CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL UNDERSTANDING OF THE

DIFFERENT VARIABLES

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CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL UNDERSTANDING OF

THE DIFFERENT VARIABLES

2.1 Introduction

The present investigation comprises three independent psychological factors viz., achievement motivation, attitude and adjustment, while the dependent variable is school achievement.

2.2 Achievement Motivation

The concept of achievement motivation or need for achievement has generated a major current or activity in the psychology of motivation. It has been an object of considerable research and discussion in the recent years. It has great significance in understanding human behaviour as well as in changing it. With the application of psychology in the fields of education and industry, it has become evident that motivation is crucial in the field of learning and in fact for any work performed at a high standard of excellence. McClelland and others¹ are of the view that motives are deficit tensional states which energise organisms until relief is obtained or equilibrium restored. In other words
motives are persistent conditions within the organism that dominate and direct the behaviour until he responds in such a way as to remove them.

According to McClelland and his associates, "A motive is the reintegration by a cue of a change in an affective situation" the word reintegration in this definition is meant to imply previous learning. In this system all motives are learned. Again they say "A motive is the learned result of pairing cues with affect or the conditions which produced affect". According to Atkinson, "A motive is conceived as a disposition to strive for a certain kind of satisfaction, as a capacity for satisfaction in the attainment of certain class of incentives". Thus the conditions for affective arousal of the motive involve not action so much as expectations. These expectations are built out of universal experiences with respect to such tasks. Thus achievement motivation is to "perceive performance in terms of standards of excellence".

The concern to achieve has been identified as the motive complete for success against some standard of excellence. Briefly it has been defined as performing in terms of a standard of excellence or simply as a desire to be successful. The achievement motive has been considered by Atkinson as "a disposition to approach success". According
to Heckhausen achievement motivation can be defined as the "striving to increase, or keep as high as possible, one's capability in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail". These standards of excellence according to him, may be task related, self related or other related. The examples of these standards of excellence are degree of perfection as the result of performance, comparison with one's own earlier achievement and comparison with achievement of others as in case of competitions.

The motivation of achievement related behaviour obviously deserves attention. Two pioneers in German psychology, namely Narziss Ach and Kurt Lewin conducted researches in this field. The former attempted to explain the achievement related behaviour subjects in his laboratory utilising the concept of "determining tendency" and the later employed the concept of "quasi-need". Later on Murray referred to achievement motive as "need for achievement" and described it as a desire "to overcome obstacles, to exercise power, to strive to do something difficult as well and as quickly as possibly". According to him the desires and effects of N.Ach. are "to accomplish something difficult." To master, manipulate or organise physical objects, human beings, or ideas. To do this as rapidly, and as independently as
possible. To overcome obstacles and attain a high standard. To excel one's self. To rival and surpass others. To increase self-regard by the successful exercise of talent. He and his collaborators tried with their pioneering book, "Explorations in personality" not only to define achievement but also to measure individual difference in motive strength by means of a questionnaire. According to Heckhausen these questionnaire data show very little correlation with behaviour in which competition with some standard of excellence is expressed. In spite of the popularity of the theories of motivation not much work had been done in this area until the publication of the book "The Achievement Motive" in 1953 by McClelland and others. It is McClelland, who is most noted for the work in achievement motivation. He and his associates regard it as a social motive and equate it to an inner concern with achievement, a disposition to engage in activities in which the important thing was doing well or "competition with a standard of excellence." Vernon is of the opinion that achievement may be associated with a variety of goals, but in general the behaviour adopted will involve "activity which is directed towards the attainment of some standard of excellence." It may include competition with others, in which they are surpassed. But on the other hand, the individual may be chiefly concerned to set himself a high standard of performance.
or level of aspiration and to reach this through his efforts, overcoming the obstacles to his success. When achievement motivation is charged up, people appear to be going about to meet realistic but challenging goals they have set for themselves, says R.S. McMullen. They compete hard against themselves or against some one else and enjoy their pursuits.

Motivation is not to be understood, says Heckhausen as a final casual element as it may be in commonsense psychology; rather the term refers to the interaction dynamics of many factors in a given person. Eysenck et al. define achievement as "A hypothetical construct designed to explain inter and intra individual differences in orientation intensity and consistency of achievement behaviour". Again they have quoted Heckhausen to define achievement motivation as "the tendency to maintain and increase individual proficiency in all area in which a standard to quality is taken as binding.

With regard to the role of achievement motivation in the field of education, a point naturally arises here for consideration. Is it the achievement motivation that influences success in academic affairs or do successful educational experiences increase the probability that the subject will verbalise achievement themes? The problem of causality still remains unsolved. Recent researches indicate that achievement motive is acquired early in life as a result of parental
attitudes. As the early age the parental expectations may interact with embryonic achievement motivation so as to raise it. "It seems plausible at this time to argue that Achievement Motivation may be a prior condition to academic achievement". (Litting and Yeracris)\(^{19}\). By the definition itself the "standard of excellence", in case of achievement motivation must be imposed on the child by the culture or in other words by the parents who represent the particular culture in the family. It is the family that is responsible for the origins of achievement motivation. Various experiments have been performed in this direction by McClelland and his associates, and they suggest further research in this complex and in conclusive field of achievement motivation.

2.3 Attitude

The problem of student unrest and indiscipline is one of the greatest challenges to educationists and parents today. The student unrest is a problem deeply rooted in the social structure of our society. This indicates that its solution will have to be thought keeping in view the pattern of the social set up as a whole. In the process of socialization, the society and the student world interact with each other and it is a two way traffic. Teachers including parents have their own part to play in it. They are entrusted with the responsibility of moulding the personality of children, so that they may become useful and well adjusted members of the society.
Teachers play vital role in the whole system of education. Their influence is direct as well as indirect. Direct in the sense that their style of teaching, method of approach affect the students' attitude directly while their own personality, likes-dislikes and attitudes affect the students' attitude indirectly.

Second to teachers, the parents play very important role. Parents besides providing environmental facilities and other necessities, perform an unique role in the education of their children. Home is also an informal agency of education as the child spends more time at home than he does in the school and a great deal depends on what happens at home.

The question arises, therefore, as to how the parents behave towards their wards' becoming. Parents can observe their children reading at home, can observe their interest, can also give a positive contribution towards cultivating the attitudes of their children towards various subjects and school activities.

Attitudes, the end products of the socialization process, significantly influence man's responses to cultural products to other persons, and to groups of persons. If the attitude of a person towards a given object, or class of objects, is known, it can be used in conjunction with situational and other dispositional variables to predict and explain reactions of the person to that class of objects. To the extent that principles governing the change of attitudes are known, they may be used
to manipulate the individuals' reactions to relevant objects (as is exemplified in psycho-therapy, education, and propaganda). It is not surprising then, that the study of attitudes has occupied a central place in social psychology during the past fifty years. (Shaw and Wright)\textsuperscript{20}

There are a number of traditional definitions of attitude that may be cited as illustrative of common usage of the term: "An enduring learned predisposition to behave in a consistent way toward a given class of objects" (English and English)\textsuperscript{21}. "An enduring system of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action tendencies with respect to a social object". (Krech et al)\textsuperscript{22}

"A mental and neural state of readiness, through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individuals' response to all objects and situations with which it is related". (Allport)\textsuperscript{23}

"An individual's social attitude is a syndrome of response consistency with regard to social objects" (Campbell)\textsuperscript{24}. "Attitudes are literally mental postures, guides for conduct to which each new experience is referred before a response is made. (Morgan)\textsuperscript{25}

"The specific mental disposition toward an incoming (or arising) experience, whereby that experience is modified, or, a condition of readiness for a certain type of activity". (Warren)\textsuperscript{26} defines attitude.
"An attitude is a complex of feelings, desires, fears, convictions, prejudices or other tendencies that have given a set or readiness to act to a person because of varied experience. (Chave)\(^{27}\)

"An attitude is a tendency to act toward or against something in the environment which becomes there by a positive or negative value. (Bogardus)\(^{28}\)

"An attitude is a disposition to act which is built up by the integration of numerous specific responses of a similar type, but which exists as a general neural 'Set' and when activated by a specific stimulus results in behaviours that is more obviously a function of the disposition than of the activating stimulus" (Allport)\(^{29}\).

According to (Shaw and Wright)\(^{30}\) the term attitude is, "A relatively, enduring system of evaluative, affective reactions based upon and reflecting the evaluative concepts or beliefs which have been learned about the characteristics of a social or class of social objects.

In addition to being pre-disposition to respond to social objects, attitudes have been said to possess the following general characteristics.

(a) Attitudes are based upon evaluative concepts regarding characteristics of the reference object and give rise to
motivated behaviour. (Anderson & Fishbein)^31

(b) Attitudes are learned rather than being innate or a result of constitutional development and maturation (Sherif and Sherif)^32. Attitudes are learned through interaction with social objects and in social events or situations. Since they are learned, attitudes demonstrates the same properties as other learned reactions such as latency and threshold, and they are subject to further change through thinking inhibition, extinction, fatigue, etc. (Gallenbech and Smith)^33. These attitudes are subject to alteration manipulation of the same order of variables as those producing their original acquisition. All forms of learning (Classical and instrumental forms of conditioning etc.,) Conceivably provide bases for the acquisition of attitudes.

The structure of attitude according to (Shaw and Wright).^34

"The effective reactions that constitute the attitude toward a given object derive from the underlying cognitive structure relevant to that object. In the course of the individual's experiences with the object, he formulates a set of evaluative concept or beliefs about it. These beliefs may arise from direct experience with the object or through indirect experiences in interaction with other persons. The beliefs thus formed are relevant to the goal striving of the individual and partially determine what further beliefs may be formed"
regarding the object. As the individual encounters the object evaluative concepts regarding the relationship of the object to his goal attainment are formed or elicited. These perceived or anticipated effects upon goal attainment result in such affective reactions as anxiety or frustration, which in turn produce such motives as aggression or affiliation. The ultimate overt behaviour will be contingent upon situational factors such as potential punishment or a closed behaviour field, and upon such other dispositional characteristics as low energy level or restricted intellect. It is to the positive-negative dimension of the motive-producing, affective reaction that the term attitude applies".

2.3.1 Measurement of Attitude

Attitude is such an abstract, complex mental set up that its measurement has remained controversial. Psychologist studied attitudes of individuals but such studies were more of a qualitative nature rather than quantitative ones. The rise of 'psychometrics' provided enough instruments to construct psychological tools. Intelligence, aptitudes, interests, achievements were begun to be measured quantitatively through suitable tests. Psychometricians devised suitable techniques to measure attitude also. Scientific treatment to attitudes requires quantification. Attitude scales began to be devised which could assess attitudes in a quantitative manner. The attitude scales may be classified according to methods of constructing attitude measuring devices.
These devices are -

(a) Priori scales
(b) Psycho-physical scales
(c) Sigma scales
(d) Master scales etc.

The above devices are explained in brief.

(a) Priori Scales

The crudest method of measuring attitudes is that of the case method, closely followed by ballot counting, as exemplified in various public opinion polls.

(b) Psycho-physical Scales

The method of such scales consists of arranging a series of opinions relevant to a given attitude object, ranging all the way from most favourable to most unfavourable, in equally spaced, experimentally determined units along a continuum.

(c) Sigma Scales

These scales are constructed on the assumption that attitudes are distributed normally. The attitudes are measured using standard deviation units.

(d) Master Scales

It is a device in which the statements of the scale do not
refer to a particular attitude object but they are stated in a general form. Such scales are largely devised as they can be useful for various attitude objects.

Of the above scales, Thurston's "Technique of equal-appearing intervals", The method of paired comparisons", "The method of successive interval" and Likert's "Method of summated Ratings" are largely used.

2.4 Adjustment

From birth to death an individual is an active organism. He is active with a purpose and his activity is continuous. Every organism attempts to relate to his physical environments to satisfy his needs. In addition to these physical environments to which all living being adjust, man must relate to psychological and sociological environment also. He must satisfy his psychological needs such as emotions, security, affection, and self-esteem. These psychological needs cannot be satisfied in a vacuum. He must do so in a socio-cultural setting. It is established that every human being is born with inner drives that are dynamic forces. They influence his thoughts, attitudes, emotions and behaviour. These drives and urges impel an individual towards the realization of definite interests and ideals. When the resulting behaviour is satisfactory to the individual and society, there is said to be adjustment. However, if the behaviour responses are not adequate or satisfactory
another pattern is acquired. In either case he attempts to bring about an adjustment of behaviour through the utilisation of a mechanism that may seem to satisfy his impulses at that time. The result is either whole some adjustment of more or less serious mal-adjustment (Narang).

Life consists of such sequences in which needs are aroused and then satisfied. This familiar pattern is the process of adjustment according to Shaffer and Shoben. It may be said at the very outset that like some other concepts in education and psychology that do not lend themselves easily to abstract definition, adjustment also suffer from vague and contradictory formulations to such an extent that there is little consensus concerning what adjustment is and how to measure it. Mowrer and Kluckhohn, as quoted by Heyns say that all living organisms tend to preserve a state of internal consistency. They tend to go into action and remain in action until the source of their activity is removed. This process of behaviour which results from some stimulating condition, either internal or external or both and continues until some state of equilibrium is restored, is common to all organisms and is called the process of adjustment. It, in fact, refers to the entire sequence from the time a need, tension, or drive is aroused until the need is satisfied the tension reduced or the drive extinguished. A very good meaning, according to Patty and Johnson is, "the dynamic equilibrium of the total organism or personality. According to Symonds
adjustment can be simply defined as a "satisfactory relation of an organism to its environments". He has also defined adjustment "as adaptation to the demands of reality (p.4)". Lehner and Kube observe that personal adjustment is the process of interaction between ourselves and our environments. In this process we can either adopt to the environment or alter it. Satisfactory personal adjustment depends on successful interaction. It is in other words the process by which a person varies his behaviour to produce a more harmonious relationship between himself and his environment. It has also been defined as the individual's successful adaptation to and interaction with his environments.

While the definition of adjustment varies from writer to writer, the connotation of harmonious relationship with environments is a common denominator in most of them. There will always be some disharmony between ourselves and our environments, some gap between our needs and their complete satisfaction. A complete satisfaction will be ideal and only an unachievable goal. A relatively satisfying adjustment is the best we can achieve. The type of pattern of adjustment shall differ from individual to individual. One has a certain way of maintaining one's personality structure which is evidenced particularly in one's scheme of values, (Narang) Shaffer and Shoben have described the adjustment process as "a sequence of behaviour by which organisms overcome obstructions
and resolve conflicts". Mike and Hanson\textsuperscript{44} define adjustment as "fitting well into the environment".

2.4.1 Process of Adjustment

The adjustment process, according to Symonds\textsuperscript{45} consists of the efforts of an organism to overcome frustration in achieving satisfaction of the need. The poorly adjusted person in unrealistic, dissatisfied and frustrated, says Smith\textsuperscript{46}, he will generally be inclined to satisfy his own intense and immediate need and sacrifice his own long term interests as well as the interests of others. On the other hand the well adjusted have traits that enable them to meet the conditions of their lives satisfactory with the resources available in their environments. English and English\textsuperscript{47} have defined adjustment as "a static equilibrium between an organism and its surroundings". In such a state there is no stimulus change evoking a response, no need is unsatisfied, and all the continuing functions of the organism proceed normally.

A well adjusted behaviour tends to lack frustration tendencies. "Maladjustments reveal themselves in the form of anti-social behaviour, pain, or general inability to accept oneself or others", (Patty and Johnson)\textsuperscript{48} Eysenck et al\textsuperscript{49} have defined adjustment as "a state in which the needs
of the individual on the one hand and the claims of the environment on the other are fully satisfied. Maladjustment has been defined by them as the "inability to adjust to one's own social, vocational, or environmental demands." Adjustment in other words is the process by which the harmonious relationship between the individual and the environments can be attained.

Drever has defined maladjustment as "the condition of an individual who is unable to adopt or adjust himself adequately to his physical, occupational, or social environment." Adjustment is in fact a condition of harmonious relation to the environment where in one is able to achieve satisfaction for most of one's needs and is able to meet one's physical, social and psychological demands fairly well. More or less enduring failure of adjustment especially greater than expected by others or oneself, is termed as maladjustment. Maladjustment has also been defined as "any wild disturbance of the personality in which there is difficulty in securing a satisfactory adjustment to the environment, particularly to other persons (Hariman).

The process of adjustment, however, cannot be defined within a single concept. Some of the concepts in order of importance, according to Symonds are, freedom from inner conflict, effective solution of the problem of living, ability
to accept reality, social contacts, and interests, plastic and suggestible, perceives the world as warm and friendly, ability to accept love from others, and possession of good health. According to Gordon maladjusted behaviour does not exist as any particular kind of behaviour. What may be maladjusted in one setting may not be in another, and what may constitute good adjustment for some judges may not be for others.

2.4.2 Measure for Adjustment

Apart from the problem of an accepted definition of adjustment, a variety of tools have been used by the psychologists for its measurement. The differences over the opinion of personality traits that constitute a well-adjusted personality have led to different methods for its evaluation. As a natural and logical consequence, this has led to different findings over the relationship between adjustment and other intellectual, non-intellectual social educational, and personal variables. Adjustment may also be of the total personality or of one or more personality traits. In the present investigation it was desired to get a measure of total adjustment and it had been measured in respect of a combination of three traits, namely, emotional, social and educational.
2.5 School Achievement (Academic Achievement)

In studies of school achievement, the traditional criterion of performance is the grades scored by the students at the various tests and examinations. Broadly used, the term academic performance or academic achievement refers to some method of expressing a student's scholastic standing in relation to others. Usually this is a grade for a course, an average for a group of courses in a subject area or an average for all courses expressed on a 0 to 100 or other quantitative scale. Another measure of academic achievement sometimes used instead of grades is the standardised test of achievement. English and English\textsuperscript{55} have defined academic achievement as the attained ability to perform school task. This attained ability may be general or specific to a given subject matter. The word academic, here stands for those aspects of school that involve the study of books. The achievement of the students in the courses, syllabi, subjects, and books studied by them and expressed in the form of grades, percentage or on any other point scale, can broadly be termed as academic achievement.

Biswas and Agarwal\textsuperscript{56} define the school achievement as a "Knowledge acquired and skills developed in school subjects, generally indicated by marks obtained in test".
In the present report, school achievement has been defined in the normal sense of the term. The percentage of the marks secured by the students at the Gujarat New Secondary School Certificate Examination, held in March, 1981 has been taken to be their school achievement. The marks awarded by the teachers in the various examinations had been purposely not been considered as the school achievement of the students, so as to eliminate the element of subjectivity arising out of the differences in the standards of examinations and systems of evaluation that differ from school to school and from teacher to teacher. Achievement in the various school subjects was not taken into account but the percentage of the aggregate of the marks obtained in all offered subjects was the school achievement for the purpose of the present investigation.

2.6 Outline of the Social Structure Prevailing in Gujarat

(With special reference to the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and socially and educationally backward classes)

The dynamic changes which are now taking place in the traditional social structure of Gujarat are the consequences of the economic, political, educational and socio-cultural forces which have been working through a century of eventful history and the society is assuming a new shape. The old values are weakening and the new ones are yet in the melting pot.
Caste is the key-note to the social structure of Gujarat as in all linguistic regional societies of India. As a cultural trait caste is an all India phenomenon but as institutional interaction, caste is confined to the linguistic boundaries of unilingual state. This implies that caste positions, inter-caste relations and caste names vary from region to region. Originally Indian society was divided into four principal Varnas, viz., Brahmin, Kshatriya, Vaishya and Shudra, which indicated natural division then existing in the society. These four 'Varnas' were devised according to the needs of the society, and in general, there were flexibility and mobility in occupational pursuit as well as other matters. In short, the structure of society was not very rigid in the beginning.

In course of time the caste system emerged, this was altogether a different system with a variety of new characteristic features. Gradually this system was divided into several sub-divisions and sub-castes with special patterns regulating modes of living religious rites and economic and social life of the people. The Indian caste system has thus become a historical factor which has resulted in social exclusiveness, hierarchy and social stratification. The notion of caste hierarchy has become so deep rooted that it has almost become a natural phenomenon in the society and a child born in a caste usually grown in its shadow and
develops the 'Caste Personality', imbibing most of the attitudes, habits, and values, and peculiarities of the caste. The caste has thus become a type of an organisation depending upon the fact of belonging to it by birth in that caste, and thus leading to undynamic and unprogressive set-up in the society.

2.6.1 Scheduled Castes

The untouchables mainly forming the scheduled castes of Gujarat are the lowest group in the social hierarchy of Gujarat. In this group are included castes like 'Dhed', 'Vankar', 'Chamar', 'Bhangi' and several others. Among them also there are high and low but the 'Bhangi' is the lowest of all. These groups generally follow, what are called, unclean occupations. Brahmin and other caste Hindus regard themselves to be polluted by their touch. They generally live at the out skirts of villages.

The traditional occupations in which these groups are engaged involve handling of so-called dirty jobs like tanning and skinning of hides, manufacture of leather goods, sweeping of streets, carrying night soil etc. Besides these traditional occupations they are engaged as landless labourers. They are dependent on landed groups as subsistence workers and bound to them as debtors.
In most villages, especially, the erstwhile Jamindari type, prevailed the system of bonded labour (Vethia) in which the members of this group were treated as serfs-hereditary retainers and servants. This bonded labour was little different from slavery. In the villages, under the system of direct individual land tenure, many members of this group worked as indentured labourers. Despite the laws against compulsory labour after independence, there are still villages where two system prevails, though informally, through the threatening power of overlords.

2.6.2 Scheduled Tribes

The scheduled tribes occupy a distant place in the social structure of Gujarat. Though essentially a part of the social structure of the regional society they are not a part of the caste structure. Their social-cultural system is different from that of the caste groups of the regional society. They differ in respect of habitation mostly in inaccessible parts lying in forests and hills, in respect of language, mostly tribal dialects very much different even from one another in respect of religion which is mostly animistic in nature and in respect of economy which is essentially a subsistence economy. A majority of them live in hilly areas as well as border areas. As such they are more or less isolated from the rest of the groups.
Though a great majority of the scheduled tribes continue to live in their exclusive settlements even today, during the last 25 to 30 years, government sponsored programmes including extension of educational facilities as well as of means of communications and transportation have brought the tribal groups closer to the non-tribal groups. As a result, the process of detribalization has set in and individuals and sections of the scheduled tribes have, from time to time, moved out to their semi-isolation in remote hills and forests and entered plains, villages with caste system at their periphery.

2.6.3 Socially and Educationally Backward Classes

(As identified by the Baxi Commission)

In his report socially and educationally backward class commission writes\(^57\), the term backward classes occurs in the constitution of India at several places viz., Article 15(4), 16(4) and there is a reference to Article 29(2) in Article 15(4). In Article 338(3) reference has been made to backward classes in the context of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes which states that "in this article reference to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes shall be construed as including references to such other backward classes, as the President may, on receipt of the report by a Commission appointed under Clause (1) of Article 340 by orders specify
and also to the Anglo-Indian Community. Possibly the question of determination of what are other backward classes has been left to the administration having regard to the circumstances prevailing in each state.

In fixing the concept of backwardness, rigid approach to the question will not be helpful. It would be necessary to bear in mind that some of similar conditions of a class or community may not prevail uniformly in all states, that conditions may not prevail uniformly in all states, that conditions may differ in different areas within the state, and that caste cannot form the solitary basis for fixing the criteria and several other important factors and conditions would require consideration.

The framers of the constitution felt that in the establishment of a real democracy, the unequal, the weaker sections of society will require help for their advancement. Bound by tradition and living in poverty, having lost all sense of and impetus for reform and progress and suffering from inferiority complex, the unequal class had become so static that it would be difficult for them on their own and without any external help, to march with the other advanced sections of society. This aspect of the concept will be useful not only in the determination of backwardness but also in suggesting ways of amelioration.)
2.7 **Main Gists of the Concept**

The main gists of concept of backwardness, if we are to group them under appropriate headings are as follows:

1. **Social backwardness**
2. **Educational backwardness**
3. **Economic backwardness**
4. **Caste**
5. **Other similar or relevant factors.**

The words "socially and educationally backward class" occur in Article 15(4). This expression, however, has not been defined in the constitution. It can however, generally be said that socially and educationally backward classes would include such classes, groups, communities whose social progress is retarded, who are illiterate or poorly ignorance, lack of education and other social disabilities, suffer from lack of adequate opportunities in the matter of self-development.

Their slum-like abodes devoid of even minimum sanitary facilities, their unsatisfactory physical conditions and environment, inflexible social customs relating to marriage divorce etc., and their religious beliefs mainly consisting of external ceremonies based on superstition leading to blind faith in charms, witchcraft or various types of occult
practices—all these cumulatively result in social backwardness. Such traditional mode of life with a rigid adherence to customs, when followed by a group or community from generation to generation generates social backwardness, which is inconsistent with modern civilized notions and which retards progress towards civilized life.

The Government of Gujarat appointed a Commission by a resolution dated 8th August, 1972 to enquire into social educational and other relevant conditions of the people, castes, races, tribes of parts of or groups within castes or races or tribes in the state and report what section/sections of them (other than scheduled castes and scheduled tribes) should be treated as socially, educationally and in any other way backward and therefore, deserve of special treatment and grant of special concessions similar to those being granted to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in the state in pursuance of provisions of the various Articles of the constitution of India.

The socially and educationally backward class commission considered 82 castes/classes/groups backward.

2.8 Proportion of Scheduled Castes, Tribes and Socially and Educationally Backward Classes

As per 1981 census the combined percentage of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes population in the state comes to
21.38 percentage of which the scheduled tribes population is 14.22 percentage and scheduled castes population is 7.16 percentage. The highest concentration of both scheduled castes and scheduled tribes population is found in the Dangs district with 92.97 percentage, next in order comes Valsad with 59.69 percentage, Bharuch with 49.14 percentage as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL POPULATION OF MEMBERS OF SCHEDULED CASTES AND SCHEDULED TRIBES IN STATE/DISTRICTS 1981

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State/District</th>
<th>Percentage of scheduled castes and tribes to total population</th>
<th>Percentage of scheduled castes to total population</th>
<th>Percentage of scheduled tribes to total population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat State</td>
<td>21.38</td>
<td>7.16</td>
<td>14.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Jamnagar</td>
<td>7.60</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Rajkot</td>
<td>6.73</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
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<td>3 Surendranagar</td>
<td>11.45</td>
<td>10.87</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Bhavnagar</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Amreli</td>
<td>8.69</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Junagadh</td>
<td>8.92</td>
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<td>7 Kachchh</td>
<td>16.68</td>
<td>10.65</td>
<td>6.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Banaskantha</td>
<td>16.91</td>
<td>10.20</td>
<td>6.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Sabarkantha</td>
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</tr>
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<td>10 Mahesana</td>
<td>9.08</td>
<td>8.75</td>
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</table>

contd.
From the Table 2.1, the percentage of scheduled castes (1) Ahmedabad, (11.27 percentage), (2) Surendranagar (10.87 percentage), (3) Kachchh (10.65 percentage) (4) Banaskantha (10.20 percentage) from the first group of districts having more than 10 per cent of scheduled castes, (1) Mehsana (8.75 percentage), (2) Amreli (8.62 percentage), (3) Sabarkantha, (8.56 percentage), (4) Junagadh (8.41 percentage), (5) Gandhinagar, (7.33 percentage), (6) Jamnagar, (7.29 percentage), (7) Rajkot (6.55 percentage), (8) Vadodara (6.01 percentage) form the second group with more than 5 percentage and below 10 per cent scheduled castes, whereas the remaining five districts, namely, (1) Bharuch, (4.50 percentage),
(2) Panchmahals, (3.80 percentage), (3) Surat, (3.68 percentage), (4) Valsad (3.10 percentage) and (5) The Dangs, (0.66 percentage) can form the third group with less than 5 percent of scheduled castes population.

In case of scheduled tribes the districts of (1) The Dangs, (2) Valsad, (3) Bharuch, (4) Panchmahals, (5) Surat, (6) Vadodara, (7) Sabarkantha and (8) Banaskantha have appreciable tribal population whereas in the remaining districts the concentration of scheduled tribes is not heavy comparatively.

Proportion of socially and educationally backward classes is not available in census, so the figures are not shown.

2.9 Safe-guards for Scheduled Castes, Tribes and Socially and Educationally Backward Classes

As the Indian constitutional aims at securing to all the citizen of India, "Justice, Social, Economic and Political, Liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship and Equality of status of opportunity". It prescribed protection and safe-guard for the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and other backward classes either specifically or by way of general rights of citizens with the object of promoting their educational and economic interest and of
removing certain social disabilities, the scheduled castes were subjected to the following are the most important of them.

(a) General Provisions

(1) Under Article 29 of the constitution, no citizen can be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or receiving aid out of State funds.

(2) Under Article 38 as one of the directive principles of State policy, the State is required to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively as it may, a social order in which justice social economic and political, shall cover all the institutions of national life.

(b) For Scheduled Castes, and Tribes and other Backward Classes Specially

(1) Article 48 lays down an important directive principle of State Policy and provides that the State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people and in particular, of the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.
(2) Article 16 and 335 make it the obligation of the State to consider their claims in the making of appointments to public services and make reservations for them in case of inadequate representation.

Some important recommendations for socially and educationally backward classes by the Baxi Commission:

(1) Measures for enforcement of compulsory primary education should be tightened.

(2) Scholarship of Rs. 30/- per annum should be given to a child studying in standard V to VII who has obtained 50 per cent of marks at the annual examination in previous standards.

(3) A scholarship of Rs. 75/- per annum should be paid to those students, who studying in standard VII to XI and who have obtained 50 per cent of the marks at the annual examination in previous standards and such students should also be paid S.S.C. Examination fee.

(4) Students in the technical courses should be paid a scholarship of Rs. 115/- per annum if they obtained 46 per cent of marks in the qualifying examination.

(5) 10 per cent of seats should be reserved in medical, engineering, dental, pre-medical, technical, agricultural and veterinary colleges.
10 per cent reservation of seats in Class III and Class IV government services for backward classes including nomadic tribes and denotified tribes.

5 per cent reservation of seats in Class I and Class II government servants services for backward classes including nomadic tribes and denotified tribes.

Three decades of independence rolled by and it is time to evaluate the changes in the school achievement of the pupils of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and backward classes. Though it must be remembered that backward classes as identified by the Baxi Commission, came into vogue in the year 1978. Before that the pupils of backward classes were not beneficiaries of the Government policy. The scheduled castes and scheduled tribes availed themselves fully of the opportunity which the state has been granting from time to time. This comparative study has not been reported. So it is assumed that such type of investigation had not been undertaken in the past.

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CHAPTER III
REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

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CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

The present investigation relates to the three aspects namely, achievement motivation, attitude and adjustment. In order to review the studies directly related to the present investigation, conducted both in India and abroad, the relevant research work was broadly surveyed. There are number of studies conducted in the area of school achievement available both in Indian and foreign researches. These studies have critically examined the relationship between school achievement and a large number of factors in the cognitive, affective and environmental domains.

The results of the numerous studies for investigating relationship between school achievement and achievement motivation and between school achievement and adjustment have generally been contradictory.

3.2 School Achievement and Achievement Motivation

School achievement was conceived to be almost exclusively a function of intelligence and academic aptitude, for a long time in the history of educational institutions. However, aptitude and intelligence tests have not given perfect
predictions. The educationist and psychologist are unanimous in appreciating the importance of motivational factors in academic success. This view is gaining ground that achievement is capable of improvement by due consideration to factors other than native ability. This change in perspective has shifted the focus of attention to factors like motivation, attitude and adjustments. Achievement motivation and its correlates has been a topic of keen interest in the recent years.

The concept of achievement motivation refers to the need of an individual to perform according to a high standard of excellence. It has been extensively studied by David C. McClelland and his associates. It has been measured, by and large in two general ways, projective techniques and paper pencil questionnaire. Illustrative of the former is McClelland's method which is an extension of Murray's, Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) approach.

3.2.1 Significant Relationships

One group of studies has reported significant relationship between achievement motivation and school achievement at the various educational levels. Rosen1, Winter Bottom2, Holland3, Krug4 Weiss, Wertheimer and Grossbeck5, Veroff, Atkinson, Feld, and Gurin6, Litting and Yeracaris7, Caplehorn and Sutton8, Singh9, Esther10 and Cottle11 have all reported
positive correlation between need for achievement and academic attainment. Muthayya used TAT on two groups of 30 boys each, of high and low academic achievement, Genaro with 150 boys and 150 girls of grade X., Caplehorn and Sutton with a group of 59, 11 years old school children, Sinha with 400 x and XI, class children with equal number of high and low achievers, have all obtained significant positive correlations between achievement motivation and school achievement. Pelechano concluded in case of 82 female students with mean age about 16 years that motivational variables were related to academic achievement. O’shea reported similarly in case of 284 academically bright, high and low achieving boys of a junior high school. Davids came to the conclusion that high achieving boys have high achievement motivation. Olson indicated that there is a relationship between achievement motivation for both male and female students with their academic achievement during the high school years.

Kestenbaum and Weiner concluded with male and female students of grades 7 and 8 that the reading performance on a standardised test was related to achievement motivation. Cole on a sample of 100, III Grade average children with IQ between 96 and 103 and using Glass Room Behaviour Inventory for need for achievement, concluded that need achievement is significantly related to achievement in various subjects for
both males and females with ranging from 136 to 250. Gulo using TAT for 225 educational undergraduates, observed that the subjects with high need achievement had significantly higher grades than those with low n.Ach. Packwood obtained similar results with a motivational check list. Holland says that low achievers possessed less motivation for academic achievements. Fisch collected data from 52 students in an introductory statistics class and obtained a positive relationship between high grades and high need for achievement combined with at least average intelligence. Holl with a sample of 357 middle and lower socio-economic status children from the senior class of 12 high schools concluded that with McClelland TAT, difference between achievers and non-achievers was significant. Ollendick reports that need for achievement is a reliable predictor of academic performance. Nichols and Holland obtained a correlation range of .30 and .10 between achievement motivation and academic achievement for both boys and girls of first year college.

Child and Whiting, Taylor, Atkinson, Mkehachie, Isaeson, Milholland and Lin, Entwistle and Entwistle, Jones and Griesek, Reed and Tomine, as quoted by Cole, have all reported relationship between academic achievement and achievement motivation with coefficients of correlation ranging from negligible to .40. Tomin as quoted by Cole, found that the personality trait which had the greatest
positive influence on predictability of achievement motivation was the factor identified as achievement motivation. Hermans and Coopmans\(^{37}\) concluded that grades had a moderately high coefficient of correlation with achievement motivation. Heckhausen\(^{38}\) has quoted the studies of McClelland, Uhlinger and Stephens, Robinson and Meyer et al. to show that the relationship between motivational and educational accomplishments was significant. Parikh\(^{39}\) found that n.Ach. was positively related to socio-economic status, performance, perception, belief and with all the n.Ach. components. In his study Patel\(^{40}\) revealed that there was a significant positive relationship between n.Ach. and performance. Pathak\(^{41}\) also found that n.Ach. score was positively related to pupil's school performance, attitude towards study and intelligence. Sinha\(^{42}\) also found achievement motivation significantly related to academic achievement. Levin\(^{43}\) has cited nine studies on college level, two on the high school level and one on the graduate professional school sample. Of the college studies, four found positive correlation between achievement motivation and school achievement. All nine controlled adequately for ability, McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell\(^{44}\), found that in one particular study the correlation between grades and achievement motivation, as measured by TAT was \(r = .39\). In another study Weiss et al.\(^{45}\) reported that TAT measure correlate, \(r = .34\) with grades. In his study Chahbezi\(^{46}\) obtained \(r = .51\) between achievement motivation and academic achievement.
At the high school level Rosen concluded in case of 120 subjects with age 15 years that subjects with high motivation scores are proportionately more likely to achieve higher grades and thus found achievement motivation directly related to school grades. Using newer and different inventories, Farley and Mealics have reported significant correlation between achievement motivation and school achievement.

3.2.2 Non-Significant Relationship

Most of the studies reviewed during the present investigation have reported significant and positive correlation between achievement motivation and school achievement, though there are some that have reported the relationship between the said two variables to be non-significant. Levin reported five of the nine studies conducted at the college level to show achievement motivation unrelated to academic achievement. Similarly Mingione, Redell, Girija, Bhadra and Ameerjan did not find the relationship between school achievement and achievement motivation to be significant. Hills also concluded in his study that the results related to the relationship between the two variables were confusing and not impressive. Farley and Truog have reported that most of the widely known work of McClelland and his associates utilizing TAT fantasy based measurement of achievement motivation and other measures of achievement motivation tend to bear
little face or predictive validity where specific academic achievement is concerned. Mckeachie et al.\textsuperscript{55} reported that the studies considering the relationship between scores on the TAT measures of need achievement and course grades produced no consistent results.

Bending\textsuperscript{56}, in case of 110 male students enrolled introductory psychology, obtained $r = .02$ between McClelland n.Ach. test and grades and equal to $\cdot.13$ between n.Ach. Scale in Edward’s personal preference schedule and grades. Sarson as quoted by Sinha\textsuperscript{57} found that n.Ach. scale showed a slight tendency to correlate negatively with the achievement measure of the students. Raffini and Rosemier\textsuperscript{58} observed lack of relationship between resultant achievement motivation and scholastic achievement in case of college under-graduates. Gokul Nathan\textsuperscript{59} used Mukherjee’s Sentence Competition Test on 103 post-graduate students and the correlation between need for achievement and educational achievement was $.009$ which was not significant. Morgan\textsuperscript{60} using Edward Personal Preference Schedule on 217 college students obtained $r = -.023$ between achievement motivation and academic performance. The relation is evidently not significant. Similarly Bhatnagar\textsuperscript{61} using the same tool failed to obtain a significant relationship between the two variables. Mehta\textsuperscript{62} concluded that n.Ach. showed positive correlation with the total performance at the school examination as well as with the performance in individual subjects. It
appeared, however, that the need for achievement tended to show a positive relationship with school performance under certain conditions and no relationship under certain other conditions. Mitchell administered the various tests and inventories of achievement motivation to 131 females at the college stage. The results of the various tests differed in this complex variable and no relationship with motivation was discovered. Lowell, as reported by McClelland et al. has similar findings. Lack of any relationship was also confirmed by Hayashi et al. as reported by Heckhausen.

Cole concluded on the basis of the various studies that the relationship between achievement motivation and academic performance was ambiguous. Some studies had obtained negligible or no relationship while others had in the range of .30 to .40. Similarly Shaw and Muthayya and Rajeshwari have concluded that the relationship between the two variables referred to above is inconsistent and equivocal. With 244 students, 134 men and 108 women, enrolled in a course in introductory psychology, Bending concluded that grade criterion was weakly loaded on achievement motivation. Mehta reported that the correlation between achievement motivation and marks in the various subjects ranged between .086 and .179. The combined group of boys studying in low SES schools showed positive relationship of r = .23 and in high SES r = .06 between n.Ach. and school performance. McClelland et al. also
reported inconclusive evidence on relationship between n.Ach and school performance and argued for more systematic studies.

3.3 School Achievement and Adjustment

In developing prediction of academic achievement, educators and psychologists have been concerned with evaluating non-cognitive measures in an attempt to increase predictive accuracy beyond that attained by forecasts derived from intelligence tests alone. One of the important non-cognitive variables studied in academic achievement is adjustment.

3.3.1 Positively Related Studies

Some studies have revealed positive correlation between school achievement and adjustment or negative correlation between neuroticism or maladjustment and academic achievement at the various levels. Entwistle and Cunningham\textsuperscript{72} working on a sample of 2700 children have revealed that neuroticism shows a significant negative correlation with the school attainment, \( r \) being equal to \(-0.16\). According to them the results can be treated with more confidence than those of many of the previous studies with samples which were often small and unrepresentative. Similarly Savage\textsuperscript{73} working on a population of Australian university students, De Barbenza and Montoya\textsuperscript{74} also with the university students, Elliott\textsuperscript{75} Butcher, Ainsworth and Besbitt\textsuperscript{76}, Entwistle and Welsh\textsuperscript{77}, Eysenck and Cookson\textsuperscript{78}, Leith and
Devis, have all reported that neuroticism or maladjustment and academic achievement are negatively related to each other. In case of 150 boys and 150 girls of 10th grade, Genaro observed negative correlation between emotional expression and academic achievement.

Naylor and Gaudry concluded that the measures of adjustment were significantly related to mathematics performance after the effect of anxiety and intelligence were partialed out. Wilson also observed that personal adjustment is related to academic achievement. Borrow also obtained a significant but low correlation between adjustment and achievement. Gupta observed that the r between educational attainment and neuroticism was -.036 for a sample of college students between the ages of 15 and 18. Jitendra, Rajinder and Amarjeet also reported that the correlation between high achievement and neuroticism was -.33 one study by Hertzberg, as quoted by Griffiths, showed a tendency towards small negative correlation between scores on neurotic inventory and scholarship for college students. High academic ability was related to personal adjustment according to the conclusion of Watson. Douglas and Ross reported that greater the number of adverse items reported on adjustment, the lower on the whole is school performance. Although there was evidence of a deterioration in relative performance during the school years, they reported that this is confirmed to a small group of very
maladjusted children, for the majority, the increase in symptoms or signs of disturbed behaviour was related to lower performance at each age tested.

Hicks\textsuperscript{89} working on a small sample of school children observed that better achievers were the least neurotic and also supporting the position that better achievers were better adjusted. A similar study conducted in India by Mahanta\textsuperscript{90} suggests that high achievers were, in general, less neurotic. Shah\textsuperscript{91} concluded in his study that low achievers had low level of adjustment. Stagner\textsuperscript{92} also concluded that unstable and maladjusted children do less well in studies. Altus\textsuperscript{93} observed that emotional maladjustment was a characteristic of low achievement. Vace\textsuperscript{94} similarly reported that emotionally disturbed children in regular classes did less well. Savage\textsuperscript{95} observed that neuroticism and academic attainment were negatively correlated for school children of average age about eight years. Jensen\textsuperscript{96} concluded in case of 2000 white, negro and Mexican-American school children that the correlation between neuroticism and achievement was consistently small and negative in all groups. Ahluwalia and Sreedhu\textsuperscript{97} concluded in case of 260 adolescent girls that existence of personal problems affected their academic achievement and more the number of personal problems, the lower the level of academic achievement. Rao\textsuperscript{98} also
reported that superior achievement might be looked upon as evidence of successful adjustment. Johnson concluded that low achievers were generally less emotionally adjusted. Sinha similarly reported that high achievers had higher overall adjustment. Bhatnagar reviewed the use of a variety of psychological tests for understanding the relationship between academic achievement and academic adjustment.

Callard and Goodfellow commenting on the relation between intelligence and neuroticism said that at the top of the educational hierarchy there was a tendency for neuroticism and intelligence to be positively correlated whereas at the bottom to be significantly but negatively correlated. Madan found neurotics to have poor performance in school and college achievement. Habinskova similarly reported the prevalence of neurotic symptoms amongst poor readers. Brown and Holtzman have pointed out that students who appeared to have above average scholastic aptitude but were doing very poorly in their course of study, often had problems of adjustment.

3.3.2 Negatively Related Studies

There is another group of studies that reveals academic performance and adjustment to be negatively related to each other, in other words neuroticism and maladjustment
to be positively related to academic achievement at the various levels of education. Eysenckian theory, says Child, predicts that good educational attainment showed scores high on neuroticism. Lynn and Gordon, Furneaux, Lynn and Whittaker have all discovered positive correlation between neuroticism or maladjustment and academic achievement. Jamuar, by using Bell Adjustment Inventory in a sample of 168, found the relationship of adjustment and achievement to be negative but nonsignificant, r being equal to -.10. In this investigation, conducted on the Indian setting the general conclusion was that the achievement depended on personality adjustment of the pupils. Among the different dimensions of adjustment, home, emotional and social adjustment played a vital role; personality factors were thus observed to be influencing academic achievement independently of intelligence. Mason, Adams and Blood, and Adams, Mason and Blood reported that brighter students were less well adjusted and had more personal adjustment problems. Travers also reported that in one study it was revealed that most successful students tended to have certain neurotic trends in their personality. Seetha found no significant relationship existed between social adjustment and academic achievement.

3.3.3 Unrelated Studies

There is yet another group of studies that has reported
that maladjustment, emotional unstability or neuroticism are not related to academic achievement at the school or college level. Bending, using Maudsley personality inventory, discovered no association between neuroticism and attainment in case of 202 male American University students in introductory psychology. Barton, Dielman and Cattell concluded in case of 169 sixth grade and 142 seventh grade students that emotional stability was significantly related to the achievement in the various subjects in case of VII but not in the case of VI grade students.

Deb by using Bernreute personality inventory and Eysenck's personality Inventory, Kline with Ghanaian University students and on a culture pattern quite different from the Western Europe or America, Choe on Korean Secondary School students, Martin with 200 Canadian High School students and using Neurotic scale questionnaire, have all reported that there is no correlation between neuroticism or maladjustment and academic attainment. Houlihan with a small sample of VIII grade gifted children observed that high and low achievers did not significantly differ in personality adjustment. Ennis similarly discovered that high and low achievers had no significant difference in emotional stability. O'shea and Ridding did not find any difference between achievement and emotional stability in case of high and low achievers.
Darley\textsuperscript{126} has quoted the studies of Rundquist, Sleto, Bell and Williamson and Darely for showing lack of any relationship between the various tests of maladjustment and academic achievement. In his own study he obtained a correlation ranging from .008 to .234 for boys and girls for home, health, social and emotional adjustment and the students' average grades. Harris\textsuperscript{127} reviewed the literature regarding to relationship between adjustment and grades and concluded that the correlation ranged from .12 to -.11 in case of the Bell Adjustment Inventory and other such scales and inventories. It was also observed that more or less maladjusted did not show any difference in their grade attainment. Travers\textsuperscript{128} has also reported that scores from Bell Adjustment Inventory showed negligible relationship with college grades. Mehrayar, Khajavi, Razavi, and Hosseini\textsuperscript{129} reported little correlation between neuroticism and educational attainment. Ringness\textsuperscript{130} concluded that there were no gross adjustment difference between the academically successful and non-successful subjects, similarly the studies of Griffiths\textsuperscript{131} and Anderson and Spencer\textsuperscript{132} did not indicate any relationship between emotional adjustment and academic achievement.

3.4 School Achievement and Attitude

According to Thurstone and Chave\textsuperscript{133}, "Attitude is the
sum total of a man's inclination and feelings, prejudice or bias, pre-conceived motives, ideas, fears, threat and convictions about a specified topic".

Active education is where the students do much of the initiating and directing of their own learning experiences rather than programmed by external forces. This will depend upon attitude of students. Pupils are innately motivated to be effective in dealing with their environment and master new situation. Skinner\textsuperscript{134} emphasizes that the goal of education is to generate behaviour, the emotional adjustment, autonomy of children and maintenance of motivation to learn. The effect of educational experience and motivation to learn depend upon the attitude of students towards education. This will lead them to perceive school environment properly. It has been argued that precise environmental measures e.g. cultural and dynamic factors might lead to better prediction of personal characteristics e.g. intelligence and scholastic attainment, Bloom\textsuperscript{135}.

Patel\textsuperscript{136} found the significant relationship between attitude of students towards school and academic achievement. Kamila\textsuperscript{137} reported that no significant difference in mean scores was obtained on attitude towards school between scheduled castes and scheduled tribes students, but S.C. and S.T. students possessed lower attitude towards school.
than that of all other caste students. Benerjee\textsuperscript{138} found that the analysis of variable of attitude scores showed that attitude towards manual work, respect to elders, law and creative work were least favourable in senior basic schools, with regard to the attitude towards democratic life, the senior basic schools having the least and the extended senior basic schools having the most favourable attitude.

Rao\textsuperscript{139} concluded that intelligence, study habits and school attitude were significantly related to prediction of scholastic achievement. He also found that the multiple correlation co-efficient between achievement score of intelligence, study habits and attitude towards school was .81, which was quite high. This indicated that one could place high reliance on the prediction of the scholastic achievement of a pupil from the independent variables, five hundred boys of twelve higher secondary schools formed the sample.

In his study Khan\textsuperscript{140} revealed that adolescents and their elders, on the whole tended to be authoritarian in their attitude towards the problems of authority and discipline.

The study based on the data collected from a sample of 510 adolescent students drawn from various colleges, and 136 teachers and parents working on a sample of four hundred and sixty grade x students of 15 years drawn from all types of schools. Shah\textsuperscript{141} found that disciplined group had favourable attitude towards education, educational programme, educational
He revealed that indisciplined group found faults with the school building, school authority, facilities in the school, whereas their counterpart group had a favourable attitude towards the school. Mayakumari\textsuperscript{142} working on a sample of 490 school students found that attitude of boys towards class was positively related to age, length of stay, mental ability and not related to socio-economic status. The attitude of girls towards class was positively related to age, length of stay, mental ability and negatively related to socio-economic status. In his study Pathak\textsuperscript{143} concluded that the score of achievement motivation was positively related to pupils' school performance, attitude towards study and intelligence.

3.5 Some Studies on School Achievement and Backward Group

Barial\textsuperscript{144} concluded that there was no significant difference in the educational achievement, achievement motivation and intelligence of students belonging to various social classes. He worked on two different samples of 503 and 1005 students of 14 years studying in the same school for the last three consecutive years drawn from 17 schools. Chopra\textsuperscript{145} revealed the difference between the academic achievement of different castes significant at .05 level. He observed that comparatively larger percentage of people belonging to lower castes was engaged in lower occupation and
thus economically poorer than those belonging to higher castes. The groups of different castes matched for father’s occupation did not show significant difference in achievement. Vyas and Chaudhary found that the incidence of drop outs and stagnation occurred among students belonging to scheduled tribes, scheduled castes and other castes, and there was no evidence to show that it occurred more amongst a particular group of boys and girls. In his study Anand concluded that the relationship between socio-economic status and academic achievement was found to exist even when the influence of intelligence of non-verbal as well as verbal type was partialled out.

Chatopadhyay made a comparative study of intelligence of tribal and non-tribal school children and found the tribal children backward as a group. Chandrasekhar found school participation and performance of scheduled caste children adversely affected by the gap between their school and family environment, unfavourable parental attitudes, involvement in domestic duties and poor family economic conditions.

3.6 Trends in Research on Scheduled Castes and Tribes

Several studies on scheduled caste and/or scheduled tribe students have been found, but most of the studies deal
with the educational problems of the scheduled castes and tribes.

Bindu found that literacy among all the scheduled castes in Uttar Pradesh was lower than in many other stages, and the enrolment of the scheduled castes at all stages of education showed an increase after independence. Chitnis reported that there was very little difference in the sex-wise and age-wise composition of respondents in the two groups of scheduled caste and tribe students. It was observed that the scheduled tribes were more disadvantaged than the scheduled castes. In his study Desai observed that the literacy among the scheduled tribes ranged from 11.69 per cent to 14.12 per cent between 1961 and 1971 and only six per cent of the students in primary schools went to the secondary schools and only 11.8 per cent of the secondary education population went to the higher education. In the other study Desai and Pandor found that the teachers opined that the scheduled caste and tribe students were comparatively low in academic calibre and performance.

Adiseshiah and Ramanathan reported that the percentage of literacy of scheduled castes increased from 14.66 in (1961) to 26.00 in (1971) showing an increase in annual rate of 1.26 per cent over 0.8 per cent for non-scheduled castes. Gangrade revealed that the scheduled castes
students, due to certain problems inherent in their social background had not been able to make full advantage of the facilities provided by the constitution. Lal\textsuperscript{156} reported that the enrolment of scheduled tribe was low at each level of education. Parvathamma\textsuperscript{157} working on 260 scheduled caste and 109 scheduled tribe college students, found that many of the scheduled caste and tribe students youth were still to come to education. Pimpley\textsuperscript{158} found that scheduled caste school students were mainly male, and they were inferior in their academic caliber as opined by their teachers. Rajgopalan\textsuperscript{159} reported that thirty per cent of the scheduled caste and tribe students lived in hostels while their parents lived in villages and economic condition of the students was uncomfortable. Rath and Misra\textsuperscript{160} reported that the scheduled tribe students usually had a poor economic and educational background. Sachchidananda\textsuperscript{161} found that scheduled tribe girls were more for education than the scheduled caste girls. Working on a sample of 205 scheduled caste and 195 scheduled tribe college students Shah and Thaker\textsuperscript{162} found that the Governmental assistance for education to the scheduled caste and tribe groups, created inequalities of utilization between different scheduled caste and tribe groups within the state. Singhi\textsuperscript{163} found that the scheduled caste and tribe students were comparatively of higher age and awareness of these students about scholarship
was low. The scheduled caste and tribe students felt that they required coaching in their studies.

Mubayi working on a sample of 1506 students selected randomly from VII, IX, X and XI classes of forty three tribal schools of South Gujarat, revealed that pupils in non-tribal schools had a higher n.Ach. level than those in the tribal schools. The difference in n.Ach. between the tribal and non-tribal pupils in the non-tribal schools was not significant. Gokulnathan found high need achievement level in tribal students as compared to the non-tribals. Rath working on a sample of 330 Brahmin, scheduled caste and tribe children studying in the five different primary schools, reported that Brahmin children were the most intelligent, closely followed by the scheduled tribe children. Misra revealed that the scheduled caste students had not been able to make full advantage of the facilities and programmes instituted by the Government. They also lacked a conducive environment at home which is a pre-requisite for their educational development. Nayak reported that teachers were appreciative of the values of the tribal people. It was reported that the tribals were weak in studies. Gore, Desai and Chitnis worked on a sample of 23,440 respondents, made up of more than eleven thousand students, six thousand parents, three thousand school teachers, 380 head masters,
1640 college teachers and 111 head of colleges representing various level of education, various communities of all the states. They found that the percentage of scheduled and backward caste students was higher among boys than among girls and in most states 'education' was chosen as the basis of social esteem.

3.7 The Present Study

The study of the literature related to the present study has shown that very few studies have been conducted investigating the effects of psychological factors like achievement motivation, adjustment and attitude on school achievement of the students of backward caste groups. No study has been found regarding the student's school achievement of the caste groups as identified by the Baxi Commission during the investigation.

The view of the literature surveyed so far highlighted upon the present study. This view helped the investigator to select the independent variables and their levels, and also to measure them on the internal scales.

Moreover, it helped him to prepare a research design keeping in mind the ambiguous conclusions of the past studies. It also threw light on the statistical methods of analysis and helped him to select a precise and accurate method of statistical analysis.
The next chapter would deal with the planning and the procedure of the present research study.

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CHAPTER IV

PLAN AND PROCEDURE

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