CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The exhaustive review presented in this chapter fulfills the objectives of presenting the background of research in cognitive ability, school environment, socio-economic status, teacher effectiveness and performance in English and also signifies the importance of the present study indicating the relevance of the variables chosen. The overview presented shows the inter links and gaps filled between the other studies and the present study. Running through the review of the related literature this problem has been postulated and hypotheses formulated.

COGNITIVE ABILITY

Intelligence has been defined and studied under a number of different rubrics, among them are individual differences, cognitive abilities, and aptitudes. In the present study cognitive abilities which is one of the rubrics of intelligence is taken up. Probably the most influential developments in our recent understanding of these concepts have come from educational and psychological researchers associated with cognitive psychology. Three of those individuals, Robert Sternberg, Howard Gardner, and John Horn serve as a representative sample of researchers who have made significant gains in our current conceptions of intelligence. In the following paragraphs a brief summary of each one's conceptualization of intellectual abilities are given.
Ramnath Kundu (1975) attempted to study the relation between a specific factor of the general intelligence namely abstract intelligence and attainment in different subjects of higher secondary course.

The interesting aspect of Lalithama's (1975) finding, show that there was the awareness among parents that, at the high expectation of their children's performance, their intellect is to be tapped up.

Ramojirao (1976), Amar Singh Dhaliwal and Jiwan Prakash Sharma (1976) Genesee (1976) Tuker, Hamayan, Genesee (1976) had the powerful, evidence to have statistically significant correlation of I.Q. with communication skill, and achievement in language.

Carney (1978) had revitalized the fact that the relationship between performance and students intelligence was highly significant.

For learning English at the high school stage the factors playing a vital role, as revealed in a study by Jain (1979) were intelligence, English vocabulary, knowledge of grammar, comprehension, spelling and punctuation, speed and eligibility of handwriting, the status of English in family, extra-reading in English, and the quality of the teacher.

In addition to differing metacognitive processes, individuals differ in their cognitive styles. Cognitive styles define the way individuals receive information, form concepts, and retain and process information. Cognitive styles comprise one dimension of learning styles. As Keefe (1979) defines them, learning styles include characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviours that indicate how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the environment.
Cognitive psychology is concerned with "understanding the nature of human intelligence and how people think" (Anderson 1980, p.3). One current view of thinking is that it is a human information processing system intervening or mediating between the learning environment and the learner's problem-solving behavior. Components of this system are sensory input and perception, memory, control processes (metacognition), and output and response mechanisms (speech, muscles, limbs). Studies of successful students have found that the depth of their information processing is directly related to the quality of their learning outcomes. That is, more successful students classify, compare, contrast, analyze, and synthesize information with the goal of comprehension rather than memorization. A new view of learners, learning, and intelligence is emerging. Intelligence is now seen as a set of thinking and learning skills that can be modified. Focus has shifted from intelligence tests to the cognitive processes underlying the tests and educational performance.

This new perspective identifies the differences between novice and expert problem solvers. Problem solving requires extensive, accessible conceptual and procedural knowledge. Expert problem solvers appear to have more accessible knowledge and cognitive skills, in part because they organize knowledge in large chunks grouped into clusters, making what they know more retrievable.

Expert problem solvers also use different cognitive strategies and processes. The most important (and most transferable) of these are metacognitive, or general controlling processes. Several researchers have identified the following processes as keys to satisfactory problem solving.
Gurubar Sadhar (1985) and Kaile (1985) found I.Q. to be the positive predictor of one's performance.

Robert Sternberg. Sternberg's (1985) theory of intelligence contains three subtheories, one about context, one about experience, and one about the cognitive components of information processing. The contextual subtheory attempts to specify what would be considered "Intelligent" in a given culture or context. According to Sternberg, culturally intelligent behavior involves either adapting to one's present environment, selecting a more optimal environment, or reshaping one's current environment. The experiential subtheory claims that the expression of any intelligent behaviour will be a function of the amount of experience one has with the particular class of tasks being tested. According to Sternberg, intelligence is best demonstrated when the task is relatively novel or unfamiliar. The componential subtheory describes the cognitive structures and processes that together produce intelligent behaviour. Sternberg proposes three general types of processes metacomponents (which control and monitor processing), performance components (processes that execute plans), and knowledge acquisition components (which encode and assemble new knowledge). As a whole, the triarchic theory claims different aspects or kinds of intelligence (e.g., academic, practical).

Planning - recognizing and defining a problem, deciding upon solution processes, and sequencing the processes into a strategy. Problem representation - deciding how to represent problem information self-monitoring or self-management - evaluating a solution and the feedback received from it (Laster, 1985).
Recently Grewal (1985), Kamala Pillai (1986), Yadav (1986) and Srivatsava (1987) have also continued research in the same direction and have found similar results.

Harbans Singh (1987), Srivatsava (1987), Kulwinder Singh (1987), Dr. G.S. Sodhi and Rooma (1987) had reinstated the fact that I.Q. is the major predictor of performance and all the other factors are only next to it.

Intelligence and creativity are the two main cognitive variables studied by a large number of researchers. Corroborative evidence to prove that intelligence is a correlate of achievement was obtained by Bhusari C.V (1986), Kaile H.S (1988), Kumar R (1989), Shah J.H, (1990); Chandha N.K. and Chandha .S (1990); Sen Baral .K (1990); Devi. V.A. (1990); found that the conjoint effect of intelligence and creativity is different on achievement in different subjects.

Witkinson (1990) had reported a number of significant relationship between performance and I.Q. score.

John Horn along with his advisor, Raymond B. Cattell, John Horn has developed a theory of intelligence that specifies two broad factors, fluid abilities and crystallized abilities, along with numerous specific factors that support the general ones. Fluid intelligence represents one's ability to reason and solve problems in novel or unfamiliar situations. Crystallized intelligence, on the other hand, indicates the extent to which an individual has attained the knowledge of a culture. According to Horn (1989), the Gf-Gc theory can also be thought of as a theory of multiple intelligences because of the relative
independence of fluid and crystallized abilities (characterized by distinctly separate patterns of covariation). Horn also argues that the expressions of these abilities" ... are outcroppings of distinct influences operating through development, brain function, genetic determination, and the adjustments, adaptations, and achievements of school and work" (Horn, 1989, p.76).

An important development in our understanding of intelligence, is the universal agreement among researchers that at least some aspects of our intellectual abilities depend heavily on our experiential histories. This acknowledgement should be clear in the three theories summarized above. Each one recognizes the inseparability of experience from intellectual ability. This position stands in stark contrast to the one that hold that intelligence tests measure - or ought to measure - one's innate capacity. Admitting that experience influences one's performance on an intelligence test severely undermines the innate capacity notion, unless one adopts the weaker position that intelligence is a measure of one's innate capacity to learn. In either case, the logical position to assume is that any theory that attempts to explain individual differences in intellectual abilities must include a learning subtheory as part of it.

A recent volume edited by Ackerman, Sternberg, and Glaser (1989) presents several current approaches that integrate information processing theories of learning with theories of individual differences in abilities. Two widely acknowledged views have come from Ackerman (e.g., 1993) and Lohman (1989; 1993). The next two paragraphs briefly summarize these researchers' views.
A second question to be answered is, "How can current research inform the development of new instruments to assess intellectual abilities?" There are two parts to this answer, each with its own potential contribution. First, while intelligence tests were originally devised to classify individuals according to their academic potential, our education system is now faced with an admittedly diverse set of students who possess a wide range of expressible abilities. One answer that is emerging from the cognitive analysis of intellectual abilities is that tests are likely better used for diagnostic purposes (i.e., as assessments of current functioning so as to inform instructional needs) rather than for classification. Thus, several researchers (e.g., Garden & Hacht, 1989) propose the development of new assessment tools designed for a new purpose.

David Lohman (1989) has coupled information processing theories of learning (e.g., Anderson, 1983) with the Gf - Gc theory (e.g., Horn, 1989) in order to characterize the relation between learning and intelligence. It has been known for some time that crystalized intelligence was the product of the acquisition of knowledge (i.e., experience). However, recently Lohman (1993) has argued persuasively that fluid intelligence (i.e., the ability to reason in novel situations) may also be amenable to learning. In fact, he espouses that schools would benefit from direct instruction and testing of fluid abilities.

Cognitive analyses can be used beneficially to uncover individual differences in the information processing profiles of students (e.g., Carpenter, Just & Shell, 1990). A clear and important implication of this work is that,
such analyses will eventually lead to dramatic improvement in our ability to assess an individual's current level of intellectual functioning and to prescribe instructional interventions that will maximize each individual's potential.

The focus on creativity, language development, children's perceptions of their cognitive competence, and traditional measures of achievement. Classrooms characterized by child initiation appear to facilitate children's creative development. The Hyson research team found that children in child-initiated classrooms score higher on measures of creativity, or divergent thinking, than children in academically oriented classrooms (Hirsh-Pasek, Hyson & Rescorla, 1990; Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek & Rescorla, 1990).

Howard Gardner, one of the most popular recent views of intelligence, at least among practitioners, has come from Gardner (e.g., Gardner & Hatch, 1989). He proposes a theory of multiple intelligences in which he claims there are seven relatively independent intelligences. Those intelligences are logical-mathematical, linguistic, musical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. Additionally, Gardner recognizes that one's experiences will influence the degree to which each of the intelligences can be expressed. Thus, rather than characterizing an individual's intelligence, taking into account culturally valued activities that can be expressed in a familiar context. Accordingly, this view suggests the need for new forms of assessment. Gardner and his colleagues have been working on versions of new, more authentic assessment tools for the past 8 years. The results have been mixed. For a critique, the interested reader should see Sternberg (1991).
In two other studies on language development in child-initiated and academically focused programs, the developmentally appropriate, or child-initiated, programs were associated with better language outcomes. Progress reports from public-school, preschool programs indicated that children in child-initiated classrooms had better verbal skills than children in academically oriented programs (Marcon, 1992). Children's receptive language was better in programs with higher quality literacy environments and when developmentally appropriate activities were more prevalent (Dunn, Beach & Kontos, 1994).

The state of affairs with respect to testing intelligence is interesting. Basically, current practice doesn't match the recommendations being offered by educational and psychological researchers. One question to be answered is, "Given our understanding of the nature of intellectual abilities, why do current intelligence tests remain so popular and the standard form of interpretation so pervasive?" In a provocative reply, Sternberg (1992) argues that market forces (i.e., the demands of test consumers) have retarded the development of new, more appropriate measures of intellectual abilities. He points out that signs of change are appearing, but until they gain more momentum, current instruments, no matter how inadequate, will continue to be the standard.

The use of intelligence tests in the American education system is widespread despite the well documented shortcomings of these instruments. For instance, the fact that minority groups are over represented in special education and under represented in gifted and talented programs is but one example of how intelligence test scores, coupled with the results from other diagnostic instruments, are used daily to make decisions about eligibility for special programs.
"Most educators and many psychologists think intelligence tests measure - or ought to measure - something like the innate capacity or potential of the learner. This has always been a popular belief among both professionals and laymen. It is a personal theory that is staunchly held and, like other personal theories, is not easily altered by disconfirming evidence" (Lohman, 1993, p.14).

Phillip Ackerman, (1993) has adapted aspects of John R. Anderson's theory of cognitive skill acquisition (e.g., Anderson, 1983) and coupled it with a theory of intellectual abilities proposed by Marshalek, Lohman, and Snow (1983). The integration has produced a hybrid theory which claims that as learning occurs, intellectual differences are reduced for tasks that have a consistent problem-solving structure. In contrast, intellectual differences become magnified for tasks that have variable problem-solving structures. In other words, with practice peoples' intellectual abilities will be either similar or different, depending on the nature of the mental processes required to solve different types of problems.

Young children in developmentally appropriate programs also seemed more confident in their own cognitive skills. Children described their cognitive competence more positively when they attended child-initiated rather than academically oriented programs (Mantzicopoulos, Neuharth-Pritchett & Morelock, 1994; Stipek et al., 1995). When using the traditional measuring sticks of achievement tests and report card grades, it is difficult to say whether child-centered or didactic programs are superior. Similar to the state of affairs for social development, the available research is equivocal with regard to these assessments of cognitive development. The majority of the studies indicate that
a didactic approach is not necessary to promote children's learning of academic skills. Supporting developmentally appropriate practice are studies by Sherman and Mueller (1996) and Marcon (1992). Sherman and Mueller (1996) observed better reading and mathematics achievement scores for children attending developmentally appropriate kindergarten through second grade. Preschool children in Marcon's (1992) study had more positive progress reports overall and specifically on maths and science when they attended child-initiated classrooms. Mathematics achievement was similar for children in both types of classrooms, however. Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek, and Rescorla (1990) found no differences in academic achievement as a skills and self-understanding.

Recent advances in cognitive psychology provide insights into thinking processes and learning behaviour that can help teachers prepare students for the demands of the society.

OVERVIEW

The variable of cognitive ability had been the focus of interest in many psychological and educational studies. This could be inferred from such a variable being repeated consistently in many researches as one of the significant influencing factor of student performance. The investigators who are pioneers in their attempt to find the relation between intelligence and performance opine that environmental conditions poke the intelligence of adolescents and enhance their performance. However, there are certain studies which manifest contradictory results especially with regard to cognitive ability and performance in English.
SCHOOL CLIMATE AND STUDENT PERFORMANCE

The school climate and class room climate factors have been exhaustively studied and have gone into multiple details of school climate variable and its relative contribution to other relevant school variables. One of the most popular variable tested in correlational studies of school climate had been student academic performance.

As early as the 70’s the study of Tretta (1973) investigated the class room climate types in relation to learning and found open climate more conducive for reading and arithmetic achievement. Davies (1974) developed a school climate opinionnaire by using a factor analytic approach. The research was mainly conducted on the teacher’s perception of their employment climate. Ongley (1974) on the other hand, made a comparative study of student perception of climate and student achievement. His study indicated a positive association between perception of school climate and student achievement. Similarly, Stowers (1974) compared the student who studied in two types of school composition measured in terms of school climate attitude and student achievement. He reported that a positive climate regarding schools were perceived by student studying in open type of schools more than conventional type of schools. Atkinson (1974) also made use of climate in terms of learning climates in schools and related the variable with teacher perceptions. Corroborative finding could also be found in Adorian (1974) with college students.
Comparison of perceived school climate was made by Liggett (1974) with small and large schools, the findings with 742 students and 266 students' perception of school climate comparison revealed that students belonging to larger school had more reliance on their own capacities and an underestimation of the school environment. But students belonging to smaller schools manifested greater humility and understand their achievement to personal attributes and glorified the characteristics of the school climate to be more contributing. Many authors like Hicks (1974) have studied college environment as such.

In line with the researches on school climates, Weiser (1974) investigated the influence of perceived climate on teacher morale in four secondary schools. The salient features of the result were; the four schools significantly differed in perceived schools climate. The results also supported the hypothesis that there is a significant positive difference of climate on teacher morale. Therefore the result clearly indicated that higher the openness of school climates, higher the teacher morale. Similarly higher the closeness of the school climate, lower the teacher morale. A detailed analysis of school climate in relation to urban and rural environment was studied. De Bebta (1974) in this investigation of school climate attempted to relate it with the attitude of students towards education. The study brought significant information on perceived climate and student attitude.

Studies of a similar nature relating to school climate, academic achievement, teacher morale have been conducted by researchers such as Leedi (1975), Bowman (1975), Imhulce (1975), Kesselhaut (1975) studied the effect
of physical environment of the class room in relation to performance on a mental task. It was found that noise has detrimental effect on class room performance. In a cross cultural study, Su, Wu-tien (1975) compared the class room climate perceptions of Chinese and American schools. It was found that there is a substantial influence of climate on academic achievement among both boys and girls. It was also found that climate factors have been perceived differentially by boys and girls. Another interesting finding of this study had been that more than IQ scores manifested, climate factors have higher prediction of student's academic performance. The differences found between Chinese and American school climate have been attributed to the basic cultural differences.

Wills (1977) attempted to determine the contribution of school composition especially that of climate in the generation of low achieving pupils. Apart from other findings the most significant one for the present study has been the school environment playing a pivotal role in the success or failure of the pupil. Therefore, it is estimated that the environment could be modified in such a way that is conducive for the improvement of student's performance. The perceptions of teaching faculty of schools in relation to student achievement has also been searched by Morton (1977). It was found that the teacher's perception had no significant relation to student achievement.

School environment has been the focus of research in Barrington's (1978) investigation on the correlates of student performance. The study revealed that school environment, social class background and family income of the student affect student achievement, especially the reading habit. On similar lines,
Huge (1978) studied the impact of classroom learning environment on academic achievement with reference to Asian countries, namely, East Java of Indonesia. It was found that school environment especially with reference to the physical atmosphere, classroom climate, teacher pedagogy, teacher quality have discrete and definite influence on student academic achievement. The study also indicated a clear picture on the fact of classroom being the most important environment for personal learning and development. The author has indicated that classroom had the strongest influence on the student achievement. According to him the teacher factor consisted of involvement, affiliation, encouragement and support. Corroborative studies could be observed from that of Darer (1978), Bixler (1978) and Patel (1978). Steward (1978) in his study made a variation of including the structure of the organisation, in addition to the classroom climate. He found that a highly centralised closed supervision structure was more conducive for a positive learning climate in the classroom than a decentralised open structure of an organisation. In other words, a closed climate of the school alone enhances high student achievement whereas an open school climate does not provide scope for high student achievement.

Studies relating to classroom climate and the perceptions of students had been the focus of Slonkaer's (1979) study. He also correlated this with actual intellectual ability and achievement. The results indicated that classroom climate was very much related to performance especially with high ability students. However, this was not found true with low ability students. Surface (1979), Edge (1979) and Sommer Ville (1979) were the researchers who
focussed on school climate and student performance during the same period. In a slightly different manner, Porter (1979) conducted an analysis of matches and mismatches between student motivational characteristics and classroom climate with academic performance. It was concluded that classroom climate had a swamping effect on student performance over and above the personal motivation of students.

The studies of Dicks (1980), O'Regan (1980) and Leslie (1980) brought forth similar findings supportive of the influence of school and classroom climate on student academic performance. Christi and Glick Man (1980) attempted to study a different aspect of a classroom climate, that is the influence of noise on learning and the effect of gender. Interestingly it was found that performance in the class was not affected by a noisy environment or a quiet environment. However, they reported that a noise became an influencing hinderance only when the academic task was intellectually complex. Similarly, Latus Bauman (1980) in their study on the personality and environmental correlates of academic performance, found school environment not significant to student performance. Shapson, Wright, Eason and Fitzgerald (1980) investigated the physical structure of the class in terms of size or number of student in relation to student performance in mathematics, composition, arts and reading. Findings indicated that the classroom processes were definitely affected by the size of the class. It was also found that mathematics performance was less in a larger class than in smaller classes consisting of a size between 16 and 20. There were no class size effects for other subjects. In a different situation, Medway and Egelson (1980) studied the
personality characteristics of students as perceived by the teachers and correlated it with an open and closed classroom climate. They reported independent relationship between the two. Alarofi (1980) compared the differential perception of climate among school students in Libya. Unlike the Western country and the East, the boys’ schools were found to be more closed and controlled than the schools of the girls.

Ahmad (1981) studied the relationship between school climate, student leadership and performance. It was found that the leadership of the heads of the institution was more influential to school climate than the leadership of students. Participative and democratic styles of leadership were found among principals of open climate schools. Highly authoritative styles of leadership among principal were found in schools with closed climate. However, the leadership style of elementary school principals were independent of the climate. Student performance was found to be highly influenced by climate and the leadership styles of principal. Adman thus brought forth an important information that student performance is dependent on a bureaucratic leader with a closed climate unlike the common beliefs. Ross (1981), Patton (1981) and Prapuleonis (1981) introduced variables such as student characteristics, teacher characteristics in relation to classroom climate. Agnew (1981), Thompson (1981) and Obrien (1981) have all been conducting research in the area of climate and student performance. (Slater, 1982. Haggard 1982 and Peaciotti 1982). More investigations during this period concentrated on the physical environment of the school and the class such as noise, size and the like (Kauffman 1982, Hyatt 1982). In a unique study of Flynn (1982) the
seating arrangement of the student with regard to ability and attitude were related to student performance. It was found that seating arrangement had a very high influence on student performance. Some intervention programmes of improving the school climate were studied by researches like Fellez (1982).

Dillard (1983), O'Neal (1983), Shea (1983), Bedit studied the various aspects of school and classroom climate in relation to academic performance. It was observed that school climate factors, by and large influence student performance. However, Martin's (1983) study with regard to mathematics performance and school climate clearly brought forth an independent or no relation between climate and excellence in mathematics. Similar findings have been observed in the studies of Franklin (1983), Copeland (1983) and Hamberlin (1983).

Trickatt (1983) studied the relationship between cognitive styles of learning, classroom climate and performance. He found that there were significant combined effects on student performance. The factor of anxiety has been emphasized more than the factor of environment.

Subsequent study with regard to climate and student performance, have been conducted by researchers, Vurks, Brooks and Sherman (1984). Some studies were also focussing on the qualities of the principals in relation to climate and student performance (Barton 1984). Marin (1984) was involved in developing an instrument for school climate. Researchers such as Butler, King, David and Moreland (1984) made slight variation in their study of school climate in relation to student success. In these studies, the student population
has varied between the elementary schools to higher secondary schools. It requires to be mentioned in the present context that the findings have been inconclusive and contradictory, emphasising the need for continuous evaluation in one of the primary area of student success. Costello (1984) and Besch (1984), studied the climate of schools identified as effective. The results provided significant information, that climate is a positive contributor for effective schooling. In order to identify the factors of school climate, Soberanis (1984), made a content analysis of school climate definitions. He concluded that it consisted of factors describing the interaction between the person and the environment, be it principal, teacher or student.

West (1985) included the variable of social structure of schools in study of effects of teacher's perception of school climate on student academic performance. According to his study social system variable explained most of the variations in academic performance in combination with climate perception. West has included socio-economic background of students to be an important aspect of school social structure. In a similar study made by Wright and Cowen (1985), the effect of class room was found to be related to an orderly, organised and competitive students who enjoyed their school work most. Hence they were substantially better in their academic performance than those who had negative perception of class room. Corroborative investigations have been made by Vande Griff (1985), Hallinan and Sorensen (1985), Buckalew and Coffield (1986).

In a similar context Mckenze (1986), studied the operational characteristics of school climate in determination of levels of effectiveness. Among the clusters of variables related to effective schools was found that
Climate perception to a very large extent operated on student performance. It was also reported that this climate factor was intervening variable between school environment and student performance. Student's perception of climate was investigated by Hurbanis (1986), with a view to suggest ways and means of improving student effectiveness. Brooks (1986) on similar lines tested relationship between school climate and performance. The more significant finding in this study which is in line with the present investigation was that though student perception of school climate was contributing to student academic performance, teachers perception of school climate was found to be independent of student performance. Researchers like Baneroft (1986), Ansingh (1986) and Hughes (1986) have concentrated on aspects other than student performance in relation to school climate. Gastineau (1986) studied the relationship between school climate as one of the effective school characteristic and student performance. It was concluded that socio-economic status in combination with climate setting has effective influence on student performance. The studies of Dar (1986), Holliman and Leder (1986) also confirm the hypotheses that school and classroom climate play a vital role in student performance.

Glassi, Brooks, Stoltz and Trexler (1986) found contrary results with regard to the relationship between climate and student productivity. They found at the college level the influence of climate only plays a vital role in student performance.

of Edward (1987) made a small variation in the investigation of school climate and student performance by introducing parent involvement programme. It was found that parent involvement had the highest influence on student performance gain compared to school climate influence on student performance. The relationship between the external environment and student academic performance was also the focus of study for researchers like Stevens (1987). These results, however, have shown inconclusive inferences. Brantley (1987) brought forth a significant finding that climate, both classroom and school whether perceived by students or teachers is highly contributing to student performance. In a longitudinal study of Necochea (1987) the effectiveness of student climate variable, interesting longitudinal research showed the climate variable pertaining to the three years, predicted the positive or negative change in academic performance. Vander Sijde (1987) from his study, relating to school climate to student learning outcomes found teacher variable to be more significant in student performance than the general school climate.

Later studies during the late 80s explored the effect of school climate on student performance by experimentally testing various positive climates. Mitchel (1988) was one who found a great deal of relation between a positive school climate and enhanced student performance specially in reading and mathematics skills. Similar studies were conducted by Gaddy (1988) and Hard (1988).

Wever (1989) attempted to study the perception of gifted children on their classroom climate and found that by and large gifted children had positive perception compared to the non-gifted. In another study of Czupryn
(1989) an investigation was made on the adjustment of the students to the existing school climate and its relation to academic performance. The multivariate multiple regression analysis yielded a significant finding that the more adjusting the student, the higher the academic performance. Hence concluded that student adjustment to any climate could be the best predictor of academic performance. Corroborative findings have been reported by Burde (1989), Welsh (1989) and Dimusio (1989). Cook (1989) studied the effect of school climate, teacher morale in relation to performance. He brought forth the information that neither teacher morale nor school climate had any significant impact on student performance.

The studies relating to climate and student performance was extended to colleges by Spelheng (1990). He found that there was no significant contribution of climate, to performance score at the college level. However, significant relationships were found among the school students. On similar lines Linzy (1990) tested the influence of school climate at three levels of education and found no significant difference between any school climate variable and student performance as the level of education increased. Richardson (1990) Petersons (1990) and Haymon (1990) were some of the researchers who focussed on the same problem and found.

Wilson (1990) wanted to determine the extent of classroom perception influence on student performance. His results also reaffirm the contribution of climate perception on student performance.

Subsequent researches of Finch (1991), Kovai (1991), Price (1991) and Ibanez (1991), also mostly confirmed the hypothesis that school climate is an effective correlate of student performance.
Connelly (1991) found from his study that school climate in combination with teacher perception had the most significant relation to student performance. However, principal's effectiveness was found to be independent of student performance but highly significant to teacher perceptions. It was found by Eshel (1991) that only a closed and highly controlled school climate brought about high student performance compared to an open climate where an authority structure is not present. Gibbins and Bickel (1991) compared the climate conditions of public high schools and related it with student performance. A consistent finding was that the public high school provided a climate conducive of higher attainment compared to the private school climate. Some of the studies such as that of Price (1991) made classroom climate more specific and preferred to call it learning climate and related it to student performance. The study concluded that the findings have been inconclusive due to intervening variables. Climate correlates of student performance had been the nucleolus of study for Ibaney (1991), Mencon (1991) and Connelly (1991). Contradictorily results have been reported in these studies regarding perception of school climate and student performance. The nature of research in 1992 was more on school climate and student performance specific to school subjects (Young, 1992). However, there is a decline of such studies during this year reported in the Western literature. Saho (1995) made certain differences in his study of school climate and examined the student quality of school life in general, inclusive of performance, teacher perception and the like. The school climate perception was not found to be significantly correlating to student school performance, rather it was related to school practices.
The Indian researches have also been continuously concentrating on the concept of climates from the teachers' point of view and the students' point of view. The results have been multiple indicating multiple directions. Hence the need for inclusion of school climate. Bhasin (1974) in his study attempted to find the relationship between perception of school climate and academic performance at the high school level. He also took in view the variables of intelligence, self-concept, sex, socio-economic status and teacher perception. The sample consisted of 200 students randomly selected from boys and girls. Bhasin has summarised that the total school perception inclusive of the physical environment, the teacher behaviour and teaching activities were found to be positively and significantly correlated to academic performance, in general, intelligence, self-concept and socio-economic status in particular. He further indicated that his study has also shown, the lower the school perception, the lower the academic performance. This is particularly true of higher attainment with positive school climate.

Desai (1979), in his detailed investigation of climate, wanted to explore the components of climate and relate it to student academic performance. Desai had taken about 1555 pupils for the study and found that pupils' perception of classroom climate significantly influenced student motivation and academic performance. He also observed that non-academic performance never had any relation to the climate perceived of the class room. It was also found that boys perception on classroom climate appeared more positive and conducive than the perceptions of girls' or even the mixed gender. In another study by Doctor (1984) the climate factors were related to students academic
performance. His study revealed that perceived class room climate had a consistent relation to academic performance. Similar studies were conducted by Doraisamy (1985), Naidu (1986) studied the student's perception of school environment in addition to many other relevant independent variables in relation to the academic performance of formal students and non-formal students. He found the school environment to be the most contributing factor to academic performance.

OVERVIEW

The variable of school climate had been the focus of interest in many psychological and educational studies. This could easily be inferred from such variable being repeated consistently over the years in many researches as one of the significant influencing factors of student academic performance. The western studies by and large indicate a unidirectional relation. However, there are certain studies which manifest contradictory results especially with regard to school climate and academic performance observed. Therefore, a continuous evaluation is imperative and necessary, hence the inclusion of the variable of school climate.

TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS AND STUDENT PERFORMANCE

Research in the area of teacher effectiveness and its contribution to other school related variables especially, performance of students have been exhaustive as far as the western literature could be reviewed. The studies focussed on the attitudes of teacher on teaching, the techniques they use for teaching and also on the school climate and teacher-student interpersonal
relations. An exhaustive review available has indicated that the teacher effectiveness variable has been widely researched especially in relation to student performance. The continuous evaluation reports themselves are indicative of the potential nature of the teacher effectiveness variable in school education.

The work of Hunter (1974) to begin with, focussed on the teacher behaviour as a determinant of student attitude in the United States. The study initially classified the classroom teaching behaviour of trained teachers and inexperienced teachers and then related it to student attitude and student performance. Matching was observed in ethnicity and teacher qualification. The classroom teacher behaviour included that of vocal behaviour through which instructions were verbalized with logical explanations. The dependent variables were student attitude towards the subject, favourable or unfavourable and student performance in these subjects. The study found that experience in teaching had a significant influence over student performance because classroom teacher behaviour seem to relate to student performance. Johnson (1974), on the other hand wanted to emphasise creativity in teachers. His study consisted of 353 fourth grade students and the variables studied were creative teaching, and its effects on the creative thinking ability and performance of the students. The teachers were made to use William’s book on stimulating creativity among students in the class room as guides. A pre and post-test design revealed that, by and large the student's ability for creative thinking increased along with creative teaching followed by student performance. The results also indicated significant gender difference to the
favour of girls scoring high, both in creative thinking and performance. The study of Patrick (1974) was an edge to the previous work and attempted to develop an effective teacher profile. Patrick made use of the students to evaluate the effectiveness of teachers through a preference inventory and exemplified them with EPPS (Edward's Personal Preference Schedule, 1959), needs to be mentioned. His study concluded that students preference to those teachers who were outgoing and supporting with EPPS dimensions of nurturance, change, affiliation, performance interception, dominance and exhibition and considered least effective as those teachers who were autocratic and dogmatic with EPPS variables of aggression, order, succorance and abasement.

Barter's (1974) work on the teachers' role and teacher student relationships very clearly indicated the nature and dynamics of teachers in schools. It was a bilateral study taking both the teacher perceptions and student perceptions. The relationship model that has emerged from, has shown a meaningful influence of teacher behaviour and student attitude. Further implications have been on providing information on student morale and school climate.

The research conducted by Newhouse (1974), pertaining to relationship between instructional organising, a responsibility of the school and the academic performance of the pupils designated to be low, medium and high achievers found a significant positive influence of instructional organization on achieving students and a dissuasive influence of non-organization of instruction on the performance of students. However, the results have not shown any dramatic differences among the two as far as the academic performance was concerned.
The variable of teacher effectiveness has been empirically tested from various angles, while some researchers focussed on bringing about the most effective teacher profile some others concentrated on finding meaningful relationship between teacher behaviour and student behaviour. Yet another group seem to have concentrated on the assessment of teacher effectiveness. Nielsen (1974), investigated the appropriateness of using a particular subject lesson (a mathematics lesson) to assess the effectiveness of teachers. The study was made interesting by the method of investigation Nielsen had adopted. The evaluation of teacher efficiency was obtained through two measures - (1) a student evaluation and (2) a master-teacher evaluation. The analysis using correlations revealed that there was high positive influence of student evaluation and student performance. However, the correlations are not significant at the higher levels of education. Finally the researchers concluded that mathematics can be a very effective means of assessing teacher effectiveness and that pupil evaluations were significantly reliable than master teacher’s evaluation. Similar study was conducted by McCuistton (1974) where the author attempted to explore the relationship between the teacher’s ability and student’s mathematics performance. The study made use of sophisticated linear regression analysis in order to predict the student’s mathematics performance through teacher effectiveness. Criterion groups were designated on the basis of most effective and the least effective teachers. The results obtained did not indicate any predictive association. Glary (1974), tested the predictive teacher characteristics on successful student. On the basis of some of the past research indicating the key to excellence in academics, is on the teacher, Glary chose certain specific characteristics of the teacher to be
contributing to successful student performance in reading. The characteristics included by the investigator were teacher knowledge, teacher personality especially with reference to EPPS, number of years of teaching. The best predictor of successful student performance, especially in reading was the combination of teacher personality and teacher knowledge.

During the same time another set of research could be found on teacher expectation and student performance (Elijah, 1974). Pearson's (1974) study attempted to assess the effects of facilitative teacher behaviour and non-facilitative teacher upon student performance and student perception. The dichotomous model was subjected to a correlational analysis of student performance and student perception of a subject. It was concluded that facilitative teacher behaviour had a positive influence on student perception rather than student performance. Further studies focussed their attention on teacher characteristics by comparing regular teacher with student teachers (Ream, 1974).

The emphasis on the contributory relationship between competency and student performance remained to be the nucleus of many education researches during the period of 1974. Niemeyer (1974), wanted to empirically establish relationship with an experimental approach. The researcher identified two groups of teachers and labelled them as experimental and controlled groups. The experimental group consisted of teachers who were trained in a systems approach to instruction. The controlled group on the other hand consisted of teachers non component in this systems approach to instruction. The results brought about the significant relationship between systematic teaching and
student positive attitude and student performance. The other relationship found to be significant were the gain score of the experimental group of students over the group of students exposed to controlled group of teachers. The study thus claimed a very significant implication of teacher competency in student performance. Haley (1974), conducted an elaborate investigation on the inter-relationships of student and teacher variables, some of them were teacher bio-data, age, sex, teacher-student inter-personal contact. Some of the student variables included were student performance, student rating of the teacher, student attitude towards the teacher evaluation, teacher and student expectation. As the study involved multiple variables, regression analysis was used and the teacher variables were found to be significant on student variables. Burtley (1974) similarly tested the relationship between teacher characteristics and student performance by comparing the students with individual guidance and students in schools. The results indicated that the students who were going for the individually guided education and those going for school education with competent teachers with improved instructional techniques did better than the teachers in traditional schools.

The teacher effectiveness variable was also tested with children having disadvantages. In one of the studies by First (1974), the teacher efficiency was correlated with student performance in mathematics, language ability and science. This resulted in a significant relationship between teacher score and the performance of the disadvantaged children.

The direction of research in teacher effectiveness in US seems to have changed from teacher-learner relationships to various other areas of evaluation of teacher effectiveness in open-space and open education system (Roy 1975).
The researches of teacher effectiveness also included what the teachers preferred as dimensions of assessing their competencies and the techniques (Vierke 1975).

However, interest in teacher effectiveness and its influence on student performance continued to dominate the literature. Clark (1976), wanted to observe the effects of teacher effectiveness on student learning and student attitude towards subjects. The results made clear conclusions that while positive teacher behaviour facilitated learning, negative teacher behaviour facilitated negative learning or no learning. The focus on teacher effectiveness was also tested with a qualitative method of search.

The researches during 1978 on teacher efficiency and its influence on student performance has attempted to explore variables of ideal teacher and actual teacher discrepancies in perception (Monotenegro, 1978). The focus has been on the student perception. Some of the studies have concentrated the aspects of motivating and developing teacher efficiency as a human resource (Shapiro 1979, Soar 1978).

The work of Peterson Marx and Clark (1978) concentrated on teacher planning, teacher behaviour and student performance. Teacher planning and teacher behaviour has reportedly shown significant outcomes in student performance. On similar lines, Cox (1978), attempted to determine the relationship between teacher effectiveness attitudes and performance of pupils and also saw the interaction influence of teacher self-concept. The experimental and control groups design was followed and the eventual findings were non-conclusive since they were non-directional.
A significant study of Good and Beckermen (1978), in their attempt to examine the influence of the teacher effect on high, middle and low student performance, initially classified the teacher into effective teachers and ineffective teachers on the basis of student performance. The correlation between effective teaching and skills in mathematics revealed that effective teachers on the whole were able to make performance gains from all levels of students ability. On the other hand the vice versa was not true. The data revealed that ineffective teachers on the whole were not displeasing the performance of any student at any level.

Researchers also focussed on the variables of immediacy, interpersonal interaction between student - teacher and its effect on improving teachers skills Andersen (1978), Argulewic (1978), focussed attention on the effectiveness of teachers in teaching the learning disabled. Costs (1978) also included variables of teachers perception to evaluate teacher effectiveness.

The interpersonal interaction between the faculty and student and its predictive value on student academic performance was examined by Pascarella Terenzini and Hibel (1978). Multiple regression analysis showed that student faculty interaction accounted for 62 percent of student performance. Gregg (1978) conducted a similar study and found that teacher - pupil interaction especially at junior class level contributed significantly to their performance. Further there was an accurate correlation between the perceptions of children about their teachers efficiency and their actual academic ability. However, Gregg reported non-significant relation between teacher perception of the students actual academic ability. Martin’s (1978) work on teacher effectiveness
has gone into the details of having a workable assessment of teacher effectiveness. Corroborative study was done by Blake (1978). The study has relevance in the present context because the teacher effectiveness rating scale is based on student evaluation.

Johnson's (1978) research was designed to compare teacher effectiveness among those who had specific targets and those who did not have that in relation to student performance. The results indicated that there were no significant difference between the students performance of the target and non-target teachers.

An elaborate experimental research conducted by Avila (1979), with select teachers with identified teaching competencies with another control group. The results revealed very interesting information that select teaching competencies, significantly increased learning skills of the students. In a different angle, Firth (1979) examined whether student perception and evaluation of their teachers would change from time to time. He found that there was no significant changes taking place in the perception and evaluation of teachers by the students even after they left school. Some of the studies focussed on the techniques of effective teaching (Velez, 1979).

Borzym (1979), on the other hand tested the leadership style of teachers in relation to student performance. The I.Q classification of the student show that the high I.Q achieved best in a democratic teaching situation whereas the low I.Q achieved the best in an autocratic teaching situation. Borg (1979), examined the teachers efficiency in covering the academic content and student performance indicating a significant influence of teacher coverage on student's performance.
Enhancement of teacher effectiveness through teacher management for the learning disabled has also been the focus of research for Bricker (1979). Student performance has been taken as predictor of teacher effectiveness along with teacher personality characteristics. The step-wise multiple linear regression analysis brought forth a very significant contribution of teacher effectiveness and teacher personality on student performance. Elliot (1979), Harding (1979), have conducted similar studies on teacher effectiveness. Anthony (1979), demonstrated the effect of learning strategies on evaluation of teacher effectiveness.

Cotton (1979), explored the effect of attractiveness of the teacher on student evaluation to teacher effectiveness and found no directional results. However, during the same time, the study conducted by Powell (1979), answered how teacher reinforcement behaviour could be enhancing pupil performance, Lynch (1979) took the aspect of teacher warmth on student performance. He conducted that more vigorous investigation will have to be thought of in judging its influence on the learning outcomes of students. The relationship between objective teacher experience and student performance was the focus of New man (1979) study during the same period. The studies of Coulter (1979), and that of Olson (1979), were more in the area of classroom placement and development of an effective assessment of teacher effectiveness; rather than on perceived effectiveness.

Attention on teacher effectiveness and student performance remained the focus of New man (1979), study during the same period. The studies of Coulter (1979), and that of Olson (1979), were more in the area of classroom
placement and development of an effective assessment of teacher effectiveness: rather than on perceived effectiveness. The continuous search for relationship between teacher behaviour and student performance has also been there in the eighties (Colardarci 1980). Kim (1980), changed the concept of teacher variable to teaching climate and aspired to find its influence on student performance at different grade levels. Kim’s study indicated the need for a multi-faceted teacher variable and instructional strategy to be investigated in answer to student performance than teacher efficiency alone.

Some of the researchers were very much concerned with the evaluation of effective teaching skills measurement than on perceived teacher effectiveness. Wessels (1981), concentrated his work towards perceived effectiveness of teaching learning process. His conclusions were with reference to college teaching, indicated significant relationship between perception of teaching and performance among college students. Deenthy (1981), investigated on the impact of teacher effectiveness on enhancement of teacher student inter-personal relation and student performance. His data has suggested a linear influence of teacher effectiveness on dependent variables. Corroborative studies have been reported (Elkhanjari 1981 and Arndt 1981), thus the correlates of teacher effectiveness have been the focus of many studies in education and psychology (Lasetter 1981, Chermak 1981).
The investigation of Smith (1981) studied the influence of teacher characteristics of student performance with an intervening variable of socio-economic status. It was concluded that socio-economic status has a specific bearing on the nature of relation between teacher variable and student performance.

In a different context Blank (1981), studied the perceptions of teacher efficiency by principals, teachers and parents with an objective measure of teacher efficiency and student performance. His findings has indicated a low independent correlation between teacher efficiency and student performance.

The researches in educational psychology has reported many studies on teacher variables and conditions in relation to student performance in the year 1982 (Fan 1982, Fry 1982, Isaken 1982). McGowan (1982) attempted to correlate perceptions of faculty with perceptions of students on teaching effectiveness. It was concluded that faculty opinion did not correlate significantly with students' opinion on majority of the dimensions. The emphasis on teacher student relationship also continued to evoke the interest of researchers like Benetic (1982).

Multifarious aspects of teacher efficiency and teacher potential became the focus of interest in this area. Researchers like Borak (1983), Brown (1983) and Cwick (1983) concentrated their work in service training, teaching values, and teacher characteristics. The output yielded valuable information in building up theories of teacher effectiveness. The interest in teacher student interaction and its impact on student performance had been continuous and
would be seen in the studies of Hsu (1983) of China and Buriel (1983). During this period researcher, Johnson (1983) was attempting to consolidate on the criteria of effective teaching and in understanding of teacher and principal perceptions of teacher effectiveness. Mehdikhani's (1983) study requires mention as a unique one during this period; to have investigated on teaching styles, learning styles of both teacher and student and student academic performance. The results showed that while student learning style had a significant bearing on student performance neither the teaching style nor learning style nor the teacher style had any significant relation to teacher effectiveness.

The study of the Chinese researcher is significant as knowledge from the east. Hsu (1983), found that only the variable of teacher's authoritarian personality and direct language could bring a strong influence on student performance more than anything else. The continuous research in the area of teacher effectiveness have gone into many details to relative efficacy and its influence during the middle 80s in the West as could be observed from reported literature. For example, the work of Poppe (1984), has analysed the factors which constrain the teacher from manifesting his/her efficiency to the fullest extent, from the perceptions of teachers themselves. This study seems to be looking at teacher efficiency from a totally new angle, with an objective of preventing and controlling the constraints. Interestingly, such as preparation, administration, working conditions and even parents. Vida (1984), also attempted to list the major characteristics which go along with effective teaching.
In another research work of Selover (1981) the investigator has correlated the variable of effective teaching with the extent of time taken by students to complete tasks and the extent of performance in subjects. The elaborate investigation has yielded useful information regarding the influence of effective teacher and ineffective teacher on student performance suggesting training for improving effectiveness of teachers on specific criteria.

Al-Hadded (1984) in his study compared teachers evaluation grade and students final performance and results indicated no meaningful relation between teacher evaluation and student performance.

The factor of teacher motivation to enhance the student performance was also the focus of study by Richardson (1984), in addition to the focus of study on the elements of effective teaching and teacher training in relation to student performance (Thieme, 1984; Dikum, 1984 and Hjerried, 1984). These studies by and large have aimed on the whole to identify the criteria of effective teaching and foster them with appropriate training or atleast provide facilitative conditions (Bently, 1984).

Beaumont (1984), Wertz (1984), Devlin (1984) all fall in line with the study of teacher effectiveness and its relation to student performance. Wertz's study has suggested further research to draw meaningful inferences. Mc Garity (1984) in his exploration of teacher behaviour and student academic performance has shown significant correlation between the two along with Green (1984) who has also reported similar results.
Few studies have also focused on the effective techniques of enhancing teacher effectiveness like that of Magnello (1984).

The variables of creativity, motivation, teaching styles, leadership, subject clarity, have been the focus of research in the following years of 1985 (Furmman 1985, Vertiz, Fortune and Hutson 1955, Hines, Gruickshank Kennedy 1985, Contil 1985). Some of the researchers continued to focus on student perception of teaching effectiveness and its relation to student performance. For example, Smith (1985) studied 126 high school students to establish the contribution of teacher effectiveness on students performance. The results however, have been inconclusive. In a similar study Mitman (1985), he selected the two criterion groups of high and low achieving students and attempted to correlate it with corresponding teacher behaviour. The index thus developed from a teacher behaviour questionnaire had not been showing significant correlation with student performance. However, the external evaluation of teachers correlated high with student performance.

Pettigrew, Bayless Zakajsek and Goc-Carp (1985), compared the teaching styles and learning styles of college students. They found no significant correlation between teaching styles and learning styles. But significant differences were found in learning style groups alone. A few developmental studies were also initiated during the same time. For example Abraham (1985) wanted to study the relative effectiveness of teachers who will be more suited to a preschool child especially in relation to parent variables. In a corroborative study, Hashisako (1985) analysed, in-depth the teaching processes that would enhance the development of student learning ability.
Results were discussed in terms of the developmental aspects in relation to the teaching processes. DeRee (1985) and Famojuro (1985) investigated, on the other hand, the nature of relationship, that existed between teacher competency and perceptions of parents, other teacher colleagues, students and administrators. The author has suggested that though the perceptions of teacher competency is not significantly related to others perception, it was significantly correlating to students performance. Esandmany (1985) and Lambertson's (1985) study also attempted to analyse effective teaching behaviours through Q-analysis.

A different line of research was started with the work of Brown (1985) in his study, he examined the teacher selection processes utilised for identifying the effective teachers. The factors were identified from the teachers rating of good job performance. Hayman (1985) in his study on secondary school teachers, established the influence of teacher motivation to be more relevant as teacher effectiveness in improving the performance of teachers. Avery (1985), Blalock (1985) and Adamany (1985) have been interested in assessment of relation between teaching styles and learning styles in addition to student performance. The study of Taylor (1985), investigated effective teaching of study skills through performance. The teacher competency variable was assessed through teacher performance evaluation. (Lawrence, 1986). However, the studies of Mauser (1986) and Barr (1986) concerned their focus on teacher supervisor's perception and predictive teaching aids for effective teaching.
Perception of teacher effectiveness among the high achieving students and the objective measure of teacher effectiveness was examined by Collier (1986). The high correlation among these variables has made the investigator to suggest significant relationships. White (1986), was one of the researchers who examined the characteristics of effective teacher through teacher perceptions. Results indicated that the characteristics thus identified were not significantly different for effective and ineffective techniques.

Purser's (1986) study had two purposes. One to establish a relationship between teacher effectiveness and two to correlate teacher effectiveness with the demographic variables of age, sex, race, years of experience and an objective evaluation of teacher effectiveness and demographic variables of teachers. Subsequently Barighn (1987), investigated the use of the research findings on teacher effectiveness over time and attempted to organize standards of teacher evaluation. He found a discrepancy between individual standards of teacher evaluation and the findings of research studies. Hison (1987), Lt.Ching Wen (1987) and Duschnet (1987) worked on similar lines in the establishment of teacher effectiveness.

Primm (1987) focussed his investigation on the socio-economic status of schools and its manifestation on effective teaching. The study suggested that effective teaching efforts have to be more complex in the case of lower socio-economic status school compared to schools belonging to higher social strata. Researches during this period concentrated more on developing measures of teacher's competencies as could be observed from the study of Madu. (1987), Lee (1987), McMillan and Moseman (1987). Some of the researchers compared the

Noerrlinger (1987), used student feedback of teacher effectiveness in an attempt to improve teaching behaviour. He found significant correlation between student feedback perception and teacher effectiveness with a significant demographic influence. The teacher morale variable was also considered as teacher effectiveness and correlated with students performance score in the study of Stevens and White (1987). Schwarts (1987) also correlated teaching styles with performance values of students and yielded corroborative inferences. Some of the studies focussed on teacher effectiveness, from the perceptions of teachers and others (Taylor 1988). Similarly, Oyler (1988) investigated the extent of effectiveness in schools of different socio-economic status. The study indicated the significant role of socio economic status in determining the efficiency required for teaching. On a different line the study of Shaw (1988) correlated teacher effectiveness with teacher career satisfaction and student learning and found significant inter correlation. Similarly Frankin (1988), attributed effectiveness with school climate. It could also be observed that some of the researchers continued to focus on effective training for better teaching Foster (1988) and Lofgrun (1988), for example made a qualitative
study of teacher effectiveness. The data were derived from interviews and conversations, work site observations with a single qualititative measure of teacher efficacy scale. The inferences were indicative of the significant influence of school programs on teacher efficacy. Marcum's (1988) study concentrated on student perception of teacher effectiveness as a best measure of teacher efficacy. The efficiency variables had been student motivation, control, communication and positive interpersonal relations. Interestingly the study brought forth the information that the perception of teacher efficacy by students belonging to larger size classes were more positive than the perception of students in regular size classes. The attributes have been extra preparation and the more time allotment for large size classes during the contact hours. Some of the studies which continued to concentrate only on teacher effectiveness were further analysed by introducing the variables of students positive and negative outcomes.

For example, Tenenbaum (1988), tested the role of instructional strategies in the positive and negative students' outcome of performance. He found that there is a substantial and positive relationship between the two variables tested. Hickey (1988), in his research correlated the study strategies of students with teacher efficiency. He found that the studies strategy very much depended on teacher effectiveness. Mincucli (1988), attempted to relate teacher biographic characteristics for teacher effectiveness and implied few background characteristics were essential for teacher effectiveness. Some studies continued to find the directional relationship
between teacher effectiveness and pupil performance like that of Nelson (1988). He found that the pupils of outstanding teachers were highly achieving whereas the pupils of poor teachers were low in their performance. Hall (1989) examined the teacher attributions for students' success and found that students' success and failures were attributable to teaching levels. Langer (1989) assessed the teaching strategies related to learning styles. Interest in children with problems and the teaching efforts also was initiated during this time. McIntyre and Brulle (1989), for example studied the types of teacher effectiveness required for children with problem behaviours. He inferred from his study that an autocratic, commanding type of teaching alone will be most effective on children with behaviour problem.

Similarly Parker, Gottlieb and Davis et al., (1989) found that teacher behaviour had significant influence on high, average and low achievers of learning disabled. Dor-Shav and Peleg (1989), studied the field dependent and independent perceptions of teachers in relation to teacher effectiveness. Anderson (1989) studied teacher practices and student performance. The inferences suggested that student performance is more relative, of attitude, knowledge and skills rather than on teacher practices and student performance. Jacobson (1989) studied the impact of incentive grant on teacher effectiveness found a significant contribution of incentives on enhancing the teacher effectiveness efforts. Pratts (1989), found over a three year study, that the status improvement on teacher had a positive influence on enhancing teacher effectiveness. Research study of Tomic (1989) supported earlier findings of teacher effectiveness and student knowledge and student attitudes being linearly related.
The line of research emphasizing teacher-student inferences in learning and performance were made specific to particular subjects during the late 80s and early 90s as would be observed from the reports of researches in the Western literature. Miller (1989) for example, tested the influence of classroom teacher behaviour on students reading and mathematics performance. The teacher behaviour in the class included, organising instruction, clarifying goals of their instruction, teaching a new content, reviewing with feedback evaluation, monitoring student progress, control of appropriate behaviour, sustaining student involvement in the class. The conclusions indicated that student performance was significantly influenced by teacher behaviour, efficient teaching in terms of good clarity performance than, in classes where such efficient teaching behaviour was not demonstrated. The study of Massie (1989), analysed effectiveness of teacher through perception of peer group and principals.

The research focus later, especially in recent times has been to the extent of optimizing the effective teacher behaviour (Kotter Andfenfeld, Junget and Struch Holtz, 1990). Smith and Glym (1990) examined teacher interaction behaviour with students and its influence on student behaviour, especially in each gender. The findings indicated that though boys and girls improved on general performance level on the basis of teacher effectiveness, the girls manifested more enhancement than boys on certain academic variables like task resolution and non-verbal responsiveness. Bowell & Harvelle (1990), investigated the aspects of clarity and responsiveness in effective teaching, especially in relation to the student performance outcome and found significant
correlation with regard to White, Negro and Asian Americans. A sample of over achieving and under achieving children were tested for the effectiveness strategies of their teacher by Toth and Baker (1990).

Student improvement of performance was studied by finding the quality correlates of teachers instructional practices in Manahan's (1990) study. Steffens (1990), examined the specific conditions of the characteristics of effective teaching and learning. The participants were seventy teachers involved in teaching for over a period of two years. The research findings of the opinions of the best teachers. The variables of effective teaching identified to be most prior are knowledge, delivery, facilitation and discipline. Under each of these variables several subvariables have been clustered. Some of the studies such as that of Fuller (1990), concerned with development of appraisal of teacher performance.

The study of West (1990) however, has been on investigating the student perception of teacher effectiveness. An inventory was developed by West consisting of instructional strategies, presentation of subject matter, learning facilitation and classroom management.

Zhai (1990), made an evaluation of the student evaluation of teacher effectiveness. For the purpose Zhai made use of student characteristics and faculty self-evaluation. The interesting finding was that two correlated significantly. That is the self-evaluation of the faculty member correlated positively with student evaluation of teacher effectiveness.
The recent interest in teacher effectiveness has been in exploring the effectiveness of the faculty in creating a classroom learning environment. The study gained insight as how teacher can provide a facilitative classroom environment for effective learning (Sutherland 1991). This and the study of Agna (1991) indicate the change in the perception of teacher effectiveness from the evaluation of teacher performance to evaluation of classroom facilitation. Tuntivityavanich (1991), for example, conducted an elaborate research on the learning styles of students, their performance in academics in relation to teacher styles. The learning styles assessment was done using Cold’s inventory and the achievement scores were obtained from the examination marks and the teacher styles were assessed by the student perception of the teacher’s teaching styles, along with the teachers self-reported perception of teaching styles. Significant correlation have been reported between and student performance. Similarly, learning styles have also shown influence over student performance. However, a significant difference has been reported between student’s perception of teacher’s teaching styles and teacher’s self-reports. Another study of McMillin (1991), it was reported that the elements of effective teaching has been perceived significantly different by teachers and principals. However, the focus on the relation between teacher practices and student performance has been continuous. Research carried out by Henderson (1991) has focussed on the at-risk juveniles, their academic performance and their relation to teacher fecundation. It has been inferred that the teacher effectiveness in combination with student expectation has a significant impact on student performance rather than teacher effectiveness along. The studies of Hudspeth (1991), Baird (1991), and others during the period also focussed
also focussed on learning styles and teaching styles, teaching perception. The work of Earnest needs to be mentioned in the present context for the simple reason that it is directly related to the present study. The variables of teacher behaviour and its relation to student performance and student attitude has been the nucleus of the research. The findings have not been conclusive since the investigator himself has reported that the direction of results have been inconsistent.

The study of Rowley (1992), investigated the teacher practices and their effects on student performance in Pakistan. The results suggested that the significant correlation between the two variables that is the teacher practices and student performance emphasises the importance of appropriate and facilitative teacher training. On similar lines, Owens (1992) study contributed to the idea of effective teaching by investigating the methodology used by the school in selection variable that is the teacher practices and student performance emphasises the importance of appropriate and facilitative teacher training. On similar lines, the study further has suggested the need for training and experience for those who select teachers for their schools. Grissom (1992) found a very low relation between student performance and teacher effectiveness in his study. As one of the recent studies, the investigation of Peterkutnick and Venajulas (1993) could be quoted in the present review since the study focused on pupils' perception of teachers.

The educational researchers in India have been studying the variables of teacher effectiveness from the fifties (Adavnal 1952; Ganesh 1952; Vaishnavi 1958). Gangappa's (1969) study located two factors related to teaching
effectiveness, namely, internal and external factors include complexes, selfishness of over ambitiousness. Many educators in India have focused on developing scales of assessing teacher effectiveness as it became relevant for teacher educators. The study of Venkataramani Reddy (1994), requires to be mentioned in the present context as one of the teacher studies relating the variable to climate and satisfaction.

During the 1980s and 1990s rapid changes have occurred in most aspects of nearly every society. In such a changing environment schools and teachers must face different types of problems, uncertainty and challenges. The educational goals seem to be more uncertain and complex; education tasks are more demanding; expectations from the public are more diverse; and public accountability is sought more than ever before. It is generally believed that in the upcoming century, the education environment will be even more challenging and demanding because of current, rapid and drastic developments in technology, economy and the political environment. Schools in the 21st century will be expected to perform a wide range of functions to support the new, rapidly occurring developments in technology and international relations (Cheng, 1996A, 1996B). In that connection, teachers in the era of change are curricula developers, new teacher mentors, staff development, facilitators, action researchers, pre-service teacher educators and team leaders. The new responsibilities involves, teachers, parents and public boards. (Boles and Troven 1966; Fessler and Ungareti, 1994; Murlhi, 1995; Walling 1994).
An urgent need exists to understand the complex nature of teacher effectiveness and to develop new management strategies. If educators are to maximize teacher effectiveness and achieve multiple school functions for the 21st century. Unfortunately, traditional studies on teacher effectiveness focused largely on the teaching performance of conditional teachers in the classroom, that narrow conception of teacher effectiveness has its limitations and can no longer meet the needs of the changing school environment, particularly when parents and public are demanding high quality in education (Cheng and Tsui, 1996).

Teachers must perform a wide range of roles and responsibilities that involve teaching, school management curriculum changes, educational innovations, teacher education, working with parents and community services. All those roles suggest that the conception of teacher effectiveness should be multifaceted but not confined only to classroom teaching, even though it remains important. The traditional approach focuses only on the evaluation of classroom teaching which is not appropriate to the assessment of teacher effectiveness in the current and the future changing education environment.

There are several strong arguments for using student ratings to evaluate teachers. Students are in a unique position to rate their own increased knowledge and comprehension as well as changed motivation toward the subject taught. As students, they are also in a good position to judge such matters as whether tests covered all the material of the course.
In addition, students can observe and rate facts (i.e. an instructor’s punctuality, the legibility of writing on the board) that are relevant to competent teaching. They can also identify and rate whether the teacher is enthusiastic. Does he or she ask many questions? Encourage questions from students, etc.?

However, the possible lines of argument for the validity of student ratings become invalid if the rating form used is not appropriate for the specific data collection required. Since rating forms vary widely, generalizations about student ratings as a good indicator of learning gains or teacher merit are misleading since they assume, there is a common property to all such ratings. Most forms, when used in the most common ways, are invalid as a basis for personnel action. For example, many forms used to make personnel decisions ask questions that may influence the respondent by mentioning extraneous and potentially prejudicial material (i.e., questions about the teacher’s personality or the appeal of the subject matter).

Another problem with the use of rating forms for summative evaluation is that many of them ask the wrong global or overall questions. This is important since it is typically these questions on which most personnel decisions are based. Common examples of this kind of mistake include forms that ask for

- Comparisons with other teachers.
- Whether "it’s one of the best courses" one has had.
Several pragmatic considerations (logistical, political, economic, psychological), which impact form design, are "required" for validity. These include:

- Form length-if forms are too long students may not fill them in or may skip responses.

- Type of question - forms should include the questions students want about the courses they are considering taking, thus avoiding resentment and a lack of willingness to complete the forms, "forms should not include" questions that students suspect will be used to discriminate against them or that are biased towards favourable (or unfavorable) comments.

The validity of student rating forms is also dependent on the context of how and when they are administered. For student rating results to be valid, they must be obtained from properly administered tests, stringently controlled data collection, and thorough analysis of test results. Frequent errors include:

- The use of instructors to collect forms rating their own instructional merit.

- Lack of controls over pleas for sympathy or indulgence by the teacher before forms are distributed.

- Inadequate time to complete forms.
To ensure the validity of results, error in data processing, report design, and interpretation must also be avoided. Common errors include:

- The use of averages alone, without regard to the distribution.
- Failure to set up appropriate comparison groups so that the usual tendency for ratings to be higher in graduate professional schools can be taken into account.
- Treating small differences as significant, just because they are statistically significant.
- Using factor analysis without logical/theoretical validation.
- Ignoring ceiling/floor effects.
- Using the ratings as the sole basis for either formative or summative evaluation.

Although student ratings are an important source of data for the evaluation of teaching merit, they should not be the only source. Similarly, student ratings form an essential part of the data for the evaluation of courses, workshops, degree programs, etc., but they cannot carry the entire burden. It is essential to look at the data relating to other dimensions of merit such as needs, demand, opportunities for symbiosis, content and costs, and estimate their relative importance.
Student ratings must be considered very carefully in the context in which they are given. The educational administrator interested in the improvement of instruction - whether by improving courses themselves, or the performance or the composition of the faculty - and instructors and students with the same interest will benefit from the use of a sound system of student ratings.

RATINGS OF INSTRUCTION

1. The positive and statistically significant correlation of student ratings with learning gains.

2. The unique position and qualifications of the students in rating their own increased knowledge and comprehension.

3. The unique position of the students in rating changed motivation (a) toward the subject taught; perhaps also (b) toward a career associated with that subject; and perhaps also (c) with respect to a changed general attitude toward further learning in the subject, area, or more generally.

4. The unique position of the students in rating observable matters of fact relevant to competent teaching, such as the punctuality of the instructor and the legibility of writing on the board.
5. The unique position of the students in identifying the regular presence of teaching style indicators. Is the teacher enthusiastic; does he or she ask many questions, encourage questions from students, etc.?

6. Relatedly, students are in a good position to judge - although it is quite a matter of simple observation - such matters as whether tests covered all the material of the course.

7. Students as consumers are likely to be able to report quite reliable to their peers on such matters of interests to them as the cost of the texts, the extent to which attendance is taken and weighed, and whether a great deal of homework is required - considerations that have little or no known bearing on the quality of instruction.

8. Student ratings represent participation in a process often represented as "democratic decision making".

9. The "best available alternative" line of argument.

NEW TEACHING STRATEGIES

Teachers must be alert to the need for continual updating of their teaching skills and practices. Wagschal (1997) reports: "I'm not sure when it happened. I was no longer a contemporary of my students. The adults kept coming. Their ages stayed about the same, but I kept getting older... Who
would have dreamed that it was no longer appropriate to ask a 30 year-old adult learner what they were doing when John F. Kennedy was assassinated?" (P.21).

Effective instruction requires the teacher to step outside the realm of personal experiences into the world of the learner. It is the learner who must be engaged for learning to occur, the learner who must make the commitment to learn. Newmann et al (1995) point out that for learning to be meaningful (authentic), it must be individually constructed. "Learning takes place as students process, interpret, and negotiate the meaning of new information. This is heavily influenced by the student's prior knowledge, and by the values expectations, rewards and sanctions that shape the learning environment" (P.2). Authentic learning requires the learner to communicate an in-depth understanding of a problem or issue rather than memorize sets of isolated facts, and it must result in achievements that have relevance beyond school. Caudron (1997) offers the following suggestions for targeting instruction to individuals with learning characteristics such as those identified with Generation X:

**FOCUS ON OUTCOMES RATHER THAN TECHNIQUES**

Help students put information to work—do something, not only know something. The training director of the Olive Garden restaurants placed the restaurants' server trainees in the role of tour guides for the menu. Rather
than memorizing the ingredients of the dishes of the menu, the trainees had to practice telling customers about each dish in appealing terms. In that way, the trainees "not only know why they are learning the ingredients, but they also know how to put the information to work" (ibid., p.22).

**MAKE LEARNING EXPERIMENTAL**

Engage students in role playing and cooperative learning experiences. Knowing how to work cooperatively with others, to build on the knowledge and experiences of diverse people who bring different perspective to the thinking and reasoning process, can help students to expand their thinking and explore new approaches to learning.

**GIVE STUDENTS CONTROL OVER THEIR OWN LEARNING**

Provide students a range of options, not only in terms of learning content and process, but also in terms of class/training times and locations. The new learners do not want to be pigeonholed. They require autonomy and flexibility for their own learning. They demand a variety of instructional methods from which they can choose to learn, e.g., videotapes, self-paced modules, interactive CDs.

**RESPECT LEARNERS' ABILITY TO ENGAGE IN PARALLEL THINKING**

Motivate learning

Engage students in creating their own learning environments. Give them a role in establishing learning goals, high intellectual standards, and
evaluation criteria. By transferring classroom rules and management to students for their direction, teachers become facilitators of learning, enabling students to determine the strategies that will motivate them to learn.

Provide challenges

Engage learners in projects that demand new skills and the application of existing skills to new situations. Challenge them to construct knowledge from their experiences by connecting school learning to worksite applications.

Overview

The scenario of research findings of the effectiveness of school teachers had been very active for the past three decades evincing the pivotal role of teachers in educating the children. It has also shown how the performance of the student is dependent on the conducive environment created by every teacher. The studies also reveal the problems and set backs the pupil faces where teachers are inefficient and inadequate. The variable, thus has established its significance in education including learning and performing. The present study focussing on an explanation of performance in English, thought it pertinent to include the influencing factor, namely, the variable of teacher effectiveness.

PERFORMANCE IN ENGLISH

Performance and achievement seem to be synonymous. The present study aims to find out how L2 is learnt to fulfil the goals chalked out in the English syllabus of the high school students. As English is learnt as second
language in most of the schools and there is only one period in the time table slot and 75% of the Indian students come from lower economic strata, exposure to foreign language in limited and even in the limited exposure regional language predominates. But on the contrary children studying English as the medium of instruction for all the subjects perform better in all the tasks assigned in the class, be it oral, reading or written assignments.

Buch, Patel, Kotwal (1960) standardized achievement tests in English for classes VIII and IX and X. The test-retest reliability coefficients ranged between 0.88 and 0.96. Misra (1970) and Deshpande (1972) made similar effects for students in Assam and Maharastra respectively.

In the case of achievement tests for English there are only eleven tests for grades VI to XI. Aram, Rangaswamy and Feroze (1967) standardized achievement tests in English for the middle stage students of Coimbatore district of Tamil Nadu. The test included sub tests related to language usage, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, reading, comprehension and vocabulary.

Sinha (1967) attempted to explain the factorial structures of different aspects of attainment in English by constructing sub-tests related to formal grammar, punctuation, spelling, translation, syntax, expression, legibility, pronunciation, vocabulary, comprehension and applied grammar. He found a factor "Automization", factor having high loadings on pronunciation, spelling and expression. The second factor had high loading on comprehension, vocabulary and pronunciation. The third factor shared loadings with formal grammar, punctuation, and applied grammar. Chatterji et al (1970) developed
a test of English knowledge and comprehension at the higher secondary level. It covered English usage, word meaning, grammar, spelling and comprehension. The reliability co-efficients estimated for different subtests by using K-R formula 21 ranged between 0.53 and 0.81 Singh (1978) constructed a battery of objective tests for proficiency in writing English composition. The battery consisted of seven tests on spelling, punctuation vocabulary (phrases), vocabulary (words) paragraphs, organisations applied grammar, and handwriting. The handwriting scale was evolved by Thurstone's equal appearing interval method.

Patel (1971) standardized a silent reading comprehension test in English for the SSC pupils of Gujarati. The test contents were related to ability, to note significant details to select appropriate meaning of a word in content, to read maps and tables, to follow the sequences of events, to draw generalization etc. The reliability co-efficient worked out by different methods ranges from 0.91 to 0.96. The concurrent validity of co-efficients against the criterion of teachers' opinion about pupils' comprehension was 0.47. The tests showed loadings with three factors viz. i) ability to grasp ii) word meaning and iii) perceptual speed factor.

In the studies of the acquisition of English grammatical construction such as the negative, auxiliary system, and article by second language learners, Cancino, Roshnky, and Schumann (1974, 1975) as well as Hakuta (1976) found evidence that the developmental sequences obtained by Milon (1974) and Raven (1974) for English negatives and questions are not obtained in all children learning English as a second language. There are several
reasons for these discrepancies Hakuta and Cancino (1977) pointed out that
certain features of English are easier for children whose first language also
possess those features than for children whose first language lacks those
features. For example the English articles ‘a’ and ‘the’ required sophisticated
semantic distinctions for their proper use, as in ‘a dog’ and ‘the dog’.
Consequently, children whose first language makes this contrast - like French
and Spanish will have less difficulty with the distinction between the definite
and indefinite article than will a child whose first language does not make this
distinction - like Japanese and Korean. This is supported by the research of
Hakuta (1976) with a Japanese speaking child, learning English.

Pronunciation is one area where the younger-is-better assumption may
have validity. Research (e.g., Oyama, 1976) has found that the earlier a learner
begins a second language, the more native-like the accent he or she develops.

Language learning strategies are the often-conscious steps or behaviours
used by language learners to enhance the acquisition, storage, retention, and
use of new information (Rigney, 1978; Oxford, 1990). Strategies can be
assessed in a variety of ways, such as diaries, think-aloud procedures,
observations, and surveys. Research both outside the language field (e.g.,
Brown, Bransford, Ferrara & Campione, 1983) and investigations with
language learners (see reviews by Skehan, 1989; Oxford 1989; Oxford &
Crookall, 1989) frequently show that the most successful learners tend to use
learning strategies that are appropriate to the material, to the task, and to
their own goals, needs, and stage of learning. More proficient learners appear
to use a wider range of strategies in a greater number of situations than do
less proficient learners, but the relationship between strategy use and proficiency is complex. Research indicates that language learners at all levels use strategies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989), but that some or most learners are not fully aware of the strategies they use or the strategies that might be most beneficial to employ. Many different strategies can be used by language learners: metacognitive techniques for organizing, focusing, and evaluating one's own learning; affective strategies for handling emotions or attitudes; social strategies for cooperating with others in the learning process; cognitive strategies for linking new information with existing schemata and for analyzing and classifying it; memory strategies for entering new information into memory storage and for retrieving it when needed, and compensation strategies (such as guessing or using gestures) to overcome deficiencies and gaps in one's current language knowledge (see Oxford, 1990).

Language learning strategy research has suffered from an overemphasis on metacognitive and cognitive strategies, which are admittedly very important, at the expense of other strategy types that are also very useful.

Some preliminary research suggests the existence of sex differences in strategy use (see review by Oxford, Nyikos & Ehrman, 1988). Choice of language strategies also relates strongly to ethnicity, language learning purpose, the nature of the task, and other factors (see Politzer, 1983; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Oxford, 1989). As noted earlier, one of these related factors is, no doubt, learning style.
Important effects of training in the use of language learning strategies have been discovered by a number of researchers (see Atkinson, 1985; Bejarano, 1987; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Cohen & Hosenfeld, 1981; Oxford, Crookall, Lavine, Cohen, Nyikos & Sutter, forthcoming). It is clear that students can be taught to use better strategies, and research suggests that better strategies improve language performance. Just how language learning strategies should be taught is open to question, but so far it has been confirmed that strategy training is generally more effective when woven into regular classroom activities than when presented as a separate strategy course. Language learning styles and strategies appear to be among the most important variables influencing performance in a second language. Much more investigation is necessary to determine the precise role of styles and strategies, but even at this stage in our understanding, we can state that teachers need to become more aware of both learning styles and learning strategies through appropriate teacher training. Teachers can help their students by designing instruction that meets the needs of individuals with different stylistic preferences and by teaching students how to improve their learning strategies.

As the school-aged population changes, teachers all over the country are challenged with instructing more children with limited English skills. Thus, all teachers need to know something about how children learn a second language (L2). Intuitive assumptions are often mistaken, and children can be harmed if teachers have unrealistic expectations of the process of L2 learning and its relationship to the acquisition of other academic skills and knowledge.
As any adult who has tried to learn another language can verify, second language learning can be a frustrating experience. This is no less the case for children, although there is a widespread belief that children are facile second language learners. Myths and misconceptions about children and second language learning and the implications for classroom teachers are discussed as follows.

**Myth 1: CHILDREN LEARN SECOND LANGUAGES QUICKLY AND EARLY**

Typically, people who assert the superiority of child learners claim that children’s brains are more flexible (e.g., Lenneberg, 1967). Current research challenges this biological imperative, arguing that different rates of L2 acquisition may reflect psychological and social factors that favour child learners (Newport 1990). Research comparing children to adults has consistently demonstrated that adolescents and adults perform better than young children under controlled conditions (e.g., Snow & Hoefnagel-Hoehle, 1978). One exception is pronunciation, although even here some studies show better results for older learners.

Nonetheless, people continue to believe that children learn languages faster than adults. A child does not have to learn as much as an adult to achieve communicative competence. A child’s constructions are shorter and simpler, and vocabulary is smaller. Hence, although it appears that the child learns more quickly than the adult, research results typically indicate that adult and adolescent learners perform better.
Teachers should not expect miraculous results from children learning English as a second language (ESL) in the classroom. At the very least, they should anticipate that learning a second language is as difficult for a child as it is for an adult. It may be even more difficult, since young children do not have access to the memory techniques and other strategies that more experienced learners use in acquiring vocabulary and in learning grammatical rules.

Nor should it be assumed that children have fewer inhibitions than adults when they make mistakes in L2. Children are more likely to be shy and embarrassed around peers than are adults. Children from some cultural backgrounds are extremely anxious when singled out to perform in a language, they are in the process of learning. Teachers should not assume that, because children supposedly learn second languages quickly, such discomfort will readily pass.

Some researchers argue that the earlier children begin to learn a second language, the better (e.g., Krashen, Long & Scarcella, 1979). However, research does not support this conclusion in school settings. For example, a study of British children learning French in a school context concluded that, after 5 years of exposure, older children were better L2 learners (Stern, Burstall, & Harley, 1975). Similar results have been found in other European studies (e.g., Florander & Jansen, 1968).

These findings may reflect the mode of language instruction used in Europe, where emphasis has traditionally been placed on formal grammatical analysis. Old children are more skilled in dealing with this approach and hence
might do better. However, this argument does not explain findings from studies of French immersion programs in Canada, where little emphasis is placed on the formal aspects of grammar. On tests of French language proficiency, Canadian English-speaking children in late immersion programs (where the L2 is introduced in Grade 7 or 8) have performed as well or better than children who began immersion in kindergarten or Grade 1 (Genesee, 1987).

For learning English at the high school stage the factors playing a vital role, as revealed in a study by Jain (1979), were intelligence, English vocabulary, knowledge of grammar, comprehension, spelling and punctuation speed and legibility of handwriting, the status of English in family, extra-reading in English and the quality of the teacher.

In a study of German 10 year old and 11 year old children learning English in a classroom setting where there was almost no naturalistic exposure, Felix (1980) found considerable evidence for structural parallels between classroom second language learning and those developmental sequences observed in monolingual English speaking children. This was especially true for negative and interrogative structures. Particularly striking was the children’s use of incorrect constructions that they have never heard, but that represented simplification and overgeneralization strategies identical to those used by monolingual first language learners. There were, on the way in which these children learned their second language and naturalistic language acquisition. For one thing, the children had to learn in the first few weeks English syntactic structures that do not emerge until a comparatively late
developmental stage in naturalistic language acquisition. This resulted in errors not typically found in monolingual speakers, especially in the use of personal and possessive pronouns. Felix's work that, in addition to the influence of the first language the teacher's didactic efforts can affect the course of second language learning.

The main objectives of the investigation were:

(i) to find out the extent of effectiveness of classroom behaviour of the teacher and the taught through an observation schedule process in English, Science and Social Studies of Class X in the twin cities of Hyderabad and Secunderabad.

(ii) to know the depth of the aspects of teaching, motivating, problem-solving, classroom organization and classroom management among the teachers who taught English, Science, Social studies to Class X Students.

(iii) to assess the educational achievement of class X students in English, Science and Social Studies, and

(vi) to measure the students assessment of attitude on the classroom behaviour of their teachers.

The sample consisted of thirty-seven schools of three categories (government, and aided schools) from the twin cities of Hyderabad and Secunderabad. For the selection of the sample the stratified random sample
technique was adopted. From these schools, one section from class X in each school was chosen. The concerned subject teachers of these section served as the sample for the teacher population. The tools employed were an observation schedule to observe the teacher-taught situation in the classroom, a rating scale for teachers to find out individual behaviour patterns which they adopt in the classroom while teaching a particular subject, and a rating scale for students to find out the classroom behaviour patterns of their teachers on the specially selected five items like accepting students feelings, asking questions, giving directions, etc. The above four research tools were developed by the investigator. Mean, percentage and critical ratio were employed to analyse the data.

The investigation gave the following findings:

(i) In each subject, the verbal classroom behaviour of the teacher occupied the first place, followed by the evaluation of that day's lesson either by orally asking questions or by giving homework to the students. Among the aspects of classroom activities done by the teachers, the blackboard work occupied the third place in all the three subjects. The fourth place was credited to the item on teaching aids used by the teachers in all the three subjects and the last place was given to the item of demonstrating or discussing current events.
(ii) There were no significant differences in the patterns of teaching of different subjects and exhibiting the various behaviouristic modes between the teachers whose age was 40 years and less and those whose age was 41 and above.

(iii) The male and the female teachers had significant differences of opinion on the various patterns of behaviours to be performed in the classroom. The female teachers were more favourable and active in the classroom situation than the male teachers.

(iv) There were no significant differences among, the three subject teachers in the aspects of motivation, classroom, organization and classroom management.

(v) There was significant difference among the three subject teachers in the aspects of teaching and problem-solving in which the English teachers and the social studies teachers surpassed, respectively, the science teachers.

(vi) There were significant differences between boys and girls of class X in the educational achievement in English, Science and Social Studies in the pre-teaching and the post-teaching situations.

(vii) There were no significant differences in the age variables except in Social Studies.
(viii) There were significant differences in the educational achievement in English, Science and Social Studies between those aged 14 years and under and those aged 15 years and above, in the post-reaching situation.

(ix) The students in English-medium schools had better achievement than the Telugu-medium students in a majority of the situations in all the three subjects, both in the pre-teaching and the post-teaching situations.

(x) The performance of the students in physical science was better than in biological science both in the pre-teaching and the post-teaching situation.

Sarah (1981) standardized an oral Reading Comprehension Test in English for the pupils of class VIII of Gujarat. Keeping in view the readability of passages and discriminative value and difficulty value of test items, eight passages were in the final form of the test. The final form consisted of nine subtests including one for practice. The reliability co-efficients of the test were worked out by employing the method of test - retest, split, half and K.R. formula. Those co-efficients ranged between 0.82 and 0.97. The concurrent and predictive validity co-efficients were established by correlating its scores on the oral reading comprehension test with the teachers opinions and the marks obtained in the examination.

Language skills tested through objective type questions like 'insert the preposition' again fail to test the proficiency of the learners in English. Firstly, it is impossible to construct a test covering all the areas of language use and most language areas tested are those which have limited communicative value.
For example, changing voice or narration - a very typical language activity used in many teaching-testing situations is something which has limited use in real life situations. Moreover, the ability to perform some activities in relation to some isolated sentences does not necessarily mean that the learners have the ability to use those skills in a communicative situation (Alam, 1983). In fact, it has been seen in the experiments conducted by Alam in the Chotanagpur region that this often does not happen (1983). For example, insertion of articles and prepositions, is a very common exercise in tests. In many cases it has been observed that the learners do them correctly. However, they commit errors in these very areas when they write an essay or a letter. It is, therefore, not very surprising to see that students coming out of our schools and colleges, are unable to use English, in spite of four to seven years of teaching learning, for elementary communication purposes like writing an application for leave or describing a route to be taken for reaching a destination.

The problem seems to be that the findings of the study in error patterns of students in various parts of omdoa at different levels have not been adequately looked into. Though many studies like those of Jain (1974), Ganguly (1986), Patnak (1988), and Ganguly (1995) show similarity in error patterns and the problem areas for learners, the teaching techniques and testing approach as have remained unchanged. For example, most of the studies quoted above show that at the level of sentence construction, use of the verb phrase is a major problem besides problems in trying to connect sentences to make a discourse. However, our testing and teaching techniques seem to
ignore the tenets of transformational - generative grammar, that the grammar operating in the mind of a fluent speaker of the language is far more complex than grammar at the surface level (Chomsky, 1976, p.4 and 1980 p.133) and no grammar syllabus can hope to imitate that emphasis on teaching structures and therefore, lend to problems of deployability of that knowledge in situations outside the classroom as Prabhu (1987, p.16) found out while conducting the famous Bangalore Project.

The increasing attention to the role of first language in second language acquisition in recent years, as well as the opinion that Vietnamese learner's lack of competence in oral communication is partly due to first language interference, have given the impetus for this study which focuses on first language interference in the past tense marking of the English verb in interaction.

Analysing the past tense marking in speech of twelve Vietnamese speakers learning English as Second Language, the study focuses on the relationship between first language interference and some aspects of second language learning, namely place and purpose of learning English, age and time of exposure to English, and length of residence in an English speaking environment such as Australia. Among these factors the purpose of learning greatly influences the amount of first languages interference in past tense marking. The findings of the study suggest that focus on form is an important factor in improving the grammaticality of Vietnamese learner's spoken English. Thus, it is recommended that English spoken especially its tense-marker system should be taught and learnt systematically, continuously, intensively
and communicatively, if it is hoped to initially minimise and eventually get rid of native language interference and to achieve desirable communicative competence in English, in general and in English past tense marking, in particular (NGUYEN, Thanh Ha, 1995).

The study tries to investigate with which English articles Indonesian learners have the most problems and also to find out the learners' improvement on the article usage over time. The data of the study was taken from the learners' writing tasks only during the period of February 1996 to November 1996. Since the emphasis of the study was on the English Article usage in written papers, no account was taken of other errors in grammar and lexis.

The result of the study show a highly variable performance in article usage by the subjects and it is possible that the collection of data from task assigned to the subjects in their language programme was responsible in this overall fluctuation in performance. Nevertheless, eventhough it is disappointing that nothing conclusive can be said about the differences in the learners' performance on 'the', 'a' 'an' and their language development over time, many of the instances of errors can be shown to be attributable to transfer from the L1.

The results indicate the necessity of careful thinking of English articles to speakers of Indonesian learning ESL Particularly it seems the indefinite article, although the a/an presented cannot be taken as conclusive on this
Another aspect that is also responsible to the learners' acquisition of the English article usage is the importance of teaching of English article system in formal setting (Andayani, T Made Adi, 1996).

The study examined the learners' placement of negatives and adverbials in Chinese sentence strings and the learner's interactive behaviours. It provides evidence that consistent with both previous studies and Chinese grammar the negative was placed prior to the element which was to be negated. However, the findings from the examination of the placement of adverbials contrast the claim that adverbials move from the external to the internal position in sentence strings. Findings from this study suggest that the adverbials may be governed by the same rule as negatives, that is, adverbials are placed close to the element to be modified. This may be because Chinese is a Topic Comment language and in Chinese the relation between the subject and the verb is very loose. This study also explored the differences in the preferences regarding interactive behaviours between one student and another, and showed a relationship between the learners' grammatical elaborations and the learner's interactive behaviours.

Findings suggest that it may be possible to indentify the qualities of interaction which accompany grammatical elaboration. This may enable us to move beyond simple measures of quantity of interaction in seeking explanations for the relationship between grammatical elaboration and interaction (XU, Yu-Zheng, 1997).

This is concerned with the Vietnamese learners' use of the four functions of the English Present Perfect Tense and has been designed the role of the native language influence in it. The study commences with a review of the theories of language transfer, and of empirical research which has focused on L1 transfer in the acquisition of L2 syntax and provided evidence of the important role of L1 transfer as a factor influencing the process of L2 acquisition. A review of previous studies on L2 learners' acquisition and use of the English Present Perfect Tense was also provided. In this study three different languages tasks (a Grammar Test, a Syntax Completion task and a Translation Exercise) were done by 46 Vietnamese ESL learners at a language centre in Hanoi. The analyses of the data revealed that out of the four functions of the Present Perfect Function 4 (Resultative Past) was the most difficult for Vietnamese learners to use. The second most difficult was Function 3 (Indefinite past), third was Function 2 (experiential Perfect), and Function 1 (State of event/habit up to the present time) was the least difficult. The comparison between the results of the three language tasks indicated that except for Function 1, the types of language elicitation tasks influenced the learners' performance in using the functions of the present perfect tense. A detailed analysis of the learners' errors also yielded evidence of traces of the influence of native language and culture in Vietnamese learners' use of the present perfect tense, the findings and discussion led to some suggestions
concerning the teaching of four functions of the Present Perfect Tense to Vietnamese speakers, as well as suggestions for the design and methodology of future research in the field (NGUYEN, Thuy Huong, 1998).

The basic emphasis on teaching and testing grammatical items as a substitute for trying to develop skills of authentic discourse, is perhaps the problem with English in India today. This leaves a gap between the ability of the students as evaluated through the administration of traditional tests and their actual proficiency as observed in a real-life situation where they have to transfer competence into performance. The necessity, therefore is to analyse the problems of the learners at one level and then devise tasks which help them to deploy the skills of using language to create authentic discourse. This has naturally got to do with our perception about the functions and role of language in life and society.

Another reason for not finding the same developmental patterns in second language learners as in monolingual children is that the child learning the second language may have recourse to first language structures when confronted with particularly recalcitrant problems in the second language. There is some evidence for this from Wode’s research (1978) with German-speaking children learning English as a second language. Some constructions in these children’s speech appeared to reflect German word order and were not similar to any found in the speech of English-speaking children. Wode maintained that what superficially looks like a step backwards is actually a strategy of reverting to the first language when trying to solve the riddle of the second.
OVER VIEW

Most of the studies quoted above depict that children who learn English as second language (ESL) have difficulties with the usage of articles, tenses, phrases and sentence construction. Hence this dependent variable namely performance in English was taken up to test the knowledge of some grammatical aspects.

STUDIES RELATING TO SOCIO- ECONOMIC STATUS AND STUDENT PERFORMANCE

The studies on socio-economic status of student and academic achievement have also been many, over the period of two decades. However the finding have shown contradictory results with regard to the relationship between socio-economic status and academic achievement necessitating continuous evaluation, hence the inclusion of socio-economic status in the present investigation.

Roberts (1974) made a comprehensive study of socio-economic status, self concept and academic achievement with a very large sample of 610 students from ninth and tenth grades school factors like attendance and competition were also subjected to investigation. The final result indicate the variable of socio-economic status to be more predictive of academic achievement than others. Such of these studies were conducted by Donich (1975), Posa (1975) and Freda (1975). The variable of socio-economic status occupied the focus in the
studies of Perrin (1976) and White (1976). These studies brought forth the information that extremes of socio economic conditions like poverty brought differences in academic achievement. It is significant to the student performance.

Wagner [1977] studied the influence of socioeconomic status on competence of students. He also considered the variables of social competence, classroom and sex. He found no significant relation between socio-economic status and academic competence. The relationship between socio-economic status and student performance was investigated by Hodges (1977). It was found that socio-economic status plays a vital in discriminating academic performance. A sample of 302 boys and 299 girls were investigated on the correlates of academic performance (Pressman's 1977). His conclusions were that school variables and personality placed a significant role in performance rather than socio-economic status.

Some of the researchers attempted to specifically investigate the academic achievement patterns of students belonging to high socio-economic status, middle and low socio-economic status independently (Gordon 1978). Through the socio-economic status differences correlated with differences in academic performance, the investigator has recommended a larger socio-economic status extent.

Many of the latest studies, especially in 80s diversified the scope of socio-economic status correlates to academic achievement in many ways. For example, the study of Elee (1979) had taken the three types of socio-economic
status among children and correlated specific abilities with associated learning and conceptual learning. Similarly the studies of Johnson (1980), Basrrick (1980) also related to socio-economic status with syntactic mathematics learning and so on. However, the conclusions have not been unidirectional.

Bardoville (1982) compared the influence of socio-economic status on academic performance including the variables of race. King (1983) in his study of socio-economic status on educational attainment included the variables of student and school. His multiple regression analysis revealed that socio-economic status has a very inconsistent relation to scholastic performance compared to the significant relation between the student family and school variables. Corroborative findings were reported in the studies of Bolgiani (1984), Beau Mont (1984) in a unique study of socio-economic status. The investigator Moore (1984) considered the expenditures made for the student in his investigation of the relation between the socio-economic status and academic achievement. He found significant correlation between expenditure and performance rather than socio-economic status and performance.

The status of the school and the status of the teachers in addition to the status of the parents were also considered in academic achievements Fond (1985) and Sampsom (1985) investigated the influence of family culture, racial influence along with socio-economic status in their contribution to academic performances results have indicated that socio-economic status influenced academic performance only in relation to family, culture and race. Smith (1985) in his investigation of the relationship between socio-economic status and scholastic performance included school climate as one of the most important
intervening variable to academic achievement than school climate. Gastineu (1986) studied many school characteristics in addition to socio-economic status and their relation to student achievement. He concluded that student achievement, especially at the lower level, was significantly related to lower socio-economic status. Similar relationship was found among the higher socio-economic group of students.

Some of the studies reported from the East have given a totally different picture with regard to the influence of socio-economic status and students' academic achievement. Razouki (1987) investigated the academic achievement of students in relation to their socio-economic status in Iraq. The results were inconclusive and the attributes offered by the investigator have been (a) the policy of free education in Iraq leading to imperceptible socio difference, (b) the high motivation and competitive attitude of the students.

Million (1987) examined socio-economic status as one of the predictors of academic achievement in addition to stress and adjustment. The multiple regression analysis revealed that the factor of socio-economic status though found to be significantly influencing stress and adjustment, it was not contributing to academic achievement to a significant extent.

The recent studies have concentrated on each of the socio-economic status level in relation to academic achievement (Micks and Vigil 1989).

Student achievement has further been correlated with socio-economic status along with factors such as parental status, learning styles, learning attitude, race, and so on. (Rech 1990, Edson 1991, Lemon 1991 and Devito
These studies have reported supportive evidence to the earlier studies showing positive relations between socio-economic status and academic performance.

Indian education reports (Buch, 1979, 1989) have clearly shown the importance given by the researcher on socio-economic status. In India, it is considered as the most significant factor leading to educational backwardness. Hence the Indian education researchers have emphasized the factor of socio-economic status in studies of performance.

Shukla (1984) has reported from his study of 2000 rural and 500 urban school children, a highly significant relation between socio-economic status of the pupil and academic achievement though as predicted he was unable to find a significant difference between motivation and socio-economic achievement with specific reference to mathematics. He concluded from his study of 435 students of both sexes that socio-economic status affected the performance of students in mathematics. Mathematics was performed well by students of the higher socio-economic group and the middle socio-economic group. Only the students of lower socio-economic strata performed low in mathematics performance. Rajput (1985) varied the independent variable in another study of academic achievement and socio-economic status by introducing personality variables.

Patel (1986) in the study included different economic strata in addition to religious and caste classification as psycho social correlates of academic achievement. His findings were that socio-economic status does not influence
academic achievement. On similar lines, the critical study of Misra (1986) with rural and urban children brought forth a significant influence of socio-economic status on academic achievement. Another influencing intervening variable was the environment level. He found the rural students to be less achieving than the urban students.

Narang (1987) compared the academic achievement of urban and rural school students, both boys and girls were included, socio-economic status was one of the most significant influencing variable on scholastic performance.

Socio economic status and immigration history often related to cultural differences, jointly affect Asians and Pacific Islanders (API) communication and schooling. Moreover, API's socioeconomic background is as complex as their cultural background. Immigrants from Japan, Korea, Taiwan and Hong Kong are more likely to have a middle-class background. Southeast Asian refugees, on the other hand, were mostly rural villagers or the urban poor before they migrated, although APIs from the same region may differ in socioeconomic background. A middle-class family background often fosters intellectual flexibility and self-direction. APIs with such a background have less difficulty interacting with teachers. In contrast, fatalist beliefs and rigidity in thinking are more common among poor APIs and those with rural origins. These APIs face tough problems in communicating with school personnel. The joint effect of cultural differences and social background may polarize API's school performance, with some excelling, others failing (Treuba et al., 1993).
In addition, Asian Americans born in the U.S. differ from Asian immigrants in their communication with mainstream educators (National School Public Relations Association, 1993), with the latter having more problems. Among immigrants, those who had traumatic experiences in war or refugee camps have more difficulties in communication (ima & Rumbaut, 1989). Such life experiences can profoundly influence children's reaction to the new environment.

Years of practice, wisdom, theory, and related areas of research (i.e., the importance of the home literacy environment, parental stimulation of children's language development, security of the parent-child attachment relationship, and parent involvement in preschool and early intervention programs) strongly suggest that parents' involvement in their children's formal schooling is vital for their academic success, even though the research evidence is less than conclusive. While methodological limitations are prevalent in the majority of parent involvement research (described below), the sound studies that do exist have consistently found strong parent involvement effects. Moreover, the cumulative knowledge from existing studies suggests the importance of several other specific types of parent involvement, including the following.

- **Provision** of a stimulating literacy and material environment (Snow et al., 1991).

- **High expectations** and moderate levels of parental support and supervision (Kurdek, Fine, & Sinclair, 1995).
• Appropriate monitoring of television viewing and homework completion (Clark, 1993).

• Participation in joint learning activities at home (Tizard et al., 1982).

• An emphasis on effort over ability (Stevenson, 1983), and

• Autonomy promoting parent practices (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991).

There is mounting evidence that each of these parent involvement variables facilitates children's academic achievement. There are also indications that they do so in relatively complex ways that interact with family background and social context variables such as ethnicity, family structure, maternal employment status, socioeconomic status, and gender (Schiamberg & Chin, 1986; Milne, 1989; Tocci & Englehard, 1991; Zimilies & Lee, 1991; Lee & Croninger, 1994).

OVERVIEW

An exhaustive review of studies with regard to socio-economic status in relation to academic achievement seem to be mostly undirectional. However, some findings have been either inconclusive or contrary. Nevertheless in the Indian context the findings have indicated high correlation between socio-economic status and performance. As a study of scholastic performance the present research has also included this relevant variable in the present study.
GENDER AND PERFORMANCE

The variable of gender has always been the focus of study in many of the educational researches. The reason obviously being the basic psychological gender difference as reported over the centuries in the psychological literature.

The performance in academic, a resultant of interaction of both educational and psychological valuables nevertheless has been time and again tested for gender differences.

It could be observed that the results of the gender difference study in scholastic performance not shown any uni-directional influence on the whole. Another interesting feature of the gender study has been the fact that usually the variable of gender has been taken only as one among many other variables. Hence the information on sex difference has been provided only as supplementary information.

The research studies on gender comparisons on performance has dated back to at least three decades from the 70s. To mention a few of the earlier researches in this area, Batlist and Waters (1973) observed a definite gender difference in scholastic performance. A study of Wonensh and Law (1976) though focussed on gender difference on scholastic performance was unable to draw any direct inference since the results have been contingent to the context. Law extended his study in 1980, comparing male, female performance and reported that gender difference among male and female students were dependent on many relevant extraneous variables such of Marjori Banks (1981). He found no sex difference among boys and girls in academic
performance. Similar studies with similar findings have been reported by Cheng and Page (1985) and Royle (1989). Recently the investigations of Serving (1990), Zelkowits (1990), and Beth Gole (1990). Those studies which reported gender difference in scholastic performance found girls performing better than boys. These studies also pointed out the relevant intervening variables such as socio-economic conditions father’s education, mother’s education to be contributing as relevant intervening variable.

The following chapter presents a detailed description of the research design, hypotheses and tools constructed and adapted to test the hypotheses and the procedure to be followed in the conduct of the research.