environments and their attitudes towards peers, with students in the cooperative condition more positive in their attitudes regarding peers. A significant difference was found in students’ attitudes toward cooperative goal structures with cooperative students more positive in their attitudes towards cooperation. Students in the competitive environment were found to be more positive in their attitudes towards competition. These results showed students preferring their own learning environments.

Henley, H.B. (1986) studied if graduate family students’ perceptions of the learning environment differs by place of residence (on Campus and off Campus) dependent and no dependent children, nationality, grade point average, enrollment status.
and work status, and found that graduates differed significantly in their perceptions of the environment in Academic, Student interest, Neighbours, and Housing Statements. Graduate students with children differed from graduate students with no children in their perception of environment in Instruction, Neighbours and school property statements.

Krynowsky, B.A. (1987) investigated the relationship between student attitude toward grade ten science and classroom learning environment variables. The learning environment variables were: (a) extent to which there are hands on activities (b) clarity and organisation of teacher expectations (c) perceived usefulness of science knowledge (d) degree of difficulty of the subject and (e) quality interpersonal relationships in class. Results showed that a moderate positive relationship existed between classroom learning environment variables and student attitude toward science.

Wiburg, K.M. (1987) studied the effects of different computer-based learning environments on fourth grade students cognitive abilities and found both the programming and word processing groups scored significantly higher in higher-level cognitive skills, as measured on the Developing Cognitive Abilities Test than the Control group. While the Logo Writer group made the highest gains, they didn’t differ significantly from the word processing group on this test. Products produced by the programming group using Logo Writer were rated significantly higher than those produced by the word processing group, particularly in the area of divergent production, a measure creativity.

Keenen, E.A. (1988) studied the influence of the learning environment on the cognitive development of registered nurse students in a baccalaureate nursing programme and found that students demonstrated the learner characteristics described by Cornfeld and Knefelkamp. Students showed an increase in higher level learning characteristics in the areas of view of the role of the instructor, the students, and peers and in primary intellectual tasks. It was concluded that the learning environment influenced the cognitive developmental level of RN students.
Coe, E.J. (1988) studied as holistic, developmentally responsive learning environment that empowers the early adolescent. Results indicated that students in the middle school at School of the Woods had high achievement scores, outstanding academic growth, positive self-concept, and good attendance. Parents and students expressed great satisfaction with the programme.

Rea, D.C. (1989) investigated the effect on achievement in reading, mathematic concepts and mathematic problem solving of placing students in different (conventional/open) school learning environments upon identified learning styles. It was found that conventional students showed increased achievement in the conventional learning environment. Open style students showed less achievement when placed in a conventional environment. The achievement level and gains of these students were below the identified learners. Students form somewhat higher socio-economic schools already had higher achievement scores by third grade and they increased the difference, sometimes becoming a significant difference through sixth grade in both open and conventional learning environments.

Agley, D.L. (1989) studied the comparative effects of two university learning environments on measures of wellness and health risk scores and found that each group demonstrated significant improvement in Composite Wellness scores. The living-learning center subjects demonstrated significant improvement on pre-assessment to post-assessment change on each of two pre-selected sub-categories of Composite Wellness scores. In addition, the living-learning center subjects demonstrated significant improvement in Health Age Scores and Expected Years of Remaining Life.

Wooten, P.A. (1990) examined the effects of problem-solving strategy instruction on fifth graders’ problem-solving achievement and classroom learning environment. On the Romeberg Wearne, there was a three way interaction between group, sex, and ethnicity. Further analysis indicated significant difference for Hispanic students by group. Hispanic students in experimental group one scored significantly higher than the other two groups. There was no significant difference between the other two groups.
Results from the My Class Inventory for the students revealed significant differences among the groups on the learning environment scales of satisfaction, difficulty, and cohesiveness. There was a significant main effect for sex on satisfaction, and cooperation, and significant main effects for ethnicity on friction, difficulty, cohesiveness, and cooperation.

Garvin, K.B. (1990) studied the effect of student response system questions on learner attention and performance in a distance learning environment and concluded that the study demonstrated the positive effect of high-order, student response system questions on increased student interest and the subsequent appeal of distance learning environments.

Flynn, J.L. (1991) examined how Gagne’s learning theory, as represented in his events of instruction, accounted for and supported learning within a cooperative learning environment. Findings supported the study’s initial propositions: the events of instructions may be instantiated differently depending on the learning and the instructional environment; different individuals, groups, or instructional materials may provide the events of instruction; and the events of instruction contribute positively to effective learning in the classroom. The main conclusion of the study was that Gagne’s instructional theory, as reflected in the event of instructions, supports and is compatible with cooperative learning process oriented social learning theory.

Carter, M.Lw. (1991) analysed the relationship between educational leadership styles of principal and organisational climate of the school, as expressed by principals, teachers, and professional support staff from Black, Hispanic and White ethnic communities in the Chicago Public Schools. The results of analysis by ethnic community indicated that the Black community tended to perceive a relationship - oriented leadership style as associated with a closed school climate. On the contrary, the White community tended to perceive a relationship - oriented leadership style as associated with an open school climate. These findings indicated that ethnic differences may be an important predictor of perceptions of the effects of leadership style and school climate.
Mitchell, S.A., (1992) examined the degree to which intrinsic motivation is predicted from perceptions of learning environment, also of relationships between perceptions of environment and other motivational variables such as achievement goals and self-perceptions of ability. Results indicated that achievement goals and perceptions of ability are important predictors of perceived learning environment which itself predicts levels of intrinsic motivation.

Brogan, P.A. (1992) studied the affects of organisational and learning climate and changes in perceptions of environment on learners knowledge, attitude and behaviour after participation in an interactive video safety training program. Major findings appeared in three areas: the influence of the environment on training outcomes, the impact of interactive video as a training delivery medium and the adult learning process in a training situation. The degree of support learner received from their work environment and the modelling behaviour of their colleagues and superiors affected learning outcomes. All learners were affected by the training regardless of age, educational level, work experience, or prior training experience. Past training experience affected knowledge, attitude and behaviour gains. Different factors affected knowledge as compared to attitude and behaviour.

Facciola, P.C. (1993) demonstrated a systematic approach about attitudes and the learning environments in a science classroom. Students reported content changes, which generally were consistent with past research: more favorable attitudes, greater achievement and fewer gender differences. However, their more negative perception of the learning environment were unexpected. Students also reported changed structural perceptions of the ISC (International Science Classroom) which were more tightly integrated, more dominated by Mindful engagement, and more characterized by tightly clustered perceptions of attitudes and the learning environment. The overarching conclusion was that analytic and systematic approaches offer complementary insights into science education.

Vargas, M.B. (1993) studied the effects of two learning environments on the
emotional, social, linguistic, cognitive, and psychomotor development of young children. Results indicated that statistically significant differences were obtained in different age groups in some areas of development for both the experimental and control group. Statistically significant differences were found in favour of the two, three and five-year-olds in the psychomotor domain for the TCA (Teacher-Centered Approach)/CCA (Child-Centered Approach) group. A statistically significant difference was obtained for the three-year-olds in the language domain for the CCA group. The two-year-olds obtained a statistically significant difference in the social domain, while the four-year-olds obtained a statistically significant difference in the emotional domain. It was concluded that both groups of children appeared to be developing according to the boundaries of their environment.

Knudson, B.A. (1994) studied the influences of pre-school learning environments of normal ability primary age students in relation to reading achievement. Date analysis revealed factors that were of critical importance to high reading achievement and those that were particular to low achievement in reading in the primary grades of the school. Those factors generally reflected the importance of modelling, regularly scheduled literacy time, the amount of available reading material and selective television viewing.

Gassaway, J.M. (1994) examined the combined effects of school environment, pre-school experience, and the Head Start/Early Childhood Transition of Kindergarten and found that children were learning differently depending upon the school in which they attended. Surprisingly, children who attended transition programme schools scored significantly lower on reading achievement tests than did children who didn’t attend program schools. Not surprisingly, children who had pre-school experience had significantly higher math and reading scores than children with no pre-school experience. Lastly, there was a near significant interaction between transition program and school environment for reading achievement.

Pichardo, T.A. (1995) studied the effects of school environment on teacher burnout and found that emotional exhaustion correlated negatively with the perception
of both the environmental factors and administrative support. The sense of
depersonalization correlated negatively with the perception of each of the environmental
factors, interpersonal problems, recognition and rewards, and social support. The sense
of personal accomplishment correlated positively with the perception of both
interpersonal problems and recognition and rewards.

Wu, Pi-ju (1995) investigated the relationship of teachers, sense of efficacy and
school climate to teachers' parent involvement practices in early childhood programs.
And found that school affected teachers-parent involvement practices. Several
demographic variables were related to teachers-parent involvement practices. The school
type, inservice training in parent involvement, class size, years in teaching and
parenthood status had significant relationship with the variety of teachers use of parent
involvement techniques.

D.C. Nielsen and D.L. Monson (1996) studied two different kindergarten literacy
frameworks (environment and events) and their effect on the literacy development of
83 children with particular focus on a group of children who were younger than their
peers upon entrance to kindergarten. Data analysis revealed that the two teachers were
noticeably different in terms of their use of time, behaviors content focus, and stance
(one-to-one, small groups, etc.); these differences reflect the teachers' literacy
philosophy and their perceived freedom to make choices. There were also notable
differences in how the children used their time.

Hersholt C. Waxman and S.Y.L. Haung (1996) studied the problems of students
in inner-city schools by drawing upon two distinct and emerging theoretical frameworks:
(a) educationally resilient students and (b) classroom learning environments. The
motivation and learning environment of 75 resilient and 75 non-resilient students from
an inner-city middle school were compared. Resilient students were defined as those
students who had scored on or above the 90th percentile on standardized achievement
test scores in Mathematics for a 2 year period; non-resilient students were those who
had scored on or below the 10th percentile on standardized achievement test scores in
Mathematics for the same period. The results further revealed that resilient students had significantly higher perceptions of involvement task orientation, rule clarity, satisfaction, pacing and feedback than nonresilient students. Resilient students also reported significantly higher social self-concept than non-resilient students did. The discriminant function analysis revealed that the variables of satisfaction, achievement motivation, rule clarity, social self-concept, and task orientation were related most highly to the overall discriminant function.

N. Ramnath Kishan (1998) studied the primary school teachers attitude towards school environment. The results of the study reveal:

- The majority of the primary school teachers felt that there is a difficulty in maintaining discipline on account of large number of students in the class.
- The 53% of the teachers expressed their view that school buildings provided adequate security from heat, cold and rain.
- Majority of the primary school surroundings are airy and healthy.
- 56% of the schools are not having the provision for the teaching aids.
- Schools are not having sanitary facilities library facilities and games facilities.
- Existing curriculum is too lengthy and teachers felt unhappy due to the growing indiscipline in their schools.
- All the teachers felt unhappy regarding to school environment in relation to their job satisfaction.

Seree Preedasak and Asha Gupta (1999) examined the comparison between high and low well-being, teachers working in favourable and unfavourable school organisational climate in respect of job satisfaction of teachers. The results show that:

- there was significant difference of high and low well being teachers in respect of job satisfaction.
- There was significant difference of favourable and unfavourable school organisational climate in respect of job satisfaction.
- There was not significant interaction effect of well-being level and school organisational climate level on job satisfaction of teachers.
- There was positive and significant correlation among well-being, school organisational climate and job satisfaction of teachers.
- There were significant differences in job satisfaction of teachers as classified by educational level, school size, teachers.
- There were significant differences in school organisational climate in school.
organisational climes as classified by educational level and school size, teachers.

- There were significant differences of well being as classified by school size.
- There were not significant interaction effects of educational level and school size; educational level and sex; school size and sex; educational level, school size and sex on job satisfaction of teachers.
- There were significant interaction effects of educational level and school size and sex on organisational climate as perceived by teachers.
- There were not significant interaction effects of educational level and school size; educational level and sex; school size and sex, educational level, school size and sex on well-being of teachers.

1.10.2 Research Studies Related to Academic Achievement

Zoragoza, V. (1987) studied the effect of support groups on academic achievement, school attendance and self-concept of adolescents from single-parent families and found that the tenth grade experimental group, showed a significant difference in pretest to posttest GPA (Grade Point Average/academic achievement). The posttest GPA was significantly higher than the pretest for the experimental group. The eleventh grade experimental group showed a significant difference in pretest and posttest attendance. The posttest attendance was significantly higher.

H. Mitzi Godwin (1987) examined the combined predictive value of learning style characteristic and personality factors on academic achievement and found that academic difficulty is a predictor of academic achievement. The levels of academic achievement increase for the following individuals; abstract thinkers, more sober students, more tense students, more conservative students, and older students. The levels of academic achievement decrease for the following individuals; concrete thinkers, more enthusiastic students, more relaxed students, more experimenting students and black ethnic group members.

Pottebaum, S.M. (1988) measured the effect of grade repetition on academic achievement using covariance structure analysis. Conclusions drawn from this study indicated that grade repetition did not affect academic achievement when the constructs of family background and ability were taken into account. The results are more meaningful for white subjects.
Cupples, J.K. (1988) studied and compared the linguistic performance and academic achievement of sensorineural unilaterally learning-impaired children with normal learning children. The results of the language assessment indicated that one third of the subjects demonstrated specific language deficits in the areas of receptive and expressive language and verbal problem-solving tasks, more than one half of the subjects who had grade repetitions also demonstrated similar language deficits. Results of academic achievement assessment on tests of reading, language and mathematics showed that 30% of the subjects received scores below grade expectancy in at least one academic area; 42% of the subjects who had grade repetitions also demonstrated academic scores below grade expectancy. No significant correlations were demonstrated between degree and side of loss compared with language performance and academic achievement variables.

Beach, M.G. (1989) compared the academic achievement of students in Grades 3 through 8 who were 6.9 years old or older at first grade entrance with students in the same grade who were 5.9 to 6.5 years old at first grade entrance. The major findings revealed that age had significant effect on reading achievement in grades 3, 4 and 6. Of all the variables, socio-economic status was the most powerful, affecting reading, language and mathematics achievement at all grade levels. Girls achieved significantly higher than boys in language in grades 4 through 7, and third grade students in single grade classrooms achieved significantly better than those in multigrade classrooms. The conclusions indicated that first grade entrance age had a limited effect on later academic achievement.

Spangler, N.A. (1990) studied attitudes toward education and academic achievement of female incarcerates and found that attitudes toward education play an important role in the academic achievement of incarcerated females.

Suciati (1990) analysed the effect of motivation on academic achievement in a distance education setting. Results indicated that the motivation effect on achievement was .61, which explained 36 percent of achievement variation. Persistence is postulated
as a function of motivation which in turn influences achievement.

Fan, Minte (1990) examined the impact of cooperative learning and tutoring on academic achievement and self-concept of Native American students and the results showed that statistical significances were found in mathematics at $P < .001$ using t-test for the entire sample as well as for both genders, grade levels and public and non-public students. This indicates that cooperative learning and tutoring had a strong positive effect upon academic achievement.

Park, Y.C. (1991) examined the effect of teachers-initiated students-teacher personal relationship beyond the classroom upon academic achievement and attitude of selected student at Korea Baptist Theological college and concluded that the teacher’s informal, close relationship had no effects on the students’ academic achievement and the attitude toward the course.

Whisnant, W.T. (1991) studied how stress and coping strategies change over time and what relationship that change may have to academic achievement and found that course grades served as a measure of academic achievement for comparison to stress and coping scores. Comparisons were also made among the student variables of age, gender and levels of academic preparedness.

Harding, K.L. (1992) studied the comparison of the academic achievement of students in St. Charles County in a selected district with a year-round schedule and a district with a traditional nine month schedule. An analysis of variance at the .01 level revealed a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of Language Arts/Reading and the mean scores of Social Studies. This study appeared to support academic achievement gains in favour of the year-round schedule.

Jackson, M. (1992) compared the academic achievement between magnet and non-magnet school students and found that students in the magnet programme scored higher than the students in the regular school program on the Math and reading subtests of the TAP (Test of Achievement and Proficiency). The magnet group scored slightly higher than their non-magnet counterparts on the TAP total battery composite test. No
significant differences were found between the two groups on the written expression and using sources of information sub-tests.

Sager, Rex (1992) studied the effects of school entrance age on the academic achievement of elementary school children with below average intelligence. The study revealed older age girls had significantly higher total Maths achievement than younger age girls. Other analysis of variance tests revealed the tendency for older age students to achieve better, but not at significant level.

Schoewe, R.K. (1993) studied the effects of elementary calendar experience on academic achievement and rate of attendance of high school graduates. The results of the study indicated that there was no significant difference in academic achievement and rate of attendance between students who attended a year-round elementary schooling schedule as compared with those students having experienced a traditional elementary calendar schedule. Although, not significantly different, year-round schooling students possessed higher GPAs (grade point averages) and rate of attendance while traditional calendar schedule subjects possessed higher achievement scores in Maths and English. Male subjects performed better in Maths while female subjects scored higher in English.

Mansfield, J.B. (1993) examined the effect of extended wait-time versus short wait-time on student academic achievement and student attitude toward a course. Results showed that no significant differences were found between the experimental group and the control group relative to academic achievement and students’ attitude toward a course. No significant differences were found between genders relative to academic achievement and students’ attitude toward a course.

Cerna, L.G. (1994) examined the effects of selective curriculum models on the sixth grade students’ academic achievement, self-concept, and perception of school environment. Furthermore, this study ascertained the influence of gender and family income on the academic achievement, self-concept, and perception of school environment. Based on the significant findings of the data analysis the following conclusions were drawn:-
Introduction

- Sixth grade students enrolled in a self-contained middle school curriculum model perform better academically than sixth grade students enrolled in an interdisciplinary middle school curriculum model.
- The academic achievement of sixth grade students is affected by the combination influence of gender and curriculum models.
- The self-concept of sixth grade students is not influenced by the curriculum models, gender, or family income.
- Female sixth grade students have a more favourable perception of the school environment than their male counter-parts.
- Male students enrolled in a self-contained elementary school curriculum model have a more favourable perception of school environment than male students enrolled in a self-contained middle school curriculum model.

Blackstone, W.J. (1994) studied the comparison of college academic achievement between graduates of public and private high school and found that there was no significant difference in grade point average between graduates of private or public high schools. Among students attending private colleges, however, public high school graduates achieved first-year GPAs significantly higher than did graduates of private high schools. Finally only public high school graduates attending private colleges achieved statistically significantly higher GPAs.

Squierell, V.P. (1995) studied the effects of a developmental reading course on academic achievement of underprepared college students and found that a developmental reading course seemed to have had significantly positive effects on the academic success of underprepared students.

Stanford, R.W. (1995) analysed the effects of a co-teaching inclusion program on the academic achievement of regular education and specific learning disabled students. A comparison of adjusted means from Total Reading, Total Maths, Listening and Thinking subtests revealed that there was no statistical difference in either of the two types of learning environments except in the area of total reading for the learning disabled students and listening for the regular education students in the inclusion environment. This study indicated that the co-teaching inclusion environment is a viable service delivery model which may be associated with empirical gains in Maths. Listening and Thinking achievement, and with statistical gains in Reading for the learning disabled students.
Esther Ho sui-chu and J. Douglas W. (1996) studied four dimensions of parental involvement and assessed the relationship of each dimension with parental background and academic achievement. The findings provide little support for the conjecture that parents with low socio-economic status are less involved in their children’s schooling than are parents with higher socio-economic status, although school varied somewhat in parental involvement associated with volunteering and attendance as meetings of Parents-Teacher organisation. They did not vary substantially in levels of involvement associated with home, supervision, discussion, of school-related activities at home, had the strongest relationship with academic achievement. Parental participation at school had a moderate effect on reading achievement, but a negligible effect on mathematical achievement.

Brian R. Fang-Shen Chiang and Robert J. Miller (1997) examined employees performance to develop and test a model of teachers’ effects on students’ achievement in Mathematics. A general model of employees’ performance suggested that the effects of teachers on students’ achievement can be explained by three general classes of variables: teachers’ ability, motivation and work situation. The analysis revealed that teachers’ knowledge of subject matter and expectancy motivation have direct effects on students’ achievement in Mathematics and that the size of these effects depends on the average levels of ability of students in a school.

Harold Wenglinsky (1997) studied the effect of School district spending on students’ academic achievement and found that per-pupil expenditures for instructions and the administration of school districts are associated with students’ academic achievement because both result in reduced class size, which raises achievement.

Po Yin Dren and David Watkins (1998) investigated the interrelationships of affective variables, learning approaches and academic achievement. It was shown that both academic causal attributions and academic self-concept influenced academic achievement indirectly via students’ learning approaches. Locus of control was significantly and negatively related to the surface approach to studying while academic
self concept had a positive significant influence on the deep approach. Both the surface and the deep approaches to studying showed significant direct effects on academic achievement. The findings supported the theoretical notion that personality variables influence students’ learning processes and subsequently their academic achievement. The findings also lend support to attributional retaining.

**Kusum Singh (1998)** studied part-time employment in high school and its effect on academic achievement. In his research, the nationally representative sample of 10th graders, the first follow up of the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS-88), was used to examine the effects of part-time work during the school year on academic achievement, as measured by the standardized achievement scores and high school grades earned in four subject areas; English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. The findings of the study point to a small negative effect of employment on both measures of achievement when socio-economic status, gender and previous achievement were controlled.

**V.K. Gelat (1999)** studied the effect of study habits on educational achievement of the students of secondary schools. The results show that:
- There was significant effect of study habits on educational achievement of the students of secondary schools.
- There was no significant effect of sex on educational achievement of the students of secondary schools.
- There was no interactional significant effects of study habits and sex on the Educational achievement of the students of secondary schools.

### 1.10.3 Research Studies on Initiative

**Negron, C.E. (1984)** studied parent-initiated contacts between Hispanic parents and special education teachers. This study was designed with the purpose of increasing the number of contacts in order to initiate the establishment of communication between them and found a significant increase in parent-initiated contacts when the combination and note approaches were used. These approaches also proved very effective in improving the children’s academic performance and behaviour. Also found a significant positive relationship between the number of parent-initiated contacts and children’s progress.
Katchen, J.E. (1984) studied and compared student-initiated questions sequences in classes taught by American and Taiwanese teaching and found that Taiwanese teaching assistants answers showed a greater use of self-repetition and other repetition than American teaching assistants.

Mosher, G.W. (1984) studied teachers initiative in developing educational projects through a program of minigrants awarded by a Teacher Center during the time period 1979-1980. And found that projects promoted teacher initiative and reduced the isolation among teachers by bringing teachers in contact with each-other. Administrators and outside consultants. Administrators were very positive about teacher involvement in projects and provided informal encouragement and support to teachers. Administrators saw the improvement of curriculum and instruction within their school system.

Blue M.R. (1984) studied that the initiative process has been utilized frequently during the recent decades in California to influence, establish and alter economic public policy and found that voters wish to impact public policy by limiting specific programmes, rather than a generalized revolt against taxes, when casting votes on economic initiatives. Voters believe they are forced to resort to the initiative process to affect favourable economic public policies.

Schiller, R.E. (1985) studied state initiatives to improve its school and the quality of its schooling and assessed the influence state and local efforts had on teachers and their teaching. It was found that the teacher and the learner in the school are the key components to improve the quality of the schooling.

Singh (1985a) found that low intelligent boys were outgoing, assertive, imaginative, shrewd, apprehensive, self-sufficient and tense while low intelligent girls were outgoing, less scholastic and apprehensive. Singh (1985b) concluded that sex, age, area of residence, SES, caste, educational level and religion influenced various dimensions of personality (arranged in decreasing order). So, sex played a maximum and religion a minimum role in the development of different personality traits.

Chilton, S.K. (1985) studied principal and teacher's initiatives for the
implementation of prevention education and assessed perceptions of behavioral factors that relate to the implementation of induced change using an alcohol and drug prevention programme. He found that a positive significant relationship exists between the teachers’ perception of the support of the principal and the teacher’s perception of his or her role in prevention education.

Caley, L.M. (1986) studied new initiatives for children and found that only three of the twenty local sites carried out class advocacy activities.

Akins, F.L. (1986) analysed the quantity and quality of self-initiated learning engaged in by educational instructors. The results showed that technical studies and technical work dominated the self-initiated studies engaged in by the teachers. The overall amount of time devoted to self-initiated learning showed a lack of involvement on the part of teachers beyond their efforts to solve immediate needs.

Herzog, K.C. (1986) studied philanthropic initiatives. The objective of this study was to describe the policy and decision-making processes of selected regional and local foundations in Kansas city and the impact of these processes on higher education. Foundation donors, donor family members, trustees, directors and staff were found to affect the policy and decision making foundations were found to have their own agendas for higher education ones, which did not include the replacement of decreasing federal and state support. The regional and local foundations studied offered instead “margins of excellence” for already excellent institutions and a method of evaluating and rewarding excellence initiatives in higher education.

Cheek, S.K. (1986) studied state management initiatives and programmatic outputs in the United States. The governors were found to be relatively aggressive in the innovation process and to be particularly involved in instigating programmatic, as opposed to management, innovations. governors were negatively associated with social welfare innovations in terms of vote received, years in political office and as source of the data for such initiatives.

Pugh, W.C. (1986) studied school improvement initiatives as a means of changing
practices which contribute to the low achieving status of school. And found it as a vehicle to initiate school improvement efforts; and as a “mechanism” to accelerate positive changes in the learning environment.

Golon, J.E. (1987) studied the initiative of the private sector through its participations and performance programme and found that the involvement of private sector triggered a marked improvement in the performance of local man power systems received, at best, mixed support. The researcher found some aspects of private sector participation e.g. active linkage with local business group, “contributed” to improved programme performance.

Seligmann, L.A. (1987) analysed local initiative and a comprehensive agrarian reform in Huanoquite and Peru. Their efforts to formulate, elaborate and act upon their own visions and objectives alternately constrained and enabled them to transform national policies and their position of socio-economic dependency. He found that agrarian reform rarely eradicates the roots of inequality within nations with a long history of colonialism, dependency and ethnic diversity and prejudice. It portrays how communities of people participate in change and persist in establishing their own pathways into the future.

Ceesay, M.S. (1987) examined the literacy initiatives in national development of countries and found that how all four countries aimed at not only reducing their initial literacy rates, but also mobilizing and bringing together all the different elements of their respective societies with the ultimate aim of development. The results were mixed in terms of success and problems.

Smith, P.M. (1987) studied staff and student’s initiatives for improving a junior-senior high school. The level and degree of success were in detail as:

- school climate, including student orientation assemblies, development of a faculty handbook, lunchrooms, student volunteers, student empowerment and alternative education
- curricular, including reading, writing, Mathematics
- extra curricular including national honour society and student council and
- enrichment, including a science/technology and college entry programme.
Edwards, C.L. (1987) studied a staff development initiative for bringing educational change in British Columbia and found that staff got a remarkable success for bringing change in education.

Mc Donald, R.G. (1988) studied the effect of cooperative, non-competitive, initiative and challenge games as a treatment to enhance the self-concept of abused children and found that there was a significant enhancement of the global self-concept scores for the experimental group when compared to the global self-concept scores of the control group. There was also significant enhancement of the self-concept scores of four of the sub-scale clusters.

Kratz, C.A. (1988) studied performative efficacy through detailed analyses of the way Okiek, living in the highland forests of Kenya, initiated their children through ceremonies. Okiek intend to their children into adults through initiation and recognize that as its most important effect. Analyses showed that these processes and tensions work in Okiek initiation take in the speech and song of initiation as well as non-verbal aspects of the ceremonies. e.g. ritual roles, ritual materials, costume, and spatial organisation.

Simpson, B.H. (1988) studied female initiation in the novels of Eudora Welty. This study identifies in anthropological, mythological and psychological studies- the loss of innocence (discovery of evil), crisis and confrontation, the gaining of wisdom however painful, becoming an outcast, yet reuniting with the community. She also adds her own elements regarding female initiation- an underlying tension between males and females or between female and a shadowing of the Demater/Persephone myth. Her female initiation lack the mentor traditionally found in male initiation.

Mac Connell, J.I. (1988) analysed new Hampshire initiative of competitive for teachers (CFT) programme for school excellence and found that the principals of the larger schools indicated significantly more programme support than the principals of the smaller schools. principals with greater years of experience rated the programme more highly, but the differences over the least experienced principals were not
significant. The principals perceived CFT as creating more competent teachers, as improving the instructional climate of the schools, and increasing the presence of computer technology in the schools.

Caress, K.M. (1989) examined the initiation and implementation processes of selected teacher appraisal systems in Indiana. And found that the major organisational factors contributing to the initiation and implementation stages of three recently developed Indiana teachers appraisal systems were considered to be exemplary and successful.

Jeter, J.C. (1989) studied ego, initiative and socialisation in three novellas by Stifter: Variations of a common thematic interplay and an analytical model for "Bunte Staine". The outcome of the procedure was the identification of a thematic common dominator in the novellas “Granit”, "Kalkstein”, and Katzensilber” which takes the form of a consistent narrational interplay among the universal human dynamics of ego, initiative and socialisation. Each of the three works considered, manifests a narratively distinct variation of this interplay, which is developed by a particular arrangement of a common compositional repertoire of structural and stylistic elements including the use of inner and outer narrative frames and connotative grammatical modes and word selection.

Armstrong, A.M. (1990) studied initiatives to improve relations with a national adversary. Six assertions were culled from the theoretical and substantive literature essentially proposing necessary conditions for the success of a rapprochment initiative. Results indicate that the modified set of assertions provide potentially useful insight into the process whereby national governments locked into a hostile relationship with another government achieve a fundamental improvement in relations.

Brentwood, M.C. (1994) examined the politics of the disaffected within the framework of economic considerations, political considerations and socio-cultural preconditions of initiative action. He demonstrated low business coalitions use economic resources to oppose grass roots attempts to change policy which might have a negative
impact on business organisations. The study concluded that the initiative can be a method for disaffected groups to directly participate in the policy process. However, factors such as economic, political and socio-cultural conditions can affect the success or failure of grassroots initiatives.

Gallagher, J.H. (1995) analysed the question of the influence of corporations on the initiative process and found 16 of the 28 campaigns were initiated by grassroots organisations and opposed by corporate interests. In 15 of these 16 campaigns the corporate opponents successfully defeated the initiative.

Clay, M.G. (1996) studied the initiation of adults into the Roman Catholic Church in the United States. This project seeks to address this issue by proceeding in three steps:

- first, to identify the major issues associated with the implementation of Christian initiation in a rural parish;
- second, to develop and offer a comprehensive training program to assist rural leaders in their implementation efforts; and
- third, to evaluate the training programme.

The first chapter of this project describes the theological vision of Christian initiation. This vision is examined through an exploration of initiations goal and method. The second chapter examines rural life and ministry primarily from a sociological perspective. The third chapter describes six workshops which provide a comprehensive overview of Christian initiation in a rural context. The fourth and fifth chapters evaluate the educational programme by the participants, the outside evaluator and the candidate.

Walstrom Julie (1998) studied the collaborative initiative of a school and business partners. The purpose of this case study was to explore the process of collaboration during the initiation phase of a ‘school to work’ partnership formed by a public school system. The study is useful for understanding how a school to work program unfold in its early stages. It provided documentation about how diverse partners approached areas of agreement or disagreement as they formed a ‘school to work’ programme. The findings provided a conceptual framework that could serve as a model for the formation of school to work initiatives in the future.
1.10.4 Research Studies on Mannerism

Jones, S.W. (1984) examined myths and manners in the Southern novel. And found that manners have their source and significance within a specific society, they are not merely a way of acting, dressing and speaking, but the outward signs of a way of thinking, of a system of values. They provide the means for internalizing social roles, transmitting cultural traditions, and expressing, communal myths.

Zebrowski, M.K. (1984) studied the dignity of human nature, manners and found that men bring their moral wills into conformity with reason, that they display the reason or authority of nature in their manner, and they secure practical means for maintaining the dignity of human nature in a moral life of discipline according to nature.

Archer, B.C. (1985) studied the speech and manners of American Women Originally published in Harper's Bazaar in 1906-1907. This study defined ‘good’ speech, illuminate James concept of society, express James criticism of American Society vis-a-vis European tradition and explore the complementary social roles and responsibilities of men and women in regard to speech and manners. James insists that democracy, by encouraging the hypertrophy of individual egos, poses a grave threat to social unity. And results showed that the role of good speech and manners in the creation and maintenance of social order, can shed important light. The investigator suggested to put the developed manner to ‘truly social’ use.

Beger, R.R. (1985) studied crimes, manners and character of blacks and lower SES youngsters within the juvenile justice system, and found that judgements regarding youths’ suspected moral character are activated by social status indicators in the form of dress, manners, speech, and demeanor. These particular, status indicators are singled out in constructing moral character because they are well-suited or revealing evidence of “impulse controls” and moral constraints.

Hemphill, C.D. (1988) studied manners for Americans: Interaction ritual and the social order of forms of conduct literature, it explored the changing rules of class, age and gender relations embedded in the rituals of social interaction and found that manners
Introduction

reflect the changing American social order.

Isikoff E.L. (1995) studied gentility functioned as a form of behaviour, manners and consumption, taste, which worked to aesthaticize new wealth so that it appeared to be contiguous with older markers of status. She studied manners and conversation pieces because these genres are centrally concerned with questions of socialization and thus, forefront the process of gentility as the social ideology which allows new individuals and new families to enter the open elite.

1.10.5 Research Studies on Cooperation

Hartl, C.M.T. (1984) studied student-student pairs as a classroom structure to promote achievement in learning second-semester Spanish and found that the results of the study support the use of cooperating pair partners for learning foreign language.

Dinapoli, F.A. (1984) investigated that cooperating teachers influenced student-teachers' attitudes and behaviours during the semester of student teaching. And found that one cultural theme that emerged from the data was the cooperating teachers emphasis on authority and control. This control theme was frequently present in the cooperating teachers thoughts and actions and as a result influenced the type of information transmitted to student teachers as well as the mode of transmission.

Mandel B. (1985) examined the effects of treatments incorporating modelling or effective role-taking strategies on cooperation in two contexts, and found that the experimental treatments, produced significantly higher levels of cooperation on the facilitating measure than the control treatments, and the role-taking treatments produced significantly higher levels of cooperation on the generalisation measure than the modelling and control treatments.

Baloche, L. (1985) studied creativity and group-cooperative skills in the elementary music classroom and found that the elementary school music teachers involved in this study see both creativity and cooperation as appropriate focuses in their work; they saw the adjunct curriculum that was presented to them as useful in this regard, they did infact utilize it repeatedly; they perceived their students as more
enthusiastic than usual and more involved than usual; when utilizing this curriculum; and perhaps most importantly they saw the various activities that they chose to use as both “user friendly” and effective (i.e. facilitative of greater creativity and cooperation among their students).

Al-Hamad, Y.M. (1986) studied home/school cooperation as perceived by primary school teachers and administrators. The study revealed that:

- Primary school teachers and administrators agreed to a great extent that parents, playing various roles should take part in the educational activities.
- The agreement of the majority of respondents, corresponding to different roles of parents, signified that school personnel support parents’ involvement in about 94% of certain aspects of parents’ participation.
- With regard to the decision-making process, the only aspect related to evaluation of the school personnel-parents’ involvement was not supported.
- Teachers and school administrators did support the need for training of teachers in the area of home/school relationships. They, however, rejected home visits by teachers. Females were more supportive than the males that corresponded to parents as teachers at home, while females rejected home visitation more vigorously than males.

Blazic, C.J. (1986) examined the impact of a cooperative games programme on a fifth grade class and found that in a cooperative games programme, the games class seems to have accelerated the development of cooperative interactions within their class as compared to the two non-games classes. In particular, these interactions include acceptance of self and others, inclusion of self and others in class activities and the development of a positive classroom environment.

Mc Spadden, R.L. (1986) analysed the perceptions, attitudes and concerns of selected administrators regarding inter-institutional cooperation between public secondary schools and ten community college districts. And found that administrators surveyed had similar perceptions of the current levels of cooperation. Administrators from districts reporting the fewer number of cooperative activities expressed significantly greater interest in more attempts of cooperation. Administrators from districts reporting the fewest number of activities had significantly greater interest in increased cooperation in the areas of personnel and facilities.
Atwood, R.O. (1987) analysed the role of cooperation in peer group treatment programmes for juvenile delinquents. This study extended by the further line of research refining models of low cooperation is enhanced in groups, examining what type of delinquent norms are influenced by cooperation, and exploring the differential effect of cooperation on types of delinquent youths. Results for the group level analyses indicate that the more group members were allowed to participate in decision making, the less they felt coercively controlled by the staff or by other group members. This, in turn, increased cooperation. In addition, cooperation had a stronger effect on norms about delinquent behaviours at the institution than on general delinquent norms. Cooperation didn’t differentially affect socialised versus unsocialised delinquents. For all youths, cooperation influenced delinquent values that were specific to the institution and reduced delinquent behaviour. However, cooperation didn’t affect youths’ self-esteem attachments to one another, or general delinquent values.

Porretta, L.P. (1987) studied inter-professional cooperation between social work students and criminal justice students and found that social work students perceived themselves as needing to be friendly, sympathetic, cooperative and supportive while criminal justice students saw themselves as needing to be less expressive and more conservative.

Mitman, G.A. (1988) studied evolution by cooperation. This study focused on the programme of animal ecology advanced at Chicago and specifically on the research of W.C. Allee and A.E. Emerson and found that Chicago school was united by a conceptual framework that emphasised the population as a unit of selection and stressed the importance of cooperation in nature, the metaphor of nature as cooperative had different personnel and political meanings for both Allee and Emerson. Allee saw cooperation as the principle underlying the evolution sociality. For Emerson, cooperation was important as an integrating mechanism that ensured a greater degree of stability and social control.

Stapp, L.B. (1987) studied the relationship between computer use in the schools and cooperation among students and found that students cooperate with each other more and score higher on measures of academic performance when involved with a paper and pencil
Introduction

No significant sex differences were found in measures of cooperation or academic performance. Students working at a computer demonstrated more peer teaching behaviours. During the paper and pencil activity, students were more likely to demonstrate indifference and/or a negative attitude about their work.

Dixon, K.A. (1988) compared cooperative and non-cooperative students on selected self-perception variables. Findings indicated that the majority of graduates have a positive self-perception as measured by Harter’s scale, students in the non-cooperative work experience group perceived themselves to have higher scholastic and athletic competence than the students in the cooperative group, students in the cooperative work experience group perceived themselves to have higher job competence, with both groups of students perceiving themselves as being highly social and comfortable in their relationships with other teenagers. It was the conclusion of the researcher that cooperative work experience students feel good about who they are, perceive themselves as highly social individuals and feel less competent in the areas of scholastic and athletic competence.

Leigh, F.A. (1989) examined the extent of cooperation and resource sharing between accredited schools of Journalism/Mass Communication and the broadcasting stations co-located on their campuses for one model of cooperation to be ideal for all relationships. However, a pattern of cooperation did emerge from which one can draw recommendations for successful sharing. The most extensive sharing was found in administrative units that included both an academic unit and a broadcast station.

Frees, D.S. (1989) studied House party leaders and interest groups as partners - emerging patterns of cooperation and influence and found that house party leaders and interest group representatives cooperate actively in all the policy making functions of party leadership, interest groups are heavily involved in the electoral assistance function but rarely participate directly in the leadership selection or the committee assignment processes.

Whitford, E.V. (1989) studied whether supervisors' attitudes towards cooperation among colleagues could be influenced by participation in a cooperative learning training programme. Results revealed positive interactions during the training program as well as
the unanticipated emergence of a cooperative learning sub-group which continued to meet after the training programme ended.

Bell, M.D. (1990) studied the relationships between the extent to which elementary classroom teachers tend to choose school library media specialists for cooperation on instructional problems and several school climate and faculty related characteristics including the general academic effectiveness of the school, the overall cohesion and cooperativeness of the teaching faculty on instructional matters. As compared to the low academic schools, the high academic schools were found to be significantly more instructionally cohesive and classroom teachers in those schools were significantly more disposed to choose the school library media specialists to co-operate with them on instructional problems.

Brown, E.R. (1990) examined the effect of abundant/scarce resources on children’s cooperative/competitive goal structure, to identify the goal plans and strategies that emerge during conflict and to illustrate the dynamic effect of competing goal-plans on conflict management. And found that conflict management is an unfolding cooperative/competitive process, mediated by resources and children’s interacting goal-plans. The effects of dominance, partners and goal abandonment on conflict resolution may guide future work.

Helion, J.E. (1991) studied the role of the cooperating teacher during the physical education student teaching experience. And found that the student teacher emerged as a person waiting acceptance, security, trust and confidence building from the cooperating teacher and the cooperating teacher was in a position to have a definite effect upon the shaping of student teacher behaviours and beliefs with regard to the profession of teaching and the field of physical education.

Sapp, T.L.B. (1991) investigated ethnicity, gender and anxiety on the creative thinking abilities of Anglo and Mexican American college students under conditions of cooperation and competition. Results indicated that the fluency score was significantly affected by the interaction of the warm-up condition (cooperation and non-cooperation) the ethnicity of the facilitators and ethnicity of the participants. In the cooperative warm-up, both Anglo
and Hispanic participants obtained higher frequency scores when the facilitators were of the same ethnicity. In the non-cooperative warm-up, however, Anglo participants obtained higher fluency score with Mexican-American facilitators and Hispanic participants obtained higher scores with Anglo participants.

**Compbell, A.J. (1992)** analysed the antecedents and outcomes of cooperative behaviour in international supply markets and found that downstream buying from strategies based on flexibility or innovation, increase upstream cooperative behaviour. Upstream cooperative behaviour also depends on the level of buyer-seller trust. An important outcome of such upstream cooperation is buyer commitment to the supply relationship. This upstream commitment in turn, increases the buying firm’s downstream differentiation advantages.

**Kelly, B. (1992)** studied the effects of collaborative and competitive instructional programmes on students’ achievement in Mathematics and changes in attitudes toward cooperation and competition and found that students in the competitive treatment had higher gain scores in achievement than the other two treatments. The combined treatment had significantly higher gain scores in attitude toward cooperation than the other two treatments. There were no significant differences in attitude toward competition.

**Mundy, M.A. (1993)** studied the relationship between self-esteem and the variables of competitiveness and cooperativeness within an Aboriginal culture and whether this relationship differed according to the variables of gender, age and enculturation. It was found that age had a minimal relationship with both cooperation and enculturation. The variables of enculturation and competition were found to be negatively correlated, while the variables of enculturation and cooperation were positively related.

**Stroker, R.T. (1993)** studied the twelve thinking styles - Humanistic, Helpful, Affiliative, Approval, Conventional, Dependence, Avoidance, Oppositional, Power, Competitive, Perfectionistic, Achievement and Self-Actualization between music cooperating teacher and higher education music methods teachers. ANOVA results showed that significant difference exists between cooperating music teachers and university/college music teachers.
Vaughn, J.B. (1993) analysed child-child social interactions emerging as cooperative behaviours necessary to support group learning in educational setting and found that the following behaviour of young children were described and identified as necessary components for maintaining cooperative interaction: perspective taking, compromise, negotiation, and social problem solving.

Montoro, J. (1994) examined the social structure of cooperation and competition in the aged parent and adult child relationship. This study explored the emergence of intergenerational cooperation between elderly parents and their adult children. On the basis of the subjects’ interaction, dyads (adult children) were classified into four stable response outcome groups: (a) cooperators (Doves); (b) competitors (Hawks); (c) dominant submissive (Dom-Sub); and (d) moderate cooperators (Sneakers). Analysis of their preasymptotic interaction patterns revealed differences among these outcome groups. In particular, Doves made more intentions and actual cooperative behaviour than the other dyads.

Hallmark, B.W. (1994) investigated how students with varying abilities are affected and affect one-another in both heterogeneous and homogeneous groups, even though, gifted students are seen as more helpful than non-gifted students. This study invested that students with differing ability do not negatively or positively affect other group members’ achievement for Mathematics or Science when working in heterogeneous or homogeneous cooperative groups. It was concluded that group composition (heterogeneous or homogeneous) had no effect on achievement and changes in self and others perceptions.

Godfray, R.K. (1995) studied the influence of cooperating teachers on the educational philosophy of student teachers, and found that cooperating teacher’s educational philosophy significantly influenced student teachers’ degree of teacher-directive educational philosophy. Teacher-directive cooperative teachers exerted more influence on student teachers educational philosophy than do student centered cooperating teachers.

Bridwell, S.M. (1996) studied the influence of the cooperating teacher on the student teacher and the subsequent importance of feedback conferences on professional growth.
during the student teaching experiences. The findings indicate that a warm and open relationship between the cooperating teacher and student teacher is favourable in acquisition of feedback; feedback must be given frequently and immediately following teaching; feedback should meet the instructional needs of the student teacher; feedback should be specific and evaluative; and cooperating teachers can promote reflective teaching practices.

Osakwe, C.I., (1996) studied a cyclical pattern of cooperation and conflict in Nigeria-United States bilateral between 1960-1994. And if the growth rates of the two countries are close and convergent, conflict tends to diminish and cooperation increases. The study showed that periods of sharply divergent economic performance between the two countries produced adverse relations. Also, the quality of diplomats who managed bilateral relations mattered. Policy managers who were activist with either conservative or radical policy orientations typically provoked conflict. Whereas those who were more professional, and with conservative or moderate policy orientations tended to promote cooperative relations. Likewise those who were activist, but moderate, created less conflict.

Rodney, C.C. (1997) conducted a study to determine whether the manipulation of a selected group of toys-cooperative or isolative would significantly influence the cooperative play behaviours of preschool children and found the frequency of cooperative play behaviours would be greater than isolative play behaviours when the children played in other settings, i.e. free play in the classroom.

Mueller, S.S. (1997) studied a model for the professional development of cooperating teachers as supervisors for student teachers. The model contains knowledge base competencies in teaching, supervision, adult development and tried relationships; process strategies that create ownership, develop supervision skills, demonstration, feedback with practice and coaching, and encourage ongoing professionals development.

Zeng, Ming (1998) investigated a key issue in joint venture management: how to balance cooperation and competition between partners. This study proposes that cooperative specialization strategies are usually more effective in achieving a dynamic balance between cooperation and competition. The use of mutual hostages and protection mechanism
enhances partner cooperation while performance ambiguity and organisational differences between partners impact cooperation negatively. In addition, cooperation was found to increase mutual dependence between partners. The results thus show the strong influence of structure on cooperation and performance in joint ventures.

Siqueira, K. Jay, (1998) studied issues of collective action: Common agency, partial cooperation and clubs. In the first of two scenarios examined, the case where principals move simultaneously, it is shown that partial cooperation is self-defeating from the organising principles. In the second scenario under the assumption that the smallest group of homogeneous principals have a first mover advantage it is shown that this is not only individually beneficial to the cooperating principals but the outcome in terms of agent incentives and effort, is also constrained efficient, better than even the standard third best common agency outcome. The interesting results from this best scenario illustrates the possibility that the partial cooperation, when coupled with strategic advantage, can improve efficiency.

Walrod, W.N., (1999) studied knowledge, trust and cooperative relationships in the U.S. biotechnology industry. This study of 89 U.S. biotechnology firms offer empirical explanations as to how U.S. biotechnology firms utilize cooperative agreements. These cooperative agreements represent specific adaptation strategies that companies use to attempt to survive in a highly competitive risky environment. The results support that the successful use of various functional (R & D, manufacturing and marketing) cooperative agreements was associated with successful R & D efficiency.

1.11 EMERGENCE OF THE PROBLEM

A critical review of the literature reveals that the learning environment schools affects cognitive and non-cognitive behaviour of students. viz:

- Achievement scores, outstanding academic growth, self-concept and attendance, students' and parents' satisfaction (Coe, E.T., 1988).
Introduction

- Emotional, social, linguistic, cognitive and psychomotor development (Vargas, M.B. 1993).
- Reading achievement (Khudson, B.A., 1994).
- Teacher burnout, interpersonal problems, recognition, rewards and social support (Pichardo, T.A., 1995).
- Achievement in Mathematics and Science, gender and socio-economic status (Susan, M.B., 1997).

The results of all these studies show that the learning environment of schools affects students' cognitive and non-cognitive development. However, all these studies have been conducted in foreign countries, in different cultural settings and in different social setups. But the results of these studies triggered an interest in the mind of the investigator to study whether different learning environments prevail in Residential and Non-residential schools and also whether the learning outcomes due to different learning environments are different in Indian culture too? The studies have mainly concentrated around cognitive outcomes ignoring such important non-cognitive variables like initiative, mannerism and cooperation. The investigator always had a feeling that these variables of personality are equally important, as cognitive variables, especially for adolescents who undergo streamlining at this stage for their vocational and professional preparation. Different investigators have tried to study these variables independently but not all together. It was this intention with which the present investigation was planned and executed.

1.12 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem has been stated as follows:

Learning environment in residential and non-residential schools and its impact on academic achievement, initiative, mannerism and cooperation of high school students.
1.13 DELIMITATION
The present investigation has been delimited with respect to:

(i) Components of learning environment as
   a) Academic Environment which includes
      • Teaching learning process as perceived by teachers
      • Teaching learning process as observed through actual classroom interaction
      • Co-curricular activities
      • Material equipments
   b) Socio-Emotional Environment which includes
      • Teacher Taught Relationships within the class
      • Teacher Taught relations beyond the class
   c) Organisational Environment
      • Organisational Climate of schools
      • Job satisfaction of teachers

(ii) Types of schools
    • The schools have been chosen which are affiliated to CBSE board whether Residential or Non-Residential whether Government or Private. All the four schools studied in the present investigation are CBSE Schools.
    • The study has been restricted to only IX class students.
    • Only those teachers who were associated with teaching different subjects to these IX grade students were selected.

1.14 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The study was designed in order to attain the following objectives:

- To study the Academic Environment in selected schools.
  (a) To study the teaching-learning process as perceived by the teachers.
  (b) To study the teaching-learning process as observed by the investigator through Flanders classroom interaction analysis.
  (c) To study the status of material equipment in relation to classroom facilities, library facilities and lab facilities.
  (d) To study the types of co-curricular activities in relation to academic activities, socio-cultural and national activities, outdoor/indoor activities and aesthetic activities.
- To investigate the socio-emotional environment in the selected schools:
  (a) To study the inter-personal relationships of the teachers and the students within the class.
  (b) To study students-teachers inter-personal relationships beyond the class.
- To investigate the organisational climate in the selected schools:
Introduction

(a) To study the organisational environment.
(b) To study the organisational environment in relation to the job satisfaction of the teachers.

- To study the impact of learning environment on students’ academic achievement.
- To study the impact of learning environment on students’ initiative.
- To study the impact of learning environment on students’ manners.
- To study the impact of learning environment on students’ cooperation.

1.15 HYPOTHESES

Following hypotheses were formulated:

Ho.1: Different school systems have no differential patterns of teaching learning process, as perceived by teachers.

Ho.2: The classroom interaction processes are not different in the
a) Residential and Non-Residential schools
b) Government and Private schools

Ho.3: The level of different categories of co-curricular activities does not correspond with the type of schools.

Ho.4: Nature of different material equipments does not correspond with the type of school.

Ho.5: The teacher taught relations are not different in different schools.

Ho.5.1: There is no difference in mean scores of Teacher-Taught Relationships (within the class) of four different types of schools.

Ho.5.2: There is no difference in mean scores of Teacher Taught Relationships (within the class) associated with different Affective Response Modes.

Ho.5.3: There is no interaction between types of schooling and teachers Affective Response Modes with regard to Teacher-Taught Relationships within the class.

Ho.5.4: There is no difference in mean scores of Teacher-Taught Relationships (beyond the class) in four different types of schools.

Ho.5.5: There is no difference in mean scores of Teacher-Taught Relationships (beyond the class) associated with different Affective Response Modes.

Ho.5.6: There is no interaction between types of schooling and Teacher Affective Response Modes with regard to Teacher-Taught Relationships (beyond the class).
The organisational climate of Residential and Non-Residential, Government and Private, Schools are not different.

The teachers of schools under two types of management (Government and Private) are not different on their job satisfaction scores.

The teachers in Residential and Non-Residential schools are equally satisfied with their jobs.

There is no interaction between type of management and mode of schooling.

The learning environment of Government and Private schools (management style) yields equal academic achievement scores.

Academic achievement of students of Residential and Non-Residential (mode of schooling) is not different.

There is no interaction between management style and mode of schooling in relation to academic achievement of IX graders.

The learning environment due to two management styles (Government/Private) promotes equal level of initiative among IX graders.

The learning environment due to two modes of schooling (Residential/Non-Residential) yielded equal initiative scores of IX graders.

The interaction between two management styles and two modes of schooling yielded equal initiative scores of IX grade children.

Learning environment due to management style (Government/Private) yields equal levels of Mannerism of IX grade students.

Learning environment due to mode of schooling (Residential/Non-Residential) promotes equal levels of Mannerism.

The two variables of learning environment viz. management style and mode of schooling operate independent of each other in respect of Mannerism.

Learning environment due to management style (Government/Private) yields equal levels of cooperation among IX graders.

Learning environment due to mode of schooling (Residential/Non-Residential) promotes equal levels of cooperation among children.

There is no interaction between management style and mode of schooling.