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Chapter-02

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2.1 Introduction

Effective research is based upon the past knowledge, this step helps us to eliminate the duplication of what has been done and provides useful hypothesis and helpful suggestion for significant investigation.

In research methodology the term ‘literature’ refers to the knowledge of particular area of the investigation of any discipline which includes conceptual and concrete knowledge and its research studies.

The term ‘review’ means to organize the knowledge of the specific area of research to evolve and edifice of knowledge to show that his study would be an addition to his field, the task of review of literature is highly creative and tedious because researcher has to synthesis the available knowledge of the field in a unite to provide the rational of his study.

Therefore, the term "review of related literature" means a process where researchers review some literature related to one’s study and synthesizes the available knowledge of the field in a unit in order to provide rational aspects to one’s study.

2.2 Theoretical Background

Self-concept is the way what people think about them. It is unique, dynamic, and always evolving. This mental image of oneself influences a person’s identity, self-esteeem, body image, and role in society. As a global understanding of oneself, self-
concept shapes and defines who we are, the decisions we make, and the relationships.

- **Self-Concept**

  Self-concept is an individual’s perception of self, including self-esteem, body image, and ideal self. A person’s self-concept is often defined by self-description such as “I am a mother, a nurse, and a volunteer.” Client self-descriptive statements such as these help the nurse gain insight into the client’s perception of self. The nurse should be observant for self-descriptive statements when assessing the client’s self-concept. A healthy self-concept is necessary for overall physical and mental wellness.

  Three basic components of self-concept are the ideal self, the public self and the real self. The ideal self is the person the client would like to be, such as a good, moral, and well-respected person. Sometimes, this ideal view of how a client would like to be conflicts with the real self (how the client really thinks about oneself, such as “I try to be good and do what’s right, but I’m not well respected”). This conflict can motivate a client to make changes toward becoming the ideal self. However, the view of the ideal self needs to be realistic and obtainable or the client may experience anxiety or be at risk for alterations in self-concept.

  Public self is what the client thinks others think of him and influences the ideal and real self. Positive self-concept and good mental health results when all three components are compatible. A positive self-concept is an important part of a client’s happiness and success. Individuals with a positive self-concept have self-confidence and set goals they can achieve. Achieving their goals reinforces their positive self-concept. A client with a positive self-
concept is more likely to change unhealthy habits (such as sedentary lifestyle and smoking) to promote health than a client with a negative self-concept.

A person’s self-concept is composed of evolving subjective conscious and unconscious self-assessments. Physical attributes, occupation, knowledge, and abilities of the person will change throughout the life span, contributing to changes in one’s self concept.

There are a variety of ways to think about the self. The most widely used term is self-concept and generally refers to the totality of a complex, organized, and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence.

Franken (1994)\textsuperscript{1} states that

“There is a great deal of research which shows that the self-concept is, perhaps, the basis for all motivated behavior. It is the self-concept that gives rise to possible selves, and it is possible selves that create the motivation for behavior we develop and maintain our self-concept through the process of taking action and then reflecting on what we have done and what others tell us about what we have done. We reflect on what we have done and can do in comparison to our expectations and the expectations of others and to the characteristics and accomplishments of others. That is, self-concept is not innate, but is developed by the individual through interaction with the environment and reflecting on that interaction.”

There are a several different components of self-concept: physical, Academic, social, and transpersonal. The physical aspect
of self-concept relates to that which is concrete: what we look like, our sex, height, weight, etc.; what kind of clothes we wear; what kind of car we drive; what kind of home we live in; and so forth. Our academic self-concept relates to how well we do in school or how well we learn. There are two levels: a general academic self-concept of how good we are overall and a set of specific content related self-concepts that describe how good we are in math, science, language arts, social science, etc.

The social self-concept describes how we relate to other people and the transpersonal self-concept describes how we relate to the supernatural or unknowns.

Educational Psychology is a combination or overlapping of two separate fields of study. The first is psychology, which can be defined as the scientific study of the mind and behavior (or behavior and mental processes) especially as it relates to individual human beings. Note that it is the scientific study of mind or mental processes (covert or internal) as well as behavior (overt or external). People who study psychological phenomena are not necessarily limited to the study of human beings. (a large body of research relating to animals has been developed) Nor are they limited to only studying individuals. However, when studying groups of individuals, the focus is generally on how individuals perform within the group rather that the study of the group as a whole.

Scientists who study animals and people in terms of group and institutional behavior generally align themselves with sociology while individuals who focus on human culture and belief systems generally align themselves with anthropology.
Components of Self-Concept

This dynamic aspect of self-concept (and, by corollary, self-esteem) is important because it indicates that it can be modified or changed.

Franken (1994)² states

“There is a growing body of research which indicates that it is possible to change the self-concept. Self-change is not something that people can wish but rather it depends on the process of self-reflection. Through self-reflection, people often come to view themselves in a new, more powerful way, and it is through this new, more powerful way of viewing the self that people can develop possible selves”

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The relationship of self-concept to school achievement is very specific. General self-concept and non-academic aspects of
self-concept are not related to academic work; general academic achievement measures are related moderately to academic success.

Specific measures of subject-related self-concepts are highly related to success in that content area. If academic achievement leads to self-concept, but self-concept is a better predictor of being a low-track or high-track student, it would appear that there is some intervening variable. It’s mean the intervening variable is personal expectations.

Gage and Berliner (1992), the research on the relationship between self-concept and school achievement suggests that measures of general or even academic self-concept are not significantly related to school achievement. It is at the level of very specific subjects (e.g., reading, mathematics, science) that there is a relationship between self-concept and academic success. This suggests that success in a particular subject area is not really changing one’s self-concept but rather is impacting one’s expectation about future success based on one’s past experience.

There is much discussion about what young people should do in their childhood and youth to prepare them for success in adulthood. Once we have determined the desired end results or the prerequisites for success, we need to determine the means or the conditions by which those can be brought about. Education and schooling are two terms that are often associated with these conditions.

Factors That Influence Self-Concept

The development of self-concept is through the learning process since childhood. A child surrounding, experiences and the style of parental upbringing also contribute a significant influence
towards the development of self-concept. A child evaluate who they are through the response of their parents in every action that taken. If a child live in a confused and negative parental upbringing, as a result this child tend to develop negative self-concept. Negative parental upbringing can be shown through beating without mercy, neglecting, paying less attention, unfairness, humiliating and unsatisfactory towards their child’s attitude. When this occurs, they will assume these as a punishment caused by their fault or stupidity. On the contrary, a positive parental upbringing will develop a positive self-concept. Self-concept is something very dynamic that can change from time to time. Some aspects of self-concept remain for a long period but others can turn the opposite way in few seconds. There are factors that influence the process of the development of self-concept. The style of parental upbringing that has been mentioned before is a significant factor. Positive parental upbringing and attitude read by their children can develop a positive thinking and self-appreciation to themselves. Negative parental attitude create the assumption that a child is not appreciated and loved by their parent because of his self-weakness. The second factor is continuous failure in a child life. In this case, failure can be defined as unsuccessfully to please their parent or themselves. A continuous failure in a child life making him feels that they are useless. Gradually, negative self-concept is developed in this child. On the other hand, a positive self-concept is developed if a child sees failure is an opportunity for him to improve himself in every aspect of decision-making.

The next factor is depression. People who suffer from depression tend to think and response negatively towards
everything including evaluating themselves. They are wondering whether they can survive throughout their life. They can be super sensitive to what other people say about them or act towards them.

Last but not least, internal self-critic is another factor that influence the process of the development of self-concept. We cannot deny that internal self-critic is needed to evaluate every action and decision that we take in our life. Internal self-critic functioned as a regulator in every action taken and how we behave so that we can be accepted by the society around us and can adapt well within the society.

**Developing a Positive Self-Concept**

As mentioned before that self-concept is something very dynamic, there are few steps can be taken to have a positive self-concept. First, we must behave objectively in knowing ourselves. No matter how small the achievement or positive experience that we possess it must be appreciated. We must try to enhance our talent and self-potential. As it says, ‘You can’t be all things to all people, you can’t do all things at once, and you just do the best you could in every way.’ Secondly, we must know and always appreciate ourselves. There is no other person that can appreciate us more that ourselves. People who know how to appreciate themselves are the one that can see all the good and positive things within them and other people. So, if can appreciate other people, we also can appreciate ourselves. Thirdly, never be an enemy to us. People tend to blame themselves when conflicts arise between ideal expectation and the real self. When we become the enemy to ourselves, we can hardly see the good and positive side of ourselves. Gradually, they are mentally exhausted, frustrated and
develop negative self-concept. The final step is to have a positive and rational thinking. The Buddha says, ‘We are what we think. All that we are arises with our thoughts. With our thoughts, we make the world.’ How powerful is our mind! The power of our thoughts depends a lot on how we think. If we can develop positive and rational thoughts, we are developing a positive self-concept. A positive self-concept person usually is a winner but a negative self-concept person is always a loser.

What is the Self?

In order to convey my understanding of the nature of self-esteem, I must first make clear my view on the evolutionary development of the human self. There is general acceptance that many of the capacities we experience as part of a unified self are features that distinguish us from even our closest evolutionary cousins. Thus, providing a coherent, evolutionary account of the self would aid in understanding our uniquely human character. However, the first step in providing such an account, agreement on a definition of the self, has proven difficult. There appears to be more consensus as to the psychological processes that involve the self than the exact nature of the self, per se. There is some agreement that the self is involved in at least three main processes: reflexive capacity (the ability to depict oneself in relation with one’s environment), representational capacity (the ability to mentally represent personal attributes), and executive function (the ability to exert control over one’s thoughts, feelings, and behaviors). Any definition of the self should account for a common thread among these processes.
Mischel and Morf (2003) account for the multiple aspects of the self by defining the self as a cognitive-affective-action system in combination with an interpersonal self-construction system. The first part of this definition is problematic for considering the uniquely human self, given that a wide range of species could be argued to have cognitions, emotions, and behaviors. However, the ability to cognitively construct features such as identity and personal standards may well represent a uniquely human characteristic. Leary and Tangney (2003) define the self-more narrowly, “as the apparatus that allows organisms to think consciously about themselves”. Indeed, it would be impossible to construct aspects of the self. Such as identity without representations of the self being available to awareness. Thus, I define the self as mechanisms that allow for thoughts about one’s own conscious experience and information processing rules for combining the products of self-thought into higher-order cognitive constructions.

Considered in this way, the self can be seen to share important features with other uniquely human characteristics. Corballis (2002) argues that the key capacity differentiating humans from other animals is the ability to use recursive information processing rules that result in generative cognitive abilities. Specifically, recursive processing involves feeding the output of a given process or function back as the input for a repeated run of the process or function. Recursive rules govern the combination of outputs into larger constructions. Recursive information processing rules allow humans to combine cognitive representations to create an unbounded set of novel ideas. For
example, Chomsky (1966) demonstrated how this process underlies language ability, with grammar providing the combinatorial rules for linguistic generatively. As we learn language we learn combinatorial rules: phonemes are combined into words, words into phrases, and phrases into sentences. These combinations allow for emergent properties to arise from combinations of old ideas that result in new ideas. For example, the words green and house, when combined into the word greenhouse, represent a concept not represented by the individual words. The potential for such combinations at the sentence level is infinite. Similarly, recursive rules allow the 10 commonly used numeric symbols to be combined to represent an infinite number of values (Chomsky, 1988). Further, simple tools (e.g., the wheel) are combined with themselves and others to create highly complex machines (e.g., the automobile) (Corballis, 2002).

Chomsky (1966) referred to this capacity to combine cognitive representations as generativity, although it might also be useful to consider it as a story-telling or meaning-making ability. Humans are able to combine mental representations that would remain isolated for other animals to construct a meaningful, integrative narrative. Such recursive information processing can be used to explain the three self-processes described earlier. First, recursive information processing provides for self-awareness by feeding the output of awareness back as input to awareness, thus producing an awareness of awareness. Second, recursive rules permit a meta-representation of the awareness of self. Beings are able to represent the representation of self as a representation; we understand that thoughts about the self are
symbols that can be manipulated. Third, this meta-representation of self can then be combined with other cognitive representations, resulting in cognitive constructions that allow us to imagine ourselves into different states than our current state. These constructions based on meta-representation allow us to imagine previous and possible selves (Suddendorf & Corballis, 1997) that serve as standards for self-comparison and self-regulation.

Thus, the evolution of fundamental capacities underlying the uniquely human self can be explained by one evolutionary development—recursive information processing rules (Corballis, 2002). This analysis suggests that self-related abilities developed not just because the self-provided evolutionary advantage, but because recursive rules augmented a variety of prehuman capabilities (e.g., communication, tool use). One satisfying aspect of this explanation of the evolution of the self is that it is highly parsimonious. Any explanation of uniquely human characteristics must account for the fact that there is very little genetic difference between modern humans and chimpanzees, our closest genetic relatives (Corballis, 2002). There are a number of non-psychological distinctions between humans and our closest ancestors, such as upright posture and lack of body hair, that must be accounted for by genetic differences. The very slight, remaining difference in genetic composition between humans and chimpanzees argues in favor of parsimonious evolutionary theories of the development of uniquely human psychological capacities.

The argument that the self-arises from recursive information processing has important implications for the notion of self-related motives. This argument suggests that the self represents uniquely
human cognitive abilities, motivational drives. For example, Corballis (2002) suggests that recursive processing is associated with larger human frontal lobes relative to nonhuman primates, rather than some change in midbrain structures that are more closely associated with base motivational drives. Thus, rather than creating new motivations, the self should be considered to provide complex elaborations of those motives we share with nonhuman primates (e.g., survival, energy intake, reproduction). As Leary and Tangney (2003) note, “…it may be more parsimonious to conclude that emotional and motivational systems are intimately linked to the self but are not an inherent part of it”. In this sense, the self is a cognitive-affective-action system (Mischel&Morf, 2003) only insofar as it moderates drives shared with nonhuman animals through its capacity for reflection and construction. Aspects of self-regulation such as personal standards should be seen as cognitive constructions that ultimately serve to satisfy these base motivations. This point is particularly important in understanding the nature of self-esteem.

2.3 Review of Related Literature

An essential part of the research is the review of related literature, which serves to place the current study in a chronological as well as a theoretical context. The review of related studies involves locating, studying and evaluating reports of relevant researches and articles, published research abstracts, journals, encyclopedias etc. The investigator needs to acquire up-to-date information about what has been thought and done in a particular area. The researcher draws maximum benefits from the previous investigations, utilizes the previous findings, takes many
hints from designs and procedures of previous researches and formulates an outline for future research. The review of related studies provides the insight into the methods, measures etc., employed by others in the particular area. It provides ideas, theories, explanations, hypotheses of research, valuable in formulating and studying the problem at hand. It also furnishes indispensable suggestions related to the problem and already employed techniques to the researcher. Unless it is learnt what others have done and still remains to be done in the area, one can’t develop a research project and could contribute to furthering knowledge in the field. In fact, the review of related literature serves multiple purposes and is essential to well-designed research study. In the process of reviewing the literature, the investigator is alert for finding out research approaches in the area that have proved to be sterile. However, for reviewing the related literature in an objective and scientific manner, the present investigator has followed a flowchart of related activities in the review of related literature presented by Weirsma (1991), the flowchart is as under.

2.4 Studies Related to Self-Concept

Lenney & Orono (1977) highlighted previous reviewers who have suggested that women display lower self-concept than men across almost all achievement situations. The empirical validity of this suggestion is assessed. The literature indicates that although low self-concept is indeed a frequent and potentially debilitating problem among women, they are not lower in self-concept than men in all achievement situations. Instead, it is argued that the nature of this sex difference depends upon such situation variables as the specific ability area, the availability of performance
feedback, and the emphasis placed upon social comparison or evaluation. It is concluded that future research must more precisely identify the variables that influence women's self-concept.

Konvalina (1981) investigated self-assessment, achievement, and confidence in basic mathematics skills. Thirty college students enrolled in a self-paced developmental mathematics course were randomly assigned to either an experimental group that performed a written self-assessment before each test, or to a control group that did not perform the written self-assessment. No significant differences were found between the groups in achievement or general confidence in basic mathematical skills. However, the experimental group consistently had a higher confidence mean over a 25-item basic skills inventory and scored higher on a significant proportion of skills. A highly significant correlation was found between skill confidence and achievement over the 25 basic skills for the combined groups. A significant correlation was found between group confidence and group achievement for the experimental group, but not for the control group.

Verma (1990) aims to analyze the sex differences in risk-taking, self-confidence and anxiety among adolescent learners. His sample consisted of 200 adolescents with equal number of male and female students studying in class X, selected randomly from different institutions of Behror in Alwar District in Rajasthan. Results indicate that male adolescent learners showed higher mean risk-taking than female adolescent learners. Male adolescent learners possessed significantly higher self-concept than female
adolescents. Female adolescent learners had significantly more anxiety than male adolescent learners.

Benabou & Tirole (2002) in this paper analyzes the self-identification process and its role in motivation. They build a model of self-concept where people have imperfect knowledge about their ability, which in most tasks is a complement to effort in determining performance. Higher self-concept thus enhances motivation, and this creates incentives for the manipulation of self-perception. An individual suffering from time-inconsistency may thus want to enhance the self-concept of his future selves, so as to limit their procrastination. The benefits of confidence maintenance must, however, be traded off against the risks of overconfidence (inappropriate tasks being pursued). Moreover, rational inference implies that the individual cannot systematically fool himself. A first application of the model is self-handicapping: to avoid a negative inference about their ability, people may deliberately impair their performance, or choose overambitious tasks. Another application is selective memory or awareness management: people are (endogenously) more likely to remember or consciously acknowledge their successes than their failures. This, in turn, helps explain the widely documented prevalence of self-serving beliefs -- that is, the fact that most people have overoptimistic assessments of their own abilities and other desirable traits. We analyze the workings of this "psychological immune system" and show that it typically leads to multiple equilibria in cognitive strategies, self-confidence, and behavior. Moreover, while active self-esteem maintenance can improve exacta welfare, it can also be self-defeating. Systematically "looking on the bright side", avoiding
"negative" thoughts and people, etc., can thus be beneficial in certain environments; but in other circumstances one can only lose by playing such games with oneself, and it would be better to always "accept who you are" and "be honest with yourself".

Klassen (2002) conducted a study which examined the self and collective efficacy beliefs of Indo-Canadian and Anglo Canadian early adolescent students. The research participants included 112 Anglo-Canadian and 158 Indo-Canadian (children of Punjabi Sikh immigrants) grade 7 students. On a 22-item measure of math performance, the Indo-Canadian students earned a significantly higher score than the Anglo-Canadian students and also rated their self-efficacy at a higher level. There were no differences between the groups in terms of calibration of self-efficacy and performance. In a multiple regression analysis, self-efficacy was the only motivation variable that predicted math performance for both groups. For the Anglo-Canadian students previous math grade was the only other significant predictor of performance; for the Indo-Canadian students, math self-concept was the other significant predictor. Of the hypothesized four sources of efficacy beliefs, emotional arousal was the strongest predictor of efficacy for both cultural groups. Past performance was the next strongest predictor for Anglo-Canadians, while for the Indo-Canadian students, vicarious experience was the second significant predictor of self-efficacy. For the sample as a whole, the students who were most accurate in their calibration performed at a higher level than students who under-estimated or overestimated their performance. For the group task, collective efficacy was the best predictor of group performance for the Anglo-Canadians,
whereas previous math grade predicted group performance more strongly for the Indo-Canadians. Counter to predictions of higher overall collectivism, the Indo-Canadians displayed higher levels of vertical individualism and vertical collectivism than the other group. Implications of the influence of the vertical aspect of IndoCanadians on self-appraisal are discussed.

Stoel et al. (2003)\textsuperscript{10} presented Latent growth curve (LGC) analysis of longitudinal data for pupils' school investment, self-concept and language ability. A multivariate model is tested that relates the three developmental processes to each other and to intelligence. All processes show significant differences between children in their developmental curves. The increase in language ability and the decrease in school investment correspond with the hypotheses. No hypothesis is formulated about self-concept, but an increase for some and a decrease for others are found. The hypothesis that development in language ability, school investment, and self-concept are mutually positively associated is supported, as is the hypothesis that intelligence accounts for some of the differences in language ability. School investment, self-concept, and intelligence each explain a different part of development in language ability.

Tuckman (2003)\textsuperscript{11} conducted this study which was based on an educational psychology-based “study skills” program: Strategies-for-Achievement, originally developed to teach learning and motivation strategies to college students, was modified for use by high school students. It involved teaching students four achievement strategies: take reasonable risk, take responsibility, search the environment, and use feedback. Each was divided into
two sub strategies, and used to teach students to overcome procrastination, build self-concept and responsibility, manage their lives, learn from lecture and text, and prepare for exams. The training was provided as a course taught using a “blended” technology-based instructional model called ‘Active Discovery and Participation through Technology’ (ADAPT). Students who took the training course earned significantly higher grade point averages in comparison to a matched group, during the term they took the course.

Jones & Caston (2004) investigated how cooperative learning promoted the academic success of elementary African American males in grades 3 through 6 in a rural school in Mississippi. This study presents viewpoints based on these students' perception of what influenced academic achievement. The qualitative study using a qualitative analyzed interview data gathered in approach to collecting data, participants’ engaged 6 face-to-face interviews with 16 African-American males over a 3month period during the 2002-2003 academic school year. Participants represented 16 elementary African American males. All students were regular education students who ranged between the ages of 8 and 13 years old. The participants were interviewed focused on topics related to home and school experiences and on how these two environments affected their academic success. It was evident of the significance cooperative learning had on their desire to learn. Cooperative learning was found to be a Results of this study indicated that was primary among the factor promoting that promoted these students" their academic success. The results further indicated that among the factors thought to inhibit their
academic success. Findings showed that those African American males who had limited literacy activities did not perform as well academically as the students who did.

**Hannula et al. (2004)** with the help of this paper presents some preliminary results of the longitudinal aspect of a research project on self-concept and understanding in mathematics. They collected a survey data of 3057 fifth graders and seventh-graders and a follow-up data of ten classes (191 pupils) one and a half years later. The longitudinal data indicates that the learning of mathematics is influenced by a pupil’s mathematics-related beliefs, especially self-concept. Pupils’ level of understanding fractions also influences their developing understanding of infinity. These relationships between different variables depend also on pupils’ gender and age.

**Chang & Cheng (2008)** studied the interrelationship between senior high school students' science achievement (SA) and their self-concept and interest in science (SCIS) was explored with a representative sample of approximately 1,044 11th-grade students from 30 classes attending four high schools throughout Taiwan. Statistical analyses indicated that a statistically significant correlation existed between students' SA and their SCIS with a moderate effect size; the correlation is even higher with almost large effect sizes for a subsample of higher-SCIS and lower-SCIS students. Results of t-test analysis also revealed that there were significant mean differences in students' SA and their knowledge (including physics, chemistry, biology, and earth sciences subscales) and reasoning skill subtests scores between higher-SCIS and lower-SCIS students, with generally large effect sizes.
Stepwise regression analyses on higher-SCIS and lower-SCIS students also suggested that both students’ SCIS subscales significantly explain the variance of their SA, knowledge, and reasoning ability with large effect sizes.

**Alias & Hafir (2009)** investigated to determine the relationship between type of confidence inducing stimulus, academic self-concept and cognitive performance among engineering students. The study samples consisted of two groups of engineering students from a Malaysian polytechnic. The type of confidence inducing stimulus (positive or negative) was the independent variable, cognitive performance was the dependent variable and ASC was the hypothesized mediating variable. The results indicate that the positive group has statistically significantly higher ASC level (3.08) compared to the negative group (2.67) and the positive group also demonstrates a statistically significantly higher cognitive performance compared to the negative group; 71% and 54% respectively. It is concluded that boosting the ASC of engineering students can enhance their cognitive performance.

**Vealey & Campbell (2010)** conducted this study to (a) determine what achievement goal orientations are present in adolescent figure skaters, (b) examine the relationship between the goal orientations conceptualized by Maehr and Nicholls (1980) and those conceptualized by Vealey (1986), and (c) investigate the influence of different goal orientations on the precompetitive self-concept, precompetitive anxiety, and actual performance of adolescent skaters. Subjects included 106 youth figure skaters participating in regional competition. Skaters were found to have two achievement goal orientations which were termed extrinsic and
task orientations. Some support was found for the relationship between the achievement orientations and the sport confidence/competitive orientation constructs of Vealey. Also, a multivariate relationship was supported between the sport confidence/achievement orientation predictor constructs and the self-concept, anxiety, and performance of adolescent figure skaters in sport competition.

2.5 Studies Related to Academic Achievement

Bentley et al. (1980) examined relationship between perceived sources of stress and academic achievement in order to determine if reactions to stress and methods of coping with stress were related to academic achievement. Freshman and sophomore junior college students completed Form III of the Floyd-Steyert Life Stress Inventory to measure three categories of stress self-report: sources of stress, emotional and physiological responses to stress, and methods chosen to cope with or adapt to stress. Several sources of stress (physical handicaps, chronic illness, in-laws, financial assistance, parents, living arrangements, irrelevant courses, instructors, academic advisement), responses to stress (dry throat, diarrhea, aggravation, back pains, fatigue), and methods of coping (running away, hobbies, drinking) appeared to affect academic achievement. Results suggest that perceived stress is related to academic achievement.

Worland et al. (1984) conducted this investigation in which intelligence, academic achievement, and classroom behavior of 158 children were assessed in a sample that is being followed longitudinally. The sample included children at high risk for mental disorder by virtue of having a parent with a psychiatric
diagnosis of schizophrenia or affective disorder, children at moderate risk, and children at low risk, A series of path analyses indicated that in this sample (1) classroom behavior was more likely an affect than a cause of academic achievement, and (2) the influence of parental psychopathology on classroom behavior was mediated by a child’s intelligence and academic achievement. We were unable to substantiate an unmediated causal link between parental psychopathology and children’s academic achievement or classroom behavior.

Cherian (1994)\(^9\) investigated the relationship between family reading habits and the academic achievement of 1021 Xhosa-speaking children whose mean age was 15.3 yr. A questionnaire was administered to identify each pupil's family status. Analysis of variance indicated positive and statistically significant main effects for the two variables on a reading habits score.

Bray (2001)\(^{20}\) aimed to study whether academic achievement had more of an effect on a college student’s self-esteem if that student was an Honors student versus a general student. Data were collected from 64 college students and analyzed by a 2 X 2 mixed design factorial ANOVA. Significant results agree with previous research that academic achievement and self-esteem have a positive relationship.

Tomas (2003)\(^{21}\) aimed at investigating to what extent and which personality traits predict academic performance. For this he conducted two longitudinal studies of two British university samples. Academic performance was assessed throughout a three years period and via multiple criteria (e.g., exams and final year
project). In addition several indicators of academic behavior, e.g., absenteeism, essay writing, tutors exam predictions, were also examined with regard to both academic performance and personality traits. In sample 1 (N=70), the Big Five personality factors (Costa and McCrae, 1992) particularly Neuroticism and Conscientiousness were found to predict overall final exam marks over and above several academic predictors, accounting for more than 10% of unique variance in overall exam marks. Results suggest that Neuroticism may impair academic performance, while Conscientiousness may lead to higher academic achievement. In sample 2 (N=75) the EPQ-R (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985) was used as the personality measure and results showed the three super factors were the most powerful predictor of academic performance, accounting for nearly 17% of unique variance in overall exam results. It is demonstrated that (like Neuroticism) Psychoticism could limit academic success. The present results provide evidence supporting the inclusion of well-established personality measures in academic selection procedures, and run counter to the traditional view of ability measures as the exclusive psychometric correlate of academic performance.

Parker et al. (2004) examined relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement at high school level. Total 667 students attending a high school in Huntsville, Alabama were selected as sample. At the end of the academic year the data was matched with students’ academic records for the year. When Inventory variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful students, moderately successful, and less successful
based on grade-point-average for the year), academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Rohde & Thompson (2005)\textsuperscript{23} conducted this study with an aim to explain variation in academic achievement with general cognitive ability and specific cognitive abilities. Grade point average, Wide Range Achievement Test III scores, and SAT scores represented academic achievement. The specific cognitive abilities of interest were: working memory, processing speed, and spatial ability. General cognitive ability was measured with standardized scales. When controlling for working memory, processing speed, and spatial ability, in a sample of 71 young adults (29 males), measures of general cognitive ability continued to add to the prediction of academic achievement, but none of the specific cognitive abilities accounted for additional variance in academic achievement after controlling for general cognitive ability. However, processing speed and spatial ability continued to account for a significant amount of additional variance when predicting scores for the mathematical portion of the SAT while holding general cognitive ability constant.

Kaplan et al (2005)\textsuperscript{24} tested the hypothesis that educational expectations of junior high school students in interaction with school-related stress during early adolescence would adversely affect grades during high school. Multiple regression analyses of data from home interviews of 1034 students during junior high school and 3 years later during high school supported the hypothesis that early adolescent school-related stress both independently and in interaction with high academic expectations
negatively affected academic performance 3 years later. These results suggest that for students in high stress school environments, an increase in academic expectations may serve to increase their school-related stress and impede their academic performance.

Malik & Balda (2006)\textsuperscript{25} aimed at finding if any relationship exists between psychological stress and academic achievement of high IQ adolescents. Subjects were high IQ adolescents having IQ 110 and above. Battery of Stress Scales was used to assess the amount of stress on these adolescents. Academic achievement was assessed on the basis of average of marks obtained in last three examinations. Correlation coefficients between stress scores and academic scores were computed. Academic achievement was found to be negatively and significantly correlated with all types of stress except existential stress.

Tomas & Adrin (2006)\textsuperscript{26} prepared this paper to report the results of a two-year longitudinal study of the relationship between self-assessed intelligence (SAI) and academic performance (AP) in a sample of 184 British undergraduate students. Results showed significant correlations between SAI (both before and after taking an IQ test) and academic exam marks obtained two years later, even when IQ scores were partial led out. Several continuous assessment indicators (notably attendance, oral expression, and motivation) were also significantly correlated with SAI, even when IQ scores were controlled. A series of hierarchical regressions indicated that although exam grades were best predicted by IQ, SAI showed significant incremental validity in the prediction of AP, accounting for an additional 3% of exam, 9% of continuous assessment, and 2% of essay grades.
Laidra et al. (2006) studied general intelligence and personality traits from the Five-Factor model as predictors of academic achievement in a large sample of Estonian school children from elementary to secondary school. A total of 3618 students (1746 boys and 1872 girls) from all over Estonia attending Grades 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 participated in this study. Intelligence, as measured by the Standard Progressive Matrices, was found to be the best predictor of students’ grade point average (GPA) in all grades. Among personality traits (measured by self-reports on the Estonian Big Five Questionnaire for Children in Grades 2 to 4 and by the NEO Five Factor Inventory in Grades 6 to 12), Openness, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness correlated positively and Neuroticism correlated negatively with GPA in almost every grade. When all measured variables were entered together into a regression model, intelligence was still the strongest predictor of GPA, being followed by Agreeableness in Grades 2 to 4 and Conscientiousness in Grades 6 to 12. Interactions between predictor variables and age accounted for only a small percentage of variance in GPA, suggesting that academic achievement relies basically on the same mechanisms through the school years.

Uwaifo (2008) examined the effects of family structure and parenthood on the academic performance of Nigerian university students. The sample for the study consisted of 240 students drawn from the six randomly selected faculties in Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma, Edo State. The adapted form of “Guidance and Counselling Achievement Grade Form” was used for data collection and the data collected were subjected to statistical analysis using the t-test statistical method. The three null
hypotheses formulated were tested at .05 level of significance. The results showed that significant differences existed between the academic performance of students from single parent family and those from two-parent family structures. The results also indicated significant differences in academic performance of male and female students compared on two types of family structures.

Naderi et al. (2009)\textsuperscript{29} examined self-esteem, gender and academic achievement. Participants N= 153, 105 = male & 48 = female) completed the Persian version of the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSES) (Tevakkoli, 1995). The RSES as a questionnaire test included 10 items. Cumulative grade point average (CGPA) was used to select the participants. Data were analyzed by multinomial logistic regression and independent sample t-test. The findings from this study indicate that although self-esteem indicates a strong significant relationship on academic achievement when gender is controlled (Chi-Square =14.173, Sig=.007, P<0.01, there is no relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement (Sig=.074, P>0.05). In other words, a significant difference between gender and self-esteem was observed (Sig=.001, P<0.01).

Kaur et al. (2009)\textsuperscript{30} made an attempt to explore academic achievement and home environment as correlates of self-concept in a sample of 300 adolescents. The results of the study revealed self-concept to be positively correlated with academic achievement, though not significantly so. A significantly positive relationship of home environment components of protectiveness, conformity, reward, and nurturance with self-concept is revealed, there by meaning that use of rewards and nurturance from parents should be
done for positive self-concept development among adolescents. However, the correlation of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection components of home environment is significantly negative with self-concept among adolescents indicating that for positive self-concept development among adolescents, there should be less or no use of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection.

Joshi & Srivastava (2009) has undertaken this study to investigate the self-esteem and academic achievement of urban and rural adolescents, and to examine the gender differences in self-esteem and academic achievement. The sample of this study consisted of 400 adolescents (200 urban and 200 rural) from Varanasi District. The boys and girls (aged 12 to 14) were equally distributed among the urban and rural sample. Self-esteem was measured by Self-esteem questionnaire and academic achievement was measured by academic school records. The findings indicated that there were no significant differences with regard to self-esteem of rural and urban adolescents. There were significant differences with regard to academic achievement of rural and urban adolescents. Urban adolescents scored higher in academic achievement as compared to rural adolescents. Boys would score significant higher on self-esteem as compared to girls. Significant gender differences were found in academic achievement. Girls were significantly higher on academic achievement as compared to boys.

Folorunso et al. (2010) in this paper examined family background factors that affect students’ academic achievement in institutions of higher learning in Nigeria. With the use of structured
questionnaire, data were collected from 110 first-degree final year students using random sampling and analyzed through multiple linear regression techniques. It was found that student's academic performance was positively influenced by student's parental level of education, maternal income level, age, income of the student and number of hours allocated for reading on daily basis. Those students who spent more hours reading their books daily were found performing better than those who spent lesser hours. The hypothesis that parental educational level impacted positive effects on students' academic performance was confirmed valid for the country while effects of parental occupation and parental income were mixed. The major finding of the paper was that higher educational attainment and income status of parents were essential factors contributing to high academic record of students of tertiary institutions.

2.6 Review of Previous research

The researcher reviewed twenty seven research works. Most of them are related to self-concept and adolescents and other problems of the students. Researcher also presented some research reviews on academic achievement of the students. In most of the research works, the researchers selected independent variables like gender, stream, self-esteem, adjustment and intelligence. Most of the researchers have their own self-concept inventory.

They used random sampling techniques for the research work.
2.7 **Special features of Present research work**

In the said research work, the researcher trying to pints out the relation between self-concept and educational achievement. In Gujarat University, past researches were done on self-concept that included different kinds of variables they selected. Researcher has tried to correlate self-concept and educational achievement in this present research work. Researcher prepared self-concept inventory with new factors of self-concept and self-belief.

2.8 **Conclusion**

In this chapter we have discussion on research, theoretical background of study, related reviews of literature and special features of present research work. Research design will be discussed in the next chapter.
References


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