

Comparative Education

A TREND REPORT

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The comparative studies in education have come a long way from the period of Travellers' Tales spanning the last few centuries, or the Cultural Borrowing phase of the nineteenth century when visits to foreign lands were undertaken to observe educational institutions and practices, and experts from abroad invited to advise on problems purely indigenous. Though the fundamental aim of a comparative study remains the same, namely, the planned reform and development of one's own system of education, the method of comparison has been systematized today, and has attained a degree of refinement. Besides this methodological systematization of the pragmatic aim of the field, or perhaps because of it, comparative education in the second half of the twentieth century has emerged as an academic discipline in its own right. This development is reflected in the increasing number of academic courses offered in the subject at the graduate, post-graduate and doctoral levels, as also in the growth of professional organizations set up around the globe to foster and promote the discipline in both its esoteric and pragmatic aspects.

Three distinct stages can be identified in the growth and development of research in comparative education. The nineteenth century was essentially a period of descriptive and statistical studies which systematically collected, classified and disseminated information about educational systems in various countries. The main aim of such an exercise was the adoption of the policies, practices and institutions of one country by another. The beginning of the present century saw the emergence of interpretative or explanatory studies, it being realized that it is not enough simply to know 'what' a particular

educational system is, but also to know 'why' it is as it is. Explanations regarding the 'why' of educational systems were sought mainly through historical, philosophical and sociological approaches. The second half of the twentieth century witnessed the emergence of scientific studies in comparative education. Besides being analytic, the scientific method was also interdisciplinary or multi-disciplinary, with comparative educationists collaborating with political scientists, economists, sociologists, psychologists, historians, cultural anthropologists, and other involved in educational studies in examining education cross-culturally, as well as in grasping a global point of view of the process of education in the light of different factors.

Comparative education research can make a significant contribution to planning for educational development, finding solutions to contemporary problems in education, and reforming the educational system in general. Unfortunately, therefore, the dearth of significant and sufficient research studies in this area in India has deprived the educational policy-making bodies in the country the benefit of drawing on their findings.

One major index of the paucity of research in this area is the fact that in 'A Survey of Research in Education' (Buch, 1974), comparative education does not even figure as a discipline meriting an independent chapter. The situation has improved marginally in quantitative terms, and among the first efforts in the area may be cited the studies conducted by the NCERT in the late 1960s and early 1970s. These include a 'Survey of the Teaching of Comparative Education in Indian Universities' (Ezekiel, 1968), a paper on 'Areas of Research in

Comparative Education' (Singh, 1970) and a study on 'Pressures on Access to Secondary Education and the Choice of School Subjects' (NCERT, 1975). Subsequently, in the Second Survey (Buch, 1979) the trend report on comparative education by Singh reviewed six of the eleven studies abstracted.

The principal aim of the present trend report is to trace the nature and volume of research in comparative education in the doctoral studies and the research projects completed in university departments of education and other related departments in Indian universities, as also the research projects conducted by other teaching and research institutes. Also, the research projects financed by various agencies like the ICSSR, UGC, NCERT and UNESCO are included. The report covers mainly the published and the unpublished works during the period 1978-82, as also some studies conducted earlier. Table 1 shows the year, nature and financing agency of the twenty studies.

Table 1

YEAR, NATURE AND FINANCING AGENCY OF STUDIES IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

Year	Nature and Financing Agency (F.A.)				Total
	Ph.D. Theses	F.A.	Research Projects	F.A.	
1975	1	—	—	—	1
1977	1	—	—	—	1
1978	3	—	—	—	3
1979	5	—	2	NCERT	7
1980	5	—	1	UNESCO	6
1981	1	—	—	—	1
Date not mentioned	—	—	1	—	1
Total	16	—	4	—	20

As compared to the six studies reviewed by Singh (1979), the period 1978-82 has been marked by eighteen studies in comparative education, including Ph.D. studies and research reports. This is an encouraging factor for research in comparative education. The rise in numbers is indicative of growth of the field as an academic discipline. Of the sixteen Ph.D. theses, fourteen have been completed in departments of education, one in the department of sociology and one in the department of psychology.

With regard to the units of comparison, only four

studies deal with comparison of some educational aspect/problem in two or more countries, and hence fall appropriately under the rubric Comparative Studies. Eight studies deal with only one country or a province/area within a country and may therefore be classified under Area Studies. One study (Pramool, 1979) attempts a comparison of the role of teachers in one Indian State, namely, Gujarat, with that in Thailand! It may perhaps be necessary to stress here that the units of comparison have to be equal, if naive conclusions are not to emerge. Similar is the case in the study by Mammotil (1977) which compares secondary education in England and Wales and India with special reference to Bihar. The remaining studies deal with intra-country comparisons such as between rural and urban areas of Karnataka (Sreenivasan, 1979), anavil brahmins and jains (Naik, 1979), and Bangkok Metropolitan Area and the Provincial Area of Thailand (Satit, 1980).

A significant lacuna observed in the research studies reviewed is that not a single study deals with theoretical and methodological considerations in comparative education. Regarding the methodology adopted in the studies under review, certain observations may be made. Before these can be made, however, an examination of the methodological issues involved in comparative education research is essential.

As an academic discipline, comparative education is unique. It is in the first place comparative, and therefore, cross-cultural or cross-national and, secondly, it is interdisciplinary or multi-disciplinary unlike disciplines such as philosophy of education or economics of education which relate to particular parental disciplines in their cases philosophy and economics, respectively. Not only is comparative education different from other areas of education by not being affiliated to a particular parental discipline, but even as a comparative discipline its position is unique in the sense that unlike other comparative fields such as comparative law or comparative literature which once again draw on the parent disciplines of law and literature, respectively the parent field of comparative education is education which is interdisciplinary. Because of its peculiar position both as a comparative and as an education discipline, comparative education encompasses a variety of interests and approaches. It is this eclectic nature of the disciplines, therefore, which makes comparative studies in education both challenging and rewarding. It also poses questions regarding the basic tools and techniques of the subject, the development of models from various social sciences, and the lines of demarcation between comparative education and other fields in education on the one

hand, and comparative education and other social sciences on the other. This view is borne out by the variety of problems tackled by the studies reviewed, as also by the fact that two of the Ph.D. theses are in the departments of sociology and psychology, respectively.

Methodology

Outstanding changes in the methodology in comparative education have occurred in the present century with a purely descriptive approach giving way to interpretative studies, drawing on the various social sciences in their search for explanations. Analytical studies — both intra-educational and educational-societal — were further refined in an attempt to make the discipline scientific, with both inductive and deductive approaches of inquiry employed by scholars in the field. The result has been the emergence of both qualitative and quantitative studies and the consequent need to strike a proper balance between a theorizing approach and an empirical one. Additionally, there has been a felt need for constructing models or typologies and developing techniques in the scientific study of comparative education.

Whatever contributions have been made to the development of comparative education methodology, they have been mainly from outside India. Research studies on methodological issues in comparative education in this country are conspicuous by their absence. It is difficult to understand why Indian researchers in comparative education paid no attention to this most important aspect; perhaps other types of studies are done with ease and within shorter periods.

Table 2 shows the methodology used for comparative study by the twenty studies under review.

Table 2

RESEARCH METHODS ADOPTED BY THE STUDIES

<i>Research Method Employed</i>	<i>Number of Studies</i>
Descriptive survey	6
Descriptive statistical	6
Area studies	5
Historical and sociological approach	1
Case study method	1
Experimental	1
Total	20

From the table it is observed that a majority of studies involve descriptive comparisons, either survey or statis-

tical type. Moreover, five of the studies are what may be called area studies dealing with one country or a province or region within a country. Area studies can provide systematic and authentic information for future comparative studies but are not in themselves comparative. One study goes beyond description to interpretation, using the historical and sociological approaches in a search for explanations. One study adopts the case study method for examining the work of two agencies of non-formal education and one study is experimental in nature.

Themes

Coming next to the themes or topics taken up for comparison, we can first divide them into two broad categories, namely, studies dealing strictly with questions relating to school and studies dealing with questions relating to school and society, or what may be termed ecological studies. The second category of studies is the product on the one hand, of the interest of social scientists in comparative education, and on the other the methodological principle that it is the things outside the school which govern and determine what goes on within the school. Of the twenty studies, eleven studies deal strictly with the things within the school and nine with topics concerning school and society. Table 3 shows the topics and themes covered by the studies.

Table 3

TOPICS/THEMES COVERED

<i>Topics or Themes</i>	<i>No. of Studies</i>
Particular levels of education	6
Education and social background	6
Teachers and teacher education	4
Language problems and policies	1
Non-formal and adult education	1
Attitudes and values	2
Total	20

The table gives a synoptic view of the significant problems studied.

Levels of Education

Of the six studies dealing with various issues of different levels of the educational system, the study by Amoradhat (1975) examines the problems of provision and use of audio-visual aids in the secondary schools of Thailand. Data were collected by means of a question-

naire regarding the attitude towards the use of audio-visual aids, the competence of teachers in using these aids, and the facilities available in the schools for the display and use of the audio-visual material. The study simply describes the information collected through the questionnaire and attempts neither an analysis of nor a comparison with the situation outside Thailand.

The study by Mammotil (1977) is a comparative study of (i) the pattern of educational administration and finance, and (ii) the system of curriculum and examinations in England and India. On the basis of juxtaposition of the similarities and differences in the systems of education of the two countries, the study gives some suggestions for improving the educational system of India in general and Bihar in particular.

Hossain's (1978) study is concerned with the problems of introducing universal primary education in Bangladesh. His survey shows that economic, social, environmental, geographical, religious, administrative and political factors affect the programme of universal provision, universal enrolment and universal retention.

The study by Sreenivasan (1979) is also concerned with the primary stage of education, but this time for comparing the development of primary education in the rural and the urban areas within an Indian State, namely, Karnataka. The study analyses the data collected from official records and documents.

Satit's (1980) study is also an intra-national comparison studying the administrative problems perceived by school administrators at the secondary level in two areas of Thailand. The study shows interesting differences in the way problems are perceived by school administrators in metropolitan and provincial areas.

The sixth study dealing with a particular level of education is the one by Sirirassamee (1980) which compares the systems of higher education in India and Thailand. Considering the size and diversity of India and the number and types of higher educational institutions available, it may be said that the study might have added more meaning to the comparison if more than two universities (and these also from the western region) had been selected from different regions of India for the survey. Generalizations about India on the basis of such scant data are rather risky.

Education and Social Background

There are six other studies which may be classified under Education and Social Background. Dharam Vir's (1978) study purports to examine the social background of college students in Nepal. The findings of the study, based on a descriptive survey, do not appear to have much to say on the subject except that (a) urban male

and Hindu students coming from illiterate and semi-literate families have shown more interest in acquiring higher education and (b) middle-income agricultural families account for a majority of students.

Adisai's (1978) comparison of creative thinking in relation to various social factors of high school students in Baroda and Bangkok makes an interesting reading and provides useful information. For example, that Thai students had higher mean scores on all dimensions of creative thinking than Indian students, but that there was no interaction effect between the socio-economic status, school climate and classroom behaviour of students upon their creative thinking.

Naik's (1979) study examines the effects of the family influence variables on the acquisition of achievement motive of pupils belonging to two distinct communities — anavil brahmins and Jains. The findings show that no significant difference existed between the pupils of the two communities in all the variables.

A Ph.D. work under the discipline of psychology is the study by Farzam (1979) which investigates the extent to which the value orientation of parents, father's occupation and the socio-economic status of the family influenced the job preference of the students in guidance and non-guidance schools of Isfahan.

Similarly, Yodsuwan's (1980) study looks at the factors affecting the in-service education programmes of teacher education in Thailand.

Finally, the study by Raj (1981) compares the attitudes and values of expatriate Indian teachers and the native teachers of Ethiopia in the context of the socio-cultural background and finds out that there is no significant difference between the Indian and the Ethiopian teachers. However, the Ethiopian teachers scored higher on theoretical, social and cultural values while the Indian teachers scored higher on religious value.

Teachers and Teacher Education

Of the four studies on teachers and teacher education, Pramool's (1979) study compares the role of teachers in Gujarat (India) and Thailand. A majority of the findings are based on historical facts already available in textbooks. For the contemporary period the findings appear to be of a very general nature.

Shafiq's (1980) study is experimental in nature and is concerned with microteaching as an innovative technique in teacher training in Bangladesh.

The study by Suwannachairop (1980) examines how, through the teacher education programme for elementary schools, the educational needs and problems of a rural community can be tackled. Like Shafiq Suwannachairop has the advantage of working in an educa-

tional system of which he has first-hand knowledge, namely, the Thai system.

This advantage is also shared by Bunturngsook (1979) whose study looks at the role perception and role expectations of the university teachers and their clientele in Thailand.

Language Problems and Policies

A study dealing with an issue of common concern for multilingual countries is the one by Kerawalla (1979) which identifies and analyses the language problems arising in India and the USSR, examines the language policies formulated by the two countries in the realm of official language policy and language policy in education and looks at the specific conditions within which language policies are formulated, adopted and implemented in the two countries. Based on primary and secondary sources the information provided is revealing to the extent that it highlights the need to examine the initial condition prevailing in the two countries and precludes hasty borrowing of policy solutions to problems which may appear, prior to analysis, to be alike.

Non-formal and Adult Education

The study by Banerji (1980) looks at two programmes of non-formal education in India, one by the Directorate of Non-formal and Adult Education, Tamil Nadu, and the other by Seva Mandir, a voluntary agency in Udaipur, and examines their linkages with formal education.

The study by Marr and Gupta (1979) examines the image of self of Indians and other national groups, namely, English, Russians, Pakistanis, Chinese and Americans. Not surprisingly, the ratings for Indians are favourable, and the ratings for self even more favourable.

Attitudes and Values

The last study, conducted by Kureshi, Hussain and Bhatnagar (1979) attempts to measure the strength of achievement motive and the tendencies of hope of success and fear of failure among Indian and African students. The study showed striking similarities and differences between Indian and African students.

Summary

To summarize the major features of the twenty studies reviewed, it may be observed that, as mentioned earlier, not a single study deals with methodological and theoretical issues in comparative education. Further, quite a few studies do not have a clearly stated concep-

tual framework for the comparative study. With regard to the choice of countries selected for comparison, apart from India, which is the focal point of the majority of the studies, one study deals with England and Wales, one with the USSR, and one with Ethiopia. The rest of the studies are in the form of area studies of Nepal, Bangladesh, Iran and Thailand, undertaken, presumably, by students from these respective countries. There is not a single study which deals with a comparison of more than two countries or a comparison between two developing countries.

Reviewing the researches in comparative education in India, two points appear to be remarkable:

- (i) Most of the researchers are students from abroad registered here for their Ph.D. degrees. Consequently, they may find comparative studies easier since they do not then have to go into the details of the different aspects of Indian education, and can draw upon their first-hand knowledge of the educational system in their own country.
- (ii) These studies appear to be confined to a very few universities in India like Bombay, Baroda, Punjab, Aligarh, Delhi, Patna and Mysore. One explanation for this could again be the relatively large number of foreign students in these universities.

With regard to the areas or topics covered, the above discussion highlights a number of gaps in research. There are no studies of a comparative nature available during the period under survey in India on such crucial issues as Education for Development, Politics of Education, Education of Ethnic Minorities, Vocational-Technical Education, Regional Differences in Educational Provisions and Educational Policy Foundation.

Duplication of research studies and the consequent problems of overlap are so far not evidenced due perhaps to the paucity, in quantitative terms, of research in this field in India. The future need, therefore, is to promote more studies, adopting a comparative methodology, on areas so far uncharted as well as newly emerging areas. The ongoing interest in educational reform opens up numerous areas of research for comparative educationists in India. The emergence on the scene of a professional organization for stimulating study and research in comparative education, namely, the Comparative Education Society of India, is expected to give fillip to comparative education research in the country.

ABSTRACTS: 336-358

336. ADISAI, G., *A Comparative Study of Creative Thinking in relation to Socio-economic Status, School Climate and Classroom Behaviour of High School Students in Baroda City (India) and Bangkok City (Thailand)*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1978

The major objectives of the investigation were : (i) to compare the creative thinking of Indian students and Thai students, (ii) to study the relationship of the creative thinking of high school students of India and Thailand in accordance with their socio-economic status, school climate and classroom behaviour, (iii) to study the interaction effect of country, socio-economic status, school climate and classroom behaviour upon creative thinking, and (iv) to compare the factor structure of the space due to the variables relating to the creative thinking of Indian and Thai students.

The study employed a sample of 300 Indian students and 300 Thai students of Grade IX in the age range 13+—16+ years and a sample of 18 Indian teachers and an equal number of Thai teachers for observation. The tools used were Passi Tests of Creativity (Verbal Form), Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (Figural Version Form A and Verbal Version Form B), Kuppusswamy's Socio-Economic Status Scale (Form B), Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire and Flanders' Interaction Analysis Category System. The statistical techniques used were t-test, factor analysis and analysis of variance.

The major findings were: (i) There existed a significant difference in the mean creativity between Indian and Thai students. The Thai students had higher mean scores in all dimensions of creative thinking than their Indian counterparts. (ii) The students — Thai and Indian — from higher socio-economic status had more creative thinking than the students from lower socio-economic status. (iii) The open school climate and closed school climate groups of Indian and Thai samples were found to have significant differences in the mean scores on Passi Tests of Creativity but the results were reverse as regards the dimensions of Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking. (iv) Different classroom behaviour groups, both Indian and Thai, did not differ with regard to creative thinking. (v) There was no interaction effect among country, socio-economic status, and school climate or classroom behaviour of students upon their

creative thinking, in the Indian or the Thai sample. (vi) Factor analysis gave four and six rotated varimax factors of Indian and Thai students, respectively. Some of them were General Creative Process, Consequences Creativity, Figures Elaboration, Unusual Uses, Fluency, Verbal Creativity, Non-verbal Creativity and Sensitivity to Problems.

337. AMORADHAT, K., *A Critical Study of the Problems Concerning the Provision and Use of Audio-visual Aids in the Secondary Schools in Thailand*, Ph.D. Edu., AMU, 1975

The objectives of the enquiry were to study (i) the attitudes of school administrators, teachers and students towards the use of audio-visual aids in schools, (ii) the competence of teachers in using the audio-visual aids in the classrooms, (iii) the frequency of utilization of audio-visual aids, (iv) the facilities available in schools for the use of audio-visual equipment and material, and (v) the facilities available in schools for the display of audio-visual material.

Data were collected from 246 teachers and 200 students of fifty-five secondary schools (twenty-nine government and twenty-six public) of Thailand with the help of a questionnaire constructed by the investigator.

The major findings were: (i) The majority of the school principals, the teachers and the students possessed a favourable attitude towards the utilization of audio-visual aids. (ii) The majority of the school principals and the teachers in the secondary schools of Thailand had undergone formal training in the use of audio-visual aids. (iii) The audio-visual education service in the schools was generally poor, as it provided only simple and common audio-visual aids like maps and charts. Some teachers improvised their audio-visual aids but the schools seldom contributed towards their cost. (iv) The teachers used audio-visual aids like chalkboards and pictures frequently but those like museum specimens only occasionally. (v) The teachers were likely to use audio-visual aids more frequently if better facilities were available.

338. BANERJI, S., *A Comparative Overview of Two Indian Experiences in Non-formal Education and Their Linkages with Formal Education*, Administrative Staff College of India, Hyderabad, 1980 (UNESCO-financed)

The important objective of the study was to provide

information regarding the operationalization of the National Adult Education Programme in two different parts of the country highlighting, among other aspects, the linkage of non-formal and adult education with formal education.

The study was confined to two organizations, the Directorate of Non-formal and Adult Education, a wing of the State Government of Tamil Nadu, and Seva Mandir, a voluntary agency in Udaipur, Rajasthan. The case study method was adopted. The comparative overview differentiated between the two organizations and their efforts were studied on seven dimensions. These were: (i) linkages with formal education, (ii) size and scope of operations, (iii) perceived nature and goals of the projects, (iv) management of internal differences, structure and processes, (v) interface with other organizations and the community, (vi) approaches to evaluation, and (vii) the future.

The following were the important findings: (i) Both the organizations used formal education as a resource, Tamil Nadu to a very obvious degree and Seva Mandir, to the extent that all its full-time staff was found to be the products of the formal stream. While the Tamil Nadu Directorate perceived the formal system as co-existent and a potential help, Seva Mandir seemed to see the formal system as some kind of mild competition. (ii) The Tamil Nadu Directorate covered fifteen districts while Seva Mandir limited itself to about one-third of one district (three blocks of Udaipur district). Seva Mandir focussed, therefore, on what it defined as quality, while the Tamil Nadu Directorate laid great stress on numbers. (iii) The goals as perceived by the two institutions had some overlap and some uniqueness. The Tamil Nadu Directorate perceived it as a one-shot project. Seva Mandir saw this project as yet another opportunity to continue its presence on the rural scene and continue with its efforts for creating model rural development work. (iv) The Tamil Nadu Directorate was found to be an integral part of a bureaucracy based on role specificity and structure for efficient outputs. Seva Mandir recognized that there could be differences within the organization regarding the issues of house-keeping as well as of task output. Both the institutions used the top levels as arbiters in managing operational differences and for developing the managerial values that permeated down the line. (v) The Tamil Nadu Directorate had the major interface with the Directorates of Social Education and Government Examinations. Linkages with these directorates were institutionalized in that all were separate wings of the same department. Seva Mandir focussed on the technical skills of project

content while the Tamil Nadu Directorate focussed on project administration skills. (vi) The responsibility for evaluation in the Tamil Nadu Directorate was vested with the State Resource Centre. Largely on its own initiative, the State Resource Centre carried out a number of programme evaluation studies based on representative samples for the non-formal education, such as a study of the clientele, analysis of lesson units and evaluation of the working of some centres. Seva Mandir had one of its projects evaluated by an outside team. The evaluation function at Seva Mandir was mostly done informally and on a continuous basis. (vii) The immediate need for both the organizations appeared to be a post-literacy follow-up.

339. BUNTURNSOOK, S., *University Education in Thailand—Its Role Perception and Role Expectation: a Study in Role Theory*, Ph.D. Edu., Pan. U., 1979

The major objectives of the investigation were: (i) to study the philosophy, objectives and roles of the university, (ii) to find out the role perception and role expectation of both the university staff and the university clientele, with a view to finding out whether there was a conflict between their role perception and role expectation, and (iii) to formulate guidelines to resolve conflict in order to develop sound university programmes.

This was a descriptive survey research of six universities in Thailand. From these universities, a sample of 1,500 subjects was selected, consisting of 542 students, 491 clientele, and 467 members of the staff. A questionnaire was prepared by the investigator, which was pre-tested twice on small samples in order to increase its reliability and validity. Data were collected by administering the questionnaire. The statistical techniques employed were, F-test, Z-test, t-test and chi-square test.

The major findings of the study were: (i) The universities in Thailand had always been in transition as also university education because these had never failed to respond to the pressure, both internal and external. (ii) Thai universities were playing the roles of teaching, research, community services, and cultural preservation. (iii) The objectives of teaching were liberalism, generalism, self-direction, professional judiciousness, productivity, and independence and less importance was given to cultural and traditional elevation, wise consumerism, tolerance, conservatism, self-control, and morality. (iv) The role of research in the universities laid more emphasis on documentary studies, acting as data

service centre and playing the part of a judge rather than of an advocate, and less on investing new things, new ideas, surveying community needs, and serving as contributor of ideas. (v) There was a perceptual conflict of students in different faculties. This occurred in the roles of teaching, research, and community services, as well as cultural preservation. (vi) There was no perceptual conflict in the university clientele. (vii) Perceptual conflict existed in the research role of the university staff in different faculties, and in different levels of experience. (viii) There was no expectational conflict in the different categories of university students, clientele, and staff, on all the three roles of the university. However, this conflict occurred among three subsamples on the roles of research and community services. (ix) The role perception and the role expectations were in conflict, on all the three roles of the university, in all the categories of students, clientele, and staff. (x) The trend of the teaching role was based on the philosophy and the current objectives of higher education, but this was not so in the case of the other two roles of the universities. (xi) The alternative roles of universities suggested by the sample were to serve and to use the community resources, to seek new knowledge and research, to criticize and solve social problems, and to serve as the political mechanism.

340. DHARAM VIR, *Social Background of College Students in Nepal*, Ph.D. Socio., Mee. U., 1978

The objectives of the study were: (i) to trace the development of education in relation to the State policy in a developing society, (ii) to explain the differential response to higher education by various groups, and (iii) to see how the social background of students was reflected in their participation in voluntary activities and their aspirations and values conducive to modernization.

The sample consisted of 210 students under the old educational system and 230 students under the new educational system. Two questionnaires were used for collection of data.

The findings were: (i) The expansion and growth of modern education in Nepal had been initiated by the State in the absence of industrialization and well-developed agriculture. (ii) Urban, male and Hindu students coming from illiterate and semi-literate families showed more interest in acquiring higher education. (iii) Middle-income agricultural families accounted for the majority of the students. (iv) The peer group influence was more important than the social background in the students' participation in voluntary activities.

341. FARZAM, A.K., *A Study of Parental Influence on Occupational Values and Job Preferences of Guidance and Non-guidance School Students of Isfahan*, Ph.D. Psy., AMU, 1979

The objective of the study was to investigate the extent to which the value-orientation of parents, father's occupation and family's socio-economic status influenced the job preference of the students in guidance and non-guidance schools of Isfahan (Iran).

The study was conducted on a representative sample of 405 students and 152 parents from 112 guidance schools and 78 students and 30 parents from 27 non-guidance schools. Job Value Card (Center), Job Preference and Job Interest Questionnaires constructed by the Office of Planning of Guidance Education (Iran) were used for data collection. Chi-square test was used to find the significance of difference between the value-orientation of parents and their children.

The major findings were: (i) Parents' value-orientation did not influence students' value-orientation. (ii) Parents' value-orientation influenced job preferences of their children in the case of guidance school students only. (iii) Students' value-orientation influenced their job preference. (iv) Father's occupation and family's socio-economic status influenced the job preference of students. (v) Parents as well as students (guidance group) preferred medicine, engineering, teaching, nursing and educational counselling jobs. (vi) Students (non-guidance group) preferred religious, teaching, judicial and police jobs. (vii) Armed forces jobs were disliked by both the groups. (viii) The occupational values preferred by parents and students were security and social service, respectively.

342. HOSSAIN, M.D., *A Study of the Problems of Introducing Universal Primary Education System in Bangladesh*, Ph.D. Edu., Del. U., 1978

The main objective of the study was to identify the different problems from various areas, namely, economic, social, environmental, geographical, religious, administrative and political, for introducing universal primary education. The hypothesis framed was that the problems pertaining to different areas were perceived as equally important by family heads, drop-out head teachers, education officers and teacher educators.

The study was mainly descriptive in nature and the survey method was followed. The sample consisted of 393 respondents belonging to different categories—

heads of families having children of ages 5 to 15 years, primary school drop-outs (age level up to 15 years), primary school head teachers, *thana* education officers, sub-divisional education officers, district inspectors of schools, district education officers, superintendents of primary training institutions, and teacher educators from teacher education institutions. Only two villages were selected for interviewing the family heads and the drop-outs. For data-collection two schedules (one for the heads of the families and another for the drop-outs of primary schools) and two questionnaires (one for the head teachers of primary schools and another for the *thana* education officers, sub-divisional education officers, district education officers, teacher educators) were developed. Statistical techniques like chi-square were used in analysing the data.

The major findings were: (i) Economic, social, environmental (home and school), geographical, religious, administrative, and political factors influenced the programme of universal provision, universal enrolment and universal retention. (ii) Besides these, poverty of the States as well as poverty of the parents were the major factors which were creating hindrances in introducing universal primary education system in Bangladesh. (iii) The problems considered to be very important were the financial difficulties of the Government, parents' inability to afford expenses on clothes, books, writing materials, medical facilities, inadequate food for their children, inadequate accommodation in classroom, weak teacher-parent relationship, difficulties due to bad communication, inadequate inspection of school by *thana* education officers, inadequate inspecting personnel and want of separate administrative structure for primary education. (iv) The problems considered to be least important were parents' feelings that education would spoil boys and they would not follow family occupation, that their children would not accept traditional culture if they got educated, girls' early marriage, and the system of heavy punishment at school.

***343. KARBASSI, A.H.**, *Social Adjustment of Iranian Students in Germany and India and Their Occupational Aspirations*, Ph.D. Soc., AMU, 1981

The objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between (i) social adjustment and occupational aspirations and (ii) factors like age, economic and social background, facilities and hindrances due to home and host governments and social adjustment of Iranian students in Germany and India.

A questionnaire in the Persian language constructed by the investigator was administered to 1,000 Iranian students in India and 1,000 Iranian students in Germany. The questionnaire attempted to seek information on their personal data, social, academic and personal problems and occupational aspirations. Chi-square test was used for the analysis of the data.

The main findings of the study were: (i) Iranian students showed more social adjustment in Germany than in India. (ii) Students belonging to middle classes studying in technical and professional courses and those supported by their parents, showed a high degree of social adjustment. (iii) Iranian students who were jobless in Iran, showed poor social adjustment. (iv) Educational aspirations of only young Iranian students varied with social adjustment.

344. KERAWALLA, G.J., *Language Problems and Policies in India and the USSR: a Comparative Approach*, NCERT, New Delhi, 1979

The objectives of the study were: (i) to identify and analyse the language problems arising in the multi-lingual societies of India and the USSR, (ii) to examine the language policies of the two countries with regard to both language learning at the various stages of education and the selection of an official language at the national and State levels, and (iii) to examine the specific conditions within which language policies were formulated, adopted and implemented in the two countries.

The study was based on the assumption that education functioned in a social context, being an integral part of the total institutional pattern and therefore influenced and was influenced by other institutions. From this assumption the working hypothesis was formulated that there were groups, not strictly educational, both within and outside the formal policy-making organization that were involved in the formulation and implementation of language policies in education. The methodology of the study was comparative, with the historical and sociological approaches adopted for analysing the data collected through library research and interviews. The aim of selecting India and the USSR for a comparative study was to examine how two countries differing in their political ideologies and type of multilingualism tackled common problems. The study was limited to the examination of historical, political and social forces influencing language problems and policies.

The major findings of the study were: (i) The nature of the language problems in India and the USSR was not

identical. (ii) Being a pan—Soviet language, Russian in the USSR did not have to step in as an official replacement for any other language, indigenous or foreign. (iii) Unlike India, the USSR gave constitutional recognition to the right to education through the mother tongue. (iv) Whereas the teaching of Russian was compulsory in all Soviet schools, this was not the case with the teaching of Hindi in India. (v) At the secondary level, in both the countries the stated policy was the study of three languages, with the exception of Russian-medium schools in the RSFSR. (vi) In both the countries the accepted policy regarding the medium of instruction in higher education was the regional language, with Russian serving as the link language in the USSR and Hindi regarded as the eventual and English the transitional link in India. (vii) In the USSR the language problem formed a part of the larger problem of Soviet nationality policy. (viii) The nature of the policy-making machinery and the process of policy-making differed in the two countries due to differences in the respective political ideologies and forms of government. (ix) At each stage and level of policy decisions, extraneous influences worked on the formulation and implementation of policies. (x) In India, various groups within and outside the formal policy-making organization were involved in policy-formulation. (xi) Interest or pressure groups like political parties, religious, linguistic or communal organizations, and academic and professional associations in India influenced the formulation and execution of policy though they did not directly take policy decisions. (xii) In the USSR, the sole *de facto* policy-making body was the CPSU, with interest groups existing and functioning within the framework of the party. (xiii) In both the countries various historical, political and socio-cultural forces had resulted in respective linguistic situations and also influenced language policies at each of the three stages of formulation, adoption and implementation. (xiv) In both the countries historical forces had created a conglomeration of diverse linguistic groups. (xv) The centralized authority and decision-making in the USSR and parliamentary democracy in India were a legacy of their respective history. (xvi) The influence of pressure groups on the language policy-making in India was the result of the political ideology and form of government. (xvii) In the single party system of the USSR, inter-party opposition was non-existent and intra-party conflict and pressure group influence were negligible. (xviii) In the USSR where the policy-formulating and implementing agencies were the same, policy implementation was easier than in India where the diverse political interests of various groups made uniform implementation of

policies difficult. (xix) Education being a state subject in India, uniform implementation of language policies, like the three language formula, was absent. (xx) Motivation played a positive role in the popularity of Russian in the USSR. (xxi) Both the countries faced the problem of recruiting qualified language teachers to implement their respective language policies.

345. KURESHI, A.A., HUSAIN, A. and BHAT-NAGAR, A., *A Cross Cultural Study of Achievement, Hope of Success and Fear of Failure among Indian and African Students*, 1978

The study attempted to measure the strength of achievement motive and the tendencies of hope of success and fear of failure among Indian and African students.

The main tool of the study was a set of six pictures taken from AAPAS Motive Test developed by Kureshi. Twenty-one African students and an equal number of Indian students were drawn by means of the matched pair technique. Matching was done with respect to such factors as socio-economic background and academic level. The t-test was used to test the significance of difference.

The major findings were: (i) African students seemed to have a stronger achievement motive than their Indian counterparts. Of the thirteen comparisons made, in only one case the difference was not found to be significant between Indian and African girls, for goal-oriented tendencies. In other comparisons the differences were significant and, in each case, African students scored higher. (ii) The thematic apperceptive responses of African students put them in a higher position in terms of both the composite and the component achievement scores. Indian students were perhaps not so faithful to their responsibilities. They appeared to be handicapped in respect of singleness of purpose and a general devotion to and involvement in duties and assignments. They seemed to entertain a feeling that their interest and involvement in studies and other pursuits perhaps did not necessarily guarantee them a bright future. (iii) African and Indian boys showed marked differences in the strength of achievement motive and also in the hopes and fears with regard to the achievement of goals. High achievement motive scores were, in each case, in favour of African students. Likewise, African girls had a stronger achievement motive than Indian girls. They were found to have a stronger threat-oriented tendencies but in their goal-oriented tendencies the two sam-

ples were alike. (iv) There was no marked difference in the hope of success between African and Indian girls. (v) African students belonging to the upper and middle socio-economic status groups were found showing a stronger desire for rare and unusual attainments than their Indian counterparts. African students appeared to be more hopeful of attaining and more fearful of losing the desired goals than the Indian students.

346. LALL, M., *Origin and Development of Education in Singapore (1819-1969)*, Ph.D. Edu., Luc. U., 1981

The enquiry was about the origin and development of education in Singapore during the period 1819-1969. The study was a historical one aiming at identifying the factors which contributed to the growth of education in the island State. The development of education in Singapore was studied under two periods — from the early beginnings up to the time Singapore remained a dependency of the British Empire, which was until the year 1959, and from 1959 when Singapore achieved a new measure of self-government to the year 1969. The study covered the development of school education, vocational technical education, science education, teacher education and higher education.

The main sources for gathering data and evidences were the primary and secondary sources available in the various government offices, the annual reports of the department of education, newspaper reports and the studies about educational development in Singapore by foreign scholars. The study divided the first period, i.e. from early beginning to 1959 into two subperiods, viz., up to 1942 when the country was attached and occupied by Japan and 1942 to 1959. In 1942, more than 70,000 students were studying in about 700 schools in a population of about one million. Education came to be viewed as an important element in the process of accelerated economic and industrial growth and a means of generating social change. In the earlier period, the difficulties encountered were socio-cultural barriers arising out of different cultural and religious backgrounds of the various nationalities in the population. Despite these difficulties, the government policy of encouraging both English and non-English schools achieved considerable success in the spread of education. The non-English schools were mainly Chinese, Tamil and Malay schools. Scholarships were provided even in private non-English schools though the government exercised some control on these non-government schools. The period 1942-45

gave a setback to the development of education during the period of occupation of the country by Japan. Again, during the post-war developments, the entire educational structure was overhauled. In 1957, legislative steps were taken providing for a national education system. Singapore Polytechnic started functioning in 1958. Following this, two autonomous universities came into existence, national library was established and adult education programme was developed. In 1961, the First Five-Year Plan for Educational Reconstruction was set in motion. The decade 1959-69 saw a rapid growth of institutions, enrolment, science, technology and the complete acceptance of universal primary education first and then a gradual shift towards secondary, vocational and adult education. School education, teacher education, vocational education, and higher education developed rapidly during 1959-69.

347. MAMMOTIL, S.J., *A Comparative Study of Secondary Education in England and Wales and India with Special Reference to Bihar*, Ph.D. Edu., Pat. U., 1977

The purpose of the study was to make a comparative study of the pattern of educational administration and finance, and the system of curriculum and examination in England and India in the background of their respective historical developments, and to derive some conclusions and suggest certain reforms in the Indian educational system, especially in Bihar.

The study involved a descriptive analysis of the historical development of the systems of education in both the countries up to the present day. The descriptive analysis was continued along with the interpretation of the present systems of administration, finance, curriculum and examination for each of the two countries in separate parts. An attempt was made to work out certain criteria of comparability between the two countries and, by the method of juxtaposition, similarities and differences in the systems of education in the above-mentioned aspects were established. A further attempt was made to formulate conclusions reached during the analysis of the systems and to put forward some suggestions which would improve the set-up of education in India, especially in Bihar. The suggestions were in the areas of administration, finance, curriculum and examination.

348. MARR, E. and GUPTA, J.K., *Image of Self, Indians and Some Other National Groups*, NCERT, 1979

The main objectives of the investigation were: (i) to examine the image of self, Indians and other national groups, viz., the English, Russians, Pakistanis, Chinese, Indians and Americans, (ii) to compare the ratings of self and Indians on a set of desirable and undesirable trait adjectives, (iii) to study the desirable and undesirable traits ascribed to the different national groups, and (iv) to study the sex difference in the self-image of the subjects.

The sample consisted of two groups of Standard XI students of high schools of Chandigarh. The first group of students comprised 98 boys and 125 girls and the second 90 boys and 138 girls. The tools used were two lists of adjectives each containing twenty desirable traits and twenty undesirable traits. The first group was asked to check the list as true to themselves and Indians and the second group was asked to check the same as applicable to the national groups. Chi-square and percentage analysis were used as statistical procedures.

The major findings were: (i) Generally, Indians were seen in a favourable light, as more than 75 per cent of students attributed eleven desirable traits to them, and only about 50 per cent students attributed three undesirable traits to them. More than 50 per cent students attributed seventeen desirable traits to Indians. (ii) Ratings of self were even more favourable. All the twenty desirable traits were checked by more than half the students, twelve traits by more than 75 per cent of them; only 25 per cent students checked all the undesirable traits as true to themselves. (iii) There was no sex difference in the self and Indians image on the traits of religiosity, hospitability, patriotism, simplicity, gentleness, generosity, practicality, and efficiency, but both boys and girls perceived themselves as more friendly, tolerant and progressive than Indians. Indians were seen as more polite and artistic than themselves by both boys and girls, and also as more peace-loving by boys. Less than 50 per cent of students saw Indians as honest, scientific-minded and intelligent. Boys and girls saw themselves as more honest and intelligent than Indians. Boys saw themselves as more scientific-minded than Indians. (iv) More than 50 per cent students saw Indians as bribe-taking, lazy and superstitious. A significantly small number of students ascribed these traits to themselves. Both boys and girls saw themselves as less greedy, mercenary, dishonest, showy, conceited, deceitful and ill-behaved. Even though there was no significant sex difference, self was seen as superior on eighteen traits by boys and on twenty-two traits by girls. Girls rated themselves superior to boys on the traits of hospitality, peace-loving, generosity and straight-forwardness, whereas boys

rated themselves higher than girls on honesty. Boys also rated themselves higher than girls on the trait of selfishness. (v) Russians were rated the highest on desirable traits, Indians second and Americans third. The highest percentage of ratings on bad traits was for Pakistanis, second for Chinese and the third for the English. On the basis of the highest ratings of adjectives for different nationals, Russians were found to be scientific-minded, progressive, intelligent, efficient and friendly; the English were seen to be intelligent, cruel, ill-behaved, selfish, conceited and progressive; Pakistanis were perceived as deceitful, aggressive, mean, cowardly and dishonest; Chinese were seen as aggressive, hot tempered, deceitful, revengeful and patriotic; Indians were perceived as religious, peace-loving, hospitable, loyal to the family and patriotic; and Americans were perceived scientific-minded, intelligent, progressive, honest and efficient.

349. NAIK, D.G., *A Study of Pupils of Anavil and Jain Families with High and Low Achievement Motivation with a View to Studying the Effects of Family Influences on Achievement Motivation*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1979

The main aim of the investigation was to study the effects of family influence variables on the acquisition of achievement motive among pupils belonging to two distinct communities, namely, Anavil Brahmins and Jains. The specific objectives were: (i) to explore the level of need achievement of pupils in relation to the community, sex, location and socio-economic status (SES), (ii) to study the differences in the need achievement of pupils belonging to the two racial groups, (iii) to study the differences in family influences in relation to the sex, location, SES and community, and (iv) to study the relationship between each family influence variable of pupils with high and low n-Ach according to the community, sex, location and SES.

The sample consisted of 400 pupils from Anavil brahmin and Jain communities. There were 204 boys and 196 girls. Half the subjects in the sample were of high SES and the remaining belonged to middle SES. A second sample consisted of parents of 224 pupils equally divided according to community, sex, location and SES. The tools used were the Thematic Apperception Test, SES scales — urban and rural — Family Influence questionnaire and an interview schedule for case studies. The main dimensions of the family influence were parental expectations for their child (F/1), parental involvement

in the decision-making process of their child (F/2), parental identification with the goals of their child (F/3), parental motivation to their child in his success as well as failure (F/4), and parental supportive behaviour to their child's independence and his achievement-related activities (F/5). The statistical analysis included the use of descriptive statistics, t-test and correlations.

The major findings were: (i) No significant difference existed between the average need achievement scores of pupils of the two communities. (ii) No sex difference existed as far as the need achievement scores of the two communities were concerned. (iii) No significant difference was found between the need achievement scores of pupils of the two communities belonging to urban and rural areas. (iv) No significant difference was found between the mean need achievement scores of pupils of high and middle SES belonging to the two communities. (v) No significant difference was found between any of the five dimensions of family influence in the case of Anavil brahmin and Jain parents. (vi) No significant difference was found on any family influence dimensions as far as sex, location and SES were concerned. (vii) There was a positive relationship between the pupils' need achievement and each of the five dimensions of family influence in the case of pupils of Anavil brahmin and Jain communities. (viii) Positive relationship existed between need achievement and family influence in the case of boys, girls, pupils of urban and rural areas and those belonging to high and middle SES.

350. PRAMOOL, S., *The Role of Teachers in Gujarat (India) and Thailand — a Comparative Study*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1979

The objectives of the investigation were: (i) to make a comparative study of the teachers' role under two cultural settings—Gujarat (India) and Thailand, (ii) to compare the degree of consensus about teachers' role among principals, teachers, teacher educators and community leaders, and (iii) to find out significant roles of teachers as expected by students.

The method employed was a descriptive survey. Data were collected from students, teachers, principals, teacher educators and community leaders from Gujarat and Thailand. Sampling was based on the random sampling technique with the final sample consisting of 220 students from Gujarat and 230 students from Thailand, 215 and 220 teachers from Gujarat and Thailand, respectively, 60 and 50 principals of secondary schools from Gujarat and Thailand, respectively, 50 teacher educators each from Gujarat and Thailand, and 55 and

50 community leaders, respectively, from Gujarat and Thailand. Questionnaires for students, teachers, principals and community leaders were used for data-collection.

The major findings were: (i) During the Vedic period, the role of teachers in India was to train students in morality, mental growth, disciplined life and spiritual knowledge, to cultivate memorization of sacred texts and to be autonomous and enjoy academic freedom. (ii) During the Buddhist period, their role was to preach dharma, and to train pupils in democratic attitudes and moral and mental discipline. (iii) During the Muslim period, their role was to cultivate fear of God, compliance with Sheriat, recitation and memorization of Koran and friendliness with people and kindness to the poor. (iv) During the British period, their role was to train and educate people to acquire modern skills and techniques, to prepare pupils for various subordinate ranks of government service and to inculcate western values and the spirit of western science. (v) During the post-Independence period, teachers are expected to develop pupils for reconstructing the nation, to develop scientific temper, to be the agents of national integration and change and modernization of society. They are expected to develop in students creative and independent thinking and to prepare them for a democratic socialist society. (vi) In Thailand, during the period 1257-1868, the role of Buddhist monks was to provide education to the people, to behave as a model for people, to be intellectual leaders of the community and to create and preserve Thai culture. (vii) During the period 1868-1931, the teachers' role was to train students for government service and to equip them with the qualities of effective citizenship. (viii) Since 1932, Thai teachers have been expected to develop love for reading and research, to train pupils to take initiative and to think freely and rationally, to develop in pupils group feeling and to help pupils to appreciate morals and ethics without being overmaterialistic. Teachers are expected to promote a democratic way of life among community and develop a sense of social justice. (ix) In both the countries the expectations of students were found to be more or less similar about teaching and teaching behaviours; if there were differences, they were in degree rather than in kind. (x) In both the countries teachers' roles are rapidly changing due to the pressure of social and economic changes. In both the countries the expected roles of teachers have assumed new dimensions and the society expected their leadership in the task of making education an effective instrument in the task of nation-building.

351. RAJ, G.S., *Attitudes and Values of Teachers in the Context of Socio-cultural Background : a Comparative Study of Expatriate Indian and Native Teachers of Ethiopia*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1981

The objectives of the investigation were : (i) to find out the value structure and teacher attitude of expatriate Indian teachers working in Ethiopia, (ii) to find out the value structure and teacher attitude of Ethiopian teachers, (iii) to study the difference between these two groups of teachers with regard to their values and attitudes, (iv) to study the difference, if any, in values and attitudes between national groups formed with regard to age, sex, teaching experience, etc., and (v) to find out the nature of social interactions between expatriate Indian teachers and native Ethiopian teachers.

From among schools in 7 out of 15 educational provinces of Ethiopia 21 schools were selected first. From each of these selected schools one Ethiopian (native) and one expatriate Indian teachers were selected to constitute the total sample. Data were collected by using Allport-Vernon-Lindzey study of values, Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and Socio-Cultural Questionnaire. The collected data were analysed by using t-test and chi-square test.

The major findings of the study were: (i) Emphasis on authoritarian attitude towards youngsters was visible in the culture of both the groups. (ii) Ethiopian teachers scored higher on theoretical, social and cultural values than Indian teachers and the difference was significant at 0.01 level. (iii) On academic and aesthetic value scores, no significant differences were found between these teachers. (iv) On religious value Indian teachers scored significantly higher than their Ethiopian counterparts.

- *352. SAHJAHAN, M., *A Comparative Study of the Need-patterns of University Students of India and Bangladesh*, Ph.D. Psy., BHU, 1982

The aims of the study were: (i) to compare the need patterns of university students of India and Bangladesh, and (ii) to adapt and standardize Tripathi's Personal Preference Schedule (TPPS) in Bengali.

The try-out form of the Bengali version of the TPPS was administered to two matched samples each consisting of 100 males and 100 females drawn from the faculties of arts, science and social science of the University of Dacca, Bangladesh. Standardization sample for the final form of the Bengali version consisted of 980 male

and 816 female students in the universities of Dacca, Chittagong and Rajshahi. For a comparative study, the sample consisted of Hindi-speaking 156 males and 220 female students studying in Patna, Allahabad, Magadh and the Banaras Hindu University and also a sample of Bengali-speaking 164 male and 185 female students of Calcutta University. For analysing the data chi-square, analysis of variance and t-test were employed.

The main findings of the study were: (i) The Bengali version of TPPS consisted of fifteen need variables, namely, achievement, deference, order, exhibition, autonomy, affiliation, intraception, succorance, dominance, abasement, nurturance, change, endurance, heterosexuality and aggression. (ii) Internal consistency of the test ranged from 0.65 to 0.93 for different subscales and stability coefficient ranged from 0.45 to 0.86. (iii) The convergent validity against TAT need system for the fifteen different subscales ranged from 0.50 to 0.88. (iv) Comparative analysis of the data obtained from Hindi-and Bengali-speaking Indian sample and Bangladesh and American samples had yielded n-dominance, n-heterosexuality and n-autonomy as universal masculinity component. (v) Universal femininity component comprised n-deference, n-affiliation, n-succorance, n-change and n-order. (vi) Bangladeshi boys had significantly higher means than the Hindi-speaking Indian boys on n-achievement, n-change, and n-heterosexuality. (vii) Indian boys had higher means on n-exhibition, n-autonomy, n-affiliation, n-intracception, n-dominance and n-aggression than Bangladeshi boys. (viii) There was no significant difference, between Indian and Bangladeshi male samples on n-deference, n-order, n-succorance, n-nurturance, n-abasement and n-endurance. (ix) Hindi-speaking Indian girls had higher means on n-autonomy, n-affiliation, n-intracception and n-dominance than their Bangladeshi counterparts, whereas the Bangladeshi girls had higher means on n-achievement, n-change and n-aggression. (x) Bangladeshi male students had scored significantly higher on n-order and n-abasement than the Bengali-speaking Indian boys whereas the Bengali-speaking Indian male students had significantly higher means on n-autonomy and n-change. (xi) Bangladeshi girls scored significantly higher on n-order, n-succorance, n-abasement and n-aggression and the Bengali-speaking Indian girls scored significantly higher than their Bangladeshi counterparts on n-affiliation and n-change. (xii) Hindi-speaking Indian males had significantly higher means on n-order, n-autonomy, n-affiliation, n-intracception, n-dominance, n-abasement and nurturance than the Bengali-speaking Indian males, whereas the Bengali-speak-

ing Indian males had significantly higher means on n-achievement, n-change, n-endurance, n-heterosexuality and n-aggression. (xiii) The Hindi-speaking Indian females had significantly higher means on n-order, n-autonomy, n-intraception, n-succorance and n-dominance than the Bengali-speaking Indian girls while the latter had significantly higher means on n-achievement, n-change and n-aggression. (xiv) Bangladeshi boys turned out to be superior to American college boys on n-order, n-succorance, n-abasement, n-nurturance, n-endurance and n-aggression. The American males, on the contrary, scored higher means on n-exhibition, n-autonomy, n-affiliation, n-intraception and n-dominance. There were no differences with regard to n-achievement, n-deference, n-change and n-heterosexuality. (xv) The Bangladeshi girls had higher means on n-achievement, n-order, n-succorance, n-abasement, n-endurance and n-aggression than the American girls whereas American girls had gained ascendance over Bangladeshi girls with regard to n-exhibition, n-affiliation, n-intraception, n-dominance and n-heterosexuality.

353. SATIT SANNAKIT, *A Comparative Study of Administrative Problems Perceived by the School Administrators at Secondary School Level in the Bangkok Metropolitan Areas and the Provincial Area of Thailand*, Ph.D. Edu., Pan. U., 1980

The major objective of the study was to compare the perception of seriousness of school administrative problems in the Bangkok Metropolitan area and the provincial area of Thailand in respect of problems pertaining to school plant, school personnel, students, instructional programme, school and community relations, and school finance.

The study was a descriptive survey research. The sample comprised 500 school administrators of government secondary schools, 250 from Bangkok Metropolitan area and 250 from the provincial area, selected randomly. The tools employed for the collection of data were interview schedules and questionnaires designed by the investigator. The data were analysed with the help of descriptive statistics.

The major findings of the study were: (i) Under the major problem of school plant, the Bangkok Metropolitan administrators considered playground and workshop, building and classroom, special rooms, and school site, respectively as the more serious problems in the same rank order, and the provincial area administrators considered special rooms, building and classrooms, and

playground and workshop, respectively, as the more serious ones. (ii) The two groups differed significantly in the major area of school personnel. While the Bangkok administrators perceived problems relating to recruitment, selection and transfer of teachers; and teacher or officers incharge of various services as the more serious ones, the other group gave more importance to the problems of subject teachers and school relations with the Department of General Education. (iii) Both the groups had similar views on the major problem of students. However, the problems concerning responsibilities and evaluation of the students were considered more serious by the provincial administrators. (iv) The major problem of instructional programme elicited identical views from both the groups of respondents, with both giving 'moderate' rating to three out of the six sub-groups of problems, and 'low' rating to the remaining three. (v) Out of the ten sub-problems, under the major group of school and community relation problems, three were perceived as more serious by the provincial administrators. These were: (a) the community does not appreciate the philosophy and purpose of the school, (b) the community feels difficult and inconvenient to contact the school authorities, and (c) parents do not consult school authorities about the problems of their wards. One problem perceived as more serious by the Bangkok administrators was that the teachers never participated in the activities of the community. Other six problems were not considered very serious ones by both the groups. (vi) All the four sub-groups of problems under the major head of school finance, got 'moderately serious' rating from both the groups of respondents. Two out of the four, namely, (a) tuition fee not sufficient for educational expenditure needs, and (b) lower budgetary allocations for library, medical and science laboratory equipment, sports, teaching aids, material for guidance, etc., were considered 'much serious' problems by the provincial administrators.

354. SHAFIQ UL ISLAM, A.K.M., *An Experimental Study in Teacher Training Programme with Microteaching Approach in Bangladesh*, Ph.D. Edu., MSU, 1980

The main objectives of the investigation were: (i) to study the feasibility of microteaching as an innovative technique in the Bangladesh conditions, (ii) to study the effectiveness of microteaching technique in the acquisition of teaching skills, namely, skill of stimulus variation, skill of reinforcement, skill of probing questioning,

skill of introducing a lesson and the general teaching competence amongst student teachers, and (iii) to inquire into the effect of microteaching approach on the attitude of student-teachers towards teaching.

The study was conducted in two phases—pilot and final. The pilot study was conducted on a sample of twenty-eight student-teachers enrolled at the Teachers' Training College, Feni, Noakhali, Bangladesh, for the session 1978-79. The final study was conducted on thirty-two student-teachers. The total sample was divided into two matched groups by pairing on the basis of their intelligence. Experimental group was exposed to the instructional materials on the four teaching skills whereas the controlled group was acquainted with the technical skills of teaching coupled with the traditional teaching programme. Data were collected with the help of Observation Schedules for observing the different skills, Madhukar Patel's Intelligence Test, Ahluwalia's Teacher Attitude Inventory Baroda General Teaching Competency Scale and the Attitude Scale Towards Microteaching. The obtained data were analysed by employing analysis of covariance.

The major findings were: (i) The attitude of student-teachers towards microteaching was favourable and it was feasible to train teachers through microteaching technique in Bangladesh conditions. (ii) Student-teachers exposed to the treatment of skill-based instructional materials, synchronized with microteaching technique for the skills of stimulus variation, reinforcement, probing questioning and introducing a lesson, scored higher in the acquisition of the respective skills than the student-teachers exposed to the traditional practice teaching programme. (iii) Student-teachers exposed to the treatment of skill-based instructional materials synchronized with microteaching technique scored higher in the acquisition of the general teaching competence than the student-teachers exposed to the traditional practice teaching programme and they also indicated more favourable attitude towards teaching than their counterparts.

355. SIRIRASSAMEE, T., *A Comparative Study of the Higher Education System in Thailand and India*, Ph.D. Edu., Bom. U., 1980

The main objectives of the study were: (i) to describe the historical development of higher education in India and Thailand, (ii) to analyse the similarity and difference in the teaching and learning community in the two

countries, and (iii) to describe the innovative programmes in higher education in the two countries.

Data were collected through questionnaires and an interview schedule and analysed through the statistical techniques of chi-square and contingency coefficient. The sampling was stratified and purposive and two universities were selected for study from each country.

The major findings of the study were: (i) Higher education in India and Thailand was influenced by the West. (ii) The long period of change and development in Indian universities had created complex problems of higher education, which was not the case in Thailand where higher education had expanded only recently. (iii) In India many education commissions had been appointed; however, no such commission had been appointed in Thailand. (iv) The administration of higher education in India was more complex than in Thailand. (v) Thai universities were only unitary, teaching and residential whereas Indian universities were federal, affiliating, teaching, unitary and residential. (vi) Private colleges in Thailand were fewer in number than in India. (vii) There were fewer male teachers in Thailand than in India. (viii) Indian teachers had higher qualifications than teachers in Thailand. (ix) Indian teachers had more teaching experience than their counterparts. (x) The teaching load of Thai teachers was less than that of Indian teachers. (xi) Teachers in both the countries were dissatisfied with the curriculum they taught. (xii) More Thai teachers believed in the validity of the examination than teachers in India. (xiii) Less than half the teachers in both the countries did research work. (xiv) Most teachers in both the countries used the lecture method. (xv) There was a significant difference in the composition of Thai and Indian students.

356. SREENIVASAN, A., *A Comparative Study of the Development of Primary Education in Rural and Urban Areas in the State of Karnataka (since 1956)*, Ph.D. Edu., Mys. U., 1979

The study intended to trace and compare developmental trends in primary education in the rural and urban areas in the State of Karnataka during the period 1956-74 in respect of changes in (i) the enrolment situation, (ii) schooling facilities, (iii) the teaching force, and (iv) expenditure and to project the growth of primary education in Karnataka, in the rural and urban areas for the decade 1975-85.

To study and compare trends in respect of enrolment, schooling facilities, teaching force and expenditure on

primary education, the entire period under study was divided into four specific intervals which approximately corresponded to the Five-Year Plan periods. Time series data on the above mentioned aspects were collected from official records and documents. Trends in each of the four aspects dealt were analysed by computing a set of quantitative measures.

The major findings of the study were: (i) A slightly higher annual rate of growth in enrolment was recorded in rural areas (7.48 per cent) than in urban areas (6.89 per cent). (ii) The rate of enrolment growth of girls consistently exceeded that of boys during the different intervals in rural parts while the situation was *vice versa* in the case of urban parts except during the interval IV. (iii) A gradual upward trend in respect of enrolment per 1,000 population was noticed in the State (from 96 to 133), in rural areas (from 81 to 116), and in urban areas in the first two intervals (from 148 to 197) followed by a fall in the third interval and again an increase in the fourth interval. (iv) Consistently higher enrolment of boys per 1,000 population than that in the case of girls was noticed. Urban parts recorded a much smaller difference than rural area. (v) A gradual increase in Primary Enrolment Ratio (PER) was noticed in the State and in rural and urban parts. (vi) The PER for boys was consistently more than that for girls in the State and in the rural and urban parts as well. (vii) The average annual rate of increase in the number of schools decreased from interval to interval in the State as well as in urban and rural parts. (viii) The rate of increase in the number of primary schools was not in tune with the rate of increase in the enrolment. (ix) The average size of the primary school had gradually increased in the State as a whole, and in rural and urban parts as well. (x) A marked improvement in the availability of primary schools from the point of view of serving smaller geographical units was there in the State and in urban and rural parts, and it was more marked in rural parts than in urban parts. (xi) Though the percentage of higher primary schools increased in the State and urban and rural areas, the increase was more marked in urban parts than in rural parts of the State. (xii) The rate of supply of teachers in primary schools was not in tune with the rate of increase in enrolment in the State as well as in urban and rural parts. (xiii) The recurring cost per pupil enrolled in primary schools increased in the State and in urban and rural areas and it was higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

357. SUWANNACHAIROP, S., *The Educational Needs and Problems in Rural Community of Isaan,*

the Northeastern Part of Thailand, and Tackling Those Problems to the Community Satisfaction through the Teacher Education Programme for Elementary Schools, Ph.D. Edu., Pan. U., 1980

The major hypotheses of the study were: (i) The rural community of Isaan had its own general problems, educational needs, and educational problems which were considered less serious by the rural people than by the experts. (ii) The teacher education programme had several short-comings. (iii) A desirable teacher education programme could be developed to tackle the educational problems in the rural community of Isaan, to their satisfaction.

The sample of the study had two groups; the first group consisted of 500 rural people selected randomly from 250 sub-districts of Isaan, and the second group having six subgroups of experts, comprised 500 elementary school teachers, 500 teacher trainees and 500 teachers selected from six teacher training colleges, 50 educational administrators, 50 educational supervisors and 50 community development workers. Data were collected with the help of three questionnaire-cum-rating scales prepared by the investigator for rural people, for college students and teachers, and for the remaining four subgroups. Statistical techniques of chi-square test, t-test and F-test were used for analysing the data.

The major findings of the study were: (i) Both the rural people and the experts perceived three categories of general problems, namely, agricultural and economic, health and hygiene, and social and political, in the same sequential order. (ii) These three categories included twenty-two problems, out of which three were considered equally serious by both the groups, eight by the rural people only, and twelve by the experts. (iii) In general, agricultural problems were lack of the latest know-how, natural calamities, inadequate land and marketing facilities, and non-utilization of available land. Health and hygiene problems were the shortage of food, doctors and water supply, and the unhygienic way of life of the rural people. The social and political problems were lack of adequate political knowledge and general insecurity. (iv) The rural people had specific educational needs based on the same three categories of general problems which they thought could be met with the right type of education. Here, too, the rural people and the experts differed in the perception of seriousness of these needs. (v) Both the experts and the rural people perceived ten educational problems but the seriousness attached to them differed. These related generally to low literacy rate, irrelevant curriculum, inefficient and

insufficient number of teachers and lack of adult education programmes. (vi) Teacher education programmes exhibited many lapses, such as wrong admission policies, inefficient teachers, defective teaching-learning methodology, unsuitable syllabus and wrong weightage attached to different teaching subjects, and in the impact of the programme on promoting the professional quality among students. These shortcomings were agreed on by both the groups. (vii) The teacher education programme should be adjusted to the three categories of general problems in the rural community.

358. YODSUWAN, V., *A Study of Factors Affecting In-service Education Programme of Teacher Education Programme in Thailand*, Ph.D. Edu., SPU, 1980

The major objectives of the investigation were: (i) to study the present position of in-service programme of teacher education in Thailand, (ii) to study the organizational pattern and evaluation system of in-service education in that country, (iii) to study the factors helping and obstructing the in-service programme, (iv) to study the attitude of Thai teachers towards the teaching profession and in-service programme, (v) to study the efficacy of different methods for in-service education, and (vi) to

study the value system of Thai teachers and Thai citizens.

The investigator utilized a questionnaire, an opinionnaire, an interview schedule, attitude scales and a value judgement inventory. The sample for the study consisted of 376 teacher educators, twenty administrators from the department of teacher training and twenty-two administrators from the teacher council for responding to the questionnaire as well as 315 teachers from various regions, 611 teachers as respondents for the scale on the attitude towards the teaching profession, 593 teachers from various regions for measuring the attitude towards in-service programme and 284 teachers and 105 citizens to study the value system.

The major findings of the study were: (i) The data supported the in-service programme. (ii) The incentives were effective. (iii) The organizational structure was conducive to the programme. (iv) There was lack of properly trained personnel. (v) The theoretical framework was weak. (vi) Lack of trained personnel and follow-up work and lack of research were the obstructing factors. (vii) Teachers' attitude towards the teaching profession was positive but slightly lower than their attitude towards in-service education. (viii) Teachers and citizens of Thailand showed higher scores for economic and social values than for aesthetic and political values. Theoretical and religious values were the lowest.