REVIEW OF LITERATURE
CHAPTER - II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A well written literature review critically explores the ideas and data presented by earlier researchers and provides suggestions for future areas of research which generates one’s conceptual framework. A researcher’s work is judged in comparison with that of others, so the review of literature is significant. A review of research in the past four decades with regard to parenting styles, self esteem and academic achievement are presented in this chapter.

The empirical work on parenting has identified a variety of parenting dimensions that influence adolescent functioning. These dimensions include restrictiveness (Baumrind and Black, 1967; Baldwin, 1955), demandingness (Roe and Siegelman, 1963), overprotection (Parker, Tupling and Brown, 1979), involvement, strictness, supervision (Baumrind, 1967, 1971) and psychological control (Barber, Olsen and Shagle, 1994; Schaeffer, 1965). Many recent investigations have operationalized parenting as styles (e.g., Lamborn, Mounts, et. al., 1991; Maccoby and Martin, 1983; Baumrind, 1971) which are typical strategies of parenting that combine unique combinations of the parenting dimensions described above.
Parenting styles either global or with their various dimensions in a particular parenting style have been related to adolescents’ self esteem and academic achievement. Relevant review of studies is presented in the following section.

2.1 Research on Parenting Styles, Related Behaviors and Self Esteem in the Non Disabled:

Various parenting styles have been shown to influence adolescents’ self esteem in various forms and degrees. Studies on global parenting styles or the various dimensions in a parenting style with regard to self esteem are reviewed in this section.

A. Research on Authoritarian Parenting Style, Related Dimensions and Self Esteem in the Non Disabled:

Authoritarian parents who are forceful, overbearing, and highly controlling, may promote a lack of self confidence and self worth in their children (Baumrind, 1984). Parents, whose child-rearing characteristics reflected psychological control, demand for submissiveness, and suppression of autonomy directly contributed to lower levels of self esteem in their children (Amanat and Butler, 1984). “Adolescents with authoritarian parents tend to be withdrawn, moody, obedient, fearful of new situations and have low self esteem” (Cole, 1993). According to Steinberg (1996) children of authoritarian parents may grow up to be less reliant. Low self esteem has been predicted in children’s or adolescents’ perceptions of their parents as authoritarian (Buri, Louiselle, et. al.,
Adolescents from authoritarian families tend to have poorer social skills, lower self esteem (Ginsburg and Bronstein, 1993). Adolescents raised by authoritarian parents have low self esteem (Buri, 1989). Fathers who reported strong hostility tendencies, were judged as authoritarian by daughters who reported low self esteem (Buri, Richtsmeier, et. al., 1992). Research in the West has indicated that children’s and adolescents’ perceptions of their parents as authoritarian, non nurturant and non supportive (Smith, 2007; Hickman, et. al., 2000; Lamborn, 1991; Maccoby and Martin, 1983; Marcia, 1980) leads to low self esteem. Kim and Chung (2003) reported similar results in Korean American college students. Herz and Gullone (1999) found parenting characterized by high levels of overprotection and control (similar to Baumrind’s authoritarian parenting) was negatively related to self esteem in both Vietnamese-Australian and Anglo-Australian adolescents. Cheung and Lau (1985) found Chinese adolescents in Hong Kong who had parents with high domineering control had low self esteem.

However, Shen and Peterson (1999) reported perception of parental punitiveness led to high self esteem in Chinese adolescents. No
relationship between parental control and adolescent self esteem has also been reported (Graybill, 1978; Gecas, 1971, 1972).

B. Research on Democratic Parenting Style, Related Dimensions and Self Esteem in the Non Disabled:

Research on parent adolescent relationships has consistently reported that adolescents raised in democratic families have higher self esteem than those raised in homes with other parenting styles.

Baumrind opines that the authoritative parent is the ideal parent; one who exerts a high degree of control but encourages the child’s striving for autonomy in appropriate areas. Children who are raised in a democratic environment also termed authoritative, tend to be self reliant, self controlled and inquisitive and report high self esteem (Baumrind, 1984). Authoritative mothers and fathers who establish expectations but are flexible with regard to developmental needs may raise children who are self assured, self reliant and assertive (Baumrind, 1984). Steinberg (1996) found that children of authoritative parents tend to be more competent, industrious, self reliant, persistent and determined. They tend to have a stronger sense of their own abilities.

Research especially in western countries shows adolescent’s perception of a democratic style is related to high self esteem (Smith, 2007; Carlson, Uppal and Presser, 2000; Kernis, et. al., 2000; Pawlak and Klein, 1997; Klein, O’Bryant and Hopkins, 1996; Lamborn, et. al., 1991;
Johnson, Shulman and Collins, 1991; Bartle, Anderson and Sabatelli, 1989; Steinberg, Elmen and Mounts, 1989; Buri, Louiselle, et. al., 1988; Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., 1987). “Studies have shown that parental support, acceptance, warmth and democratic child-rearing practices foster high self esteem in children” (Zervas and Sherman, 1994).

A positive self esteem is related to the perception of various dimensions of an authoritative style such as parental warmth (Paulson, Hill and Holmbeck, 1991). High self esteem in adolescents is related to parental reports of warmth and acceptance (Dekovic and Meeus, 1997; Coopersmith, 1967) and low levels of parent child conflict (Shek, 1998). Halpin, Halpin, and Whiddon (1980) found that parents who nurtured and rewarded their children, engaged in companionship with their children and used positive punishment had children with higher levels of self esteem. “Adolescents with authoritative parents are most likely to foster a positive development. They have high self esteem, are socially confident, inquisitive, self assured and self reliant. They also have high respect for their parents” (Cole, 1993). Gecas and Schwalbe (1986) correlated levels of perceived parental support, control and participation with self esteem and found that parent levels of support, control and participation positively affected children’s self esteem.

Most researchers agree that parental affection is positively related to adolescent self esteem (Supple and Small, 2006; Paulson, et. al., 1991;
Hoelter and Harper, 1987; Holmbeck and Hill, 1986; Litovsky and Dusek, 1985; Peterson, Southworth and Peters, 1983; Growe, 1980; Graybill, 1978; Gecas, 1971, 1972). Research indicates supportive parenting is linked to adolescent self esteem (Dekovic and Meeus, 1997; Spoth, Redmond, et. al., 1996; Rice, 1990; Hoelter and Harper, 1987). Felson and Zielinski (1989) also found a significant correlation between self esteem and democratic parenting in particular parental support. Research indicates a parental style that avoids use of guilt, anxiety and love withdrawal to control behavior leads to a positive relationship with self esteem in children and adolescents (Graybill, 1987; Kawash, et. al., 1985; Litovsky and Dusek, 1985). It is believed that such behaviors instill in children a sense of their inherent value (Openshaw, et. al., 1984).

Various dimensions of the DPS have been associated with high self esteem such as responsiveness of parents (McClun and Merrell, 1998) parental acceptance (Herz and Gullone, 1999; Ohannessian, et. al., 1998) strong affective ties with parents (Roberts and Bengtson, 1996) and parental autonomy granting (Kawash, et. al., 1985; Graybill, 1978; Gecas, 1971; 1972). Studies by Peterson, et. al., (1983) and Growe (1980) indicate that mild forms of punishment are associated with high self esteem in children. Parish (1988) reported that perceived loving actions
of parents were significantly correlated with self concepts in college students.

Warm and caring parenting styles have been known to predict high self esteem across cultures such as in Chinese (Bush, Peterson, et. al., 2002), in British-Chinese, White British and Hong Kong Chinese children (Chan, 2000), in Singapore (Kee, Sim, et. al., 2003) in Finland (Heinonen, Raikkonen and Keltikangas-Jarvinen, 2003), Palestinian-Arab adolescents in Israel (Marwan, 2004) and in the West (Greene and Way, 2005; Beckwith, Rodning and Cohen, 1992).

C. Research on Permissive Parenting Style, Related Dimensions and Self Esteem in the Non Disabled:
Perception of a PPS led to high self esteem in a study by Strange and Brandt (1999) and in Italian and Brazilian studies (Musitu and Garcia, 2004; Martínez, 2003; Marchetti, 1997). However, Kim and Chung (2003) reported lower self reliance in Korean American college students while Smith (2007) and Buri (1989) reported no relationship between permissiveness in parents and the students’ levels of self esteem. Permissiveness by both mothers and fathers were not significantly related to the development of self esteem (Buri, Cooper, et. al., 1991).

The review on parenting styles with regard to self esteem indicates that higher self esteem is associated with adolescents’ perception of a
DPS and lower self esteem with APS and PPS. It also indicates that research in this area is limited in India.

2.2 Research on Parenting Styles, Related Behaviors and Academic Achievement in the Non Disabled:

Parenting styles have been associated with academic successes (Paulson, 1994; Steinberg, Elmen and Mounts, 1989; Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., 1987; Hurrelmann, Engel, et. al., 1988).

Research conducted on the effects of perceived global parenting styles or with regard to the various dimensions within each parenting style in connection with academic achievement is reviewed in the following section.

A. Research on Authoritarian Parenting Style, Related Dimensions and Academic Achievement in the Non Disabled:

Research indicates a strong association between authoritarian parenting and higher grades in Hispanics and African-Americans and in Asian-American adolescents (Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., 1987). Perceived parental control has been found to be positively related to school performance in the West (Skinner, Wellborn and Connell, 1990; Connell, 1985) and in Chinese adolescents (Blair and Qian 1998).

A moderate performance in school is reported by adolescents from authoritarian families (Ginsburg and Bronstein, 1993). Children who performed well in school rated their parents as authoritarian (Lambourn, et. al., 1991).
An APS is associated with positive school related adolescent outcomes especially in Asian samples (Gonzalez, et. al., 2001; Chao, 1998; McBride-Chang and Chang, 1998). A positive relationship was found between academic achievement and general authoritarianism in Hong Kong adolescents (Leung, Lau and Lam, 1998). Specifically in the case of low educated parents in the United States and Australia authoritarian parenting was positively related to academic achievement. In an Indian study, Lall (1984) found that protective attitude of parents was positively related to the academic success of boys.

No differences were found in the relationship between authoritarian parenting and adolescent academic achievement of those who had parents with little education (Leung, et. al. 1998).

An APS has also been negatively associated with grades (Lambourn, et. al., 1991; Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., 1987) and lower academic achievement in African American adolescents (Mandara, 2000) and in Chinese children (Chen, et. al., 1997; Xinyin Chen, Qi Dong and Hong Zhou, 1997). Underachievement is reported when parents are perceived as very strict and demanding, punitive in their disciplinary techniques (Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., 1987; Wood, Chapin and Hannah, 1988). Perceived parental control (Paulson, 1994; Skinner, Wellborn and Connell; 1990, Steinberg, et. al., 1989; Connell, 1985) has been shown to affect young adolescents’ achievement negatively. Adolescents who
perceived their parents as being overprotective are reported to have low academic achievement (Taris and Bok, 1996).

Several studies however, have concluded that these findings are not consistent across ethnicity, culture and SES. Leung, et. al., (1998) examined the influence of parenting styles on children’s academic achievement in four countries viz. United States, Hong Kong, China, and Australia. They found that authoritarian parenting was positively related to academic achievement in Hong Kong and was negatively related to academic achievement in United States, China, and Australia.

B. Research on Democratic Parenting Style, Related Dimensions and Academic Achievement in the Non Disabled:

The earliest studies which found that parents who displayed higher levels of democratic parenting by providing their children warmth, autonomy and high maturity demands had children with higher achievement levels were conducted by Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., (1987) and by Steinberg, Elmen and Mounts (1989).

A DPS has been found to be positively related to a number of schooling outcomes, including academic achievement, school grades, time spent on homework, positive school behavior and completion of secondary school (Beyer, 1995). A DPS is usually linked with better academic outcomes for children and adolescents across a number of family types (Taylor, et. al., 2004). There is considerable evidence that
links democratic parenting with better academic achievement in children (Steinberg, 1996; Lamborn, Mounts and Dornbusch, 1991). Democratic parents are more likely to encourage academic success (Glasgow, et. al., 1997) and has a positive correlation with good grades (Steinberg, 1996). This can be attributed to parental involvement in their children’s education and their use of open, give-and-take communication through family reading, writing and discussions. Perceived autonomy support offered by parents (Wentzel, 1997; Grolnick and Slowiaczek, 1994; Ryan, Stiller and Lynch, 1994) has been shown to affect young adolescents’ achievement. High achieving students, described their parents as understanding, approving, trusting, affectionate, encouraging achievement and not overly strict in disciplining (Masselam, Marcus and Stunkard, 1990).

A host of research studies have found that democratic parenting is more related to higher levels of academic success in the West (Amato and Flower, 2002; Reitman, et. al., 2002; Greenwood and WenHsu, 2001; Wintre and Yaffe, 2000; Rice, 1997; Herman, et. al., 1997; Radziszewska, et. al., 1996; Weiss and Schwarz, 1996; Paulson, 1994; Forehand and Nousiainen, 1993; Baumrind, 1967).

In a study comparing Canadian and East Indian adolescents, researchers examined parenting style and its relation to academic achievement. They found that in these two separate and distinct cultures,
Authoritativeness was linked to positive outcomes whereas neglectful parenting was related to the lowest achievement (Garg, Levin, et. al., 2002). Findings for the Canadian sample indicated that democratic parenting was related to the highest levels of familial interaction and academic performance while in the Indian sample democratic parenting was associated with higher levels of parent concern and family cohesiveness; however there were no academic differences for these adolescents due to parenting style (Garg, et. al., 2002).

Authoritativeness was linked to positive academic outcomes in other cultures too such as in Korean students (Kim and Chung, 2003), in European Americans (Adalbjarnardottir and Hafsteinsson, 2001), in European Americans and Australian adolescents (Leung, Lau and Lam 1998). Park and Bauer (2002) in their study on parenting practices and academic achievement of high school students in a sample of Asian Americans, Hispanics, African Americans and European Americans found the relationship between a DPS and student academic achievement was supported only for the European Americans. Chao (1994) found positive effects of both democratic parenting and its close relationship to school performance in European Americans, in African American students and to some extent in second generation Chinese students. Parents’ expressions of warmth, support, interest, affection and
encouragement were found to have a great impact on high achievers from black families (Dolan, 1993).

Perceived parental autonomy granting and support (Strange and Brandt, 1999; Wentzel, 1997; Grolnick and Slowiaczek, 1994; Ryan, Stiller and Lynch, 1994) as well as parental warmth (Juang and Silbereisen, 2002; Lam, 1997; Beyer, 1995; Wagner and Phillips, 1992) are found to be related to high academic achievement.

Research has shown that the relationship between democratic parenting and school achievement is not consistent across families from diverse ethnic backgrounds. Studies regarding the association of democratic parenting with academic achievement have shown that it is not necessarily the most productive parenting style for African-American children and youth (Steinberg, Lamborn, et. al., 1994; Steinberg, et. al., 1992; Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., 1987) or for Asian-American youth (Chao, 2001; Chao, 1994; Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., 1987) or for Hispanic youth (Steinberg, Lamborn, et. al., 1992; Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., 1987).

On the other hand, perception of a DPS was found to be unrelated to the grades of adolescents in Hong Kong (Leung, Lau and Lam, 1998), in Korean-American adolescents raised by democratic fathers (Kim and Rhoner, 2002) in Hispanics, African Americans and Asian Americans (Park and Bauer, 2002).
C. Research on Permissive Parenting Style, Related Dimensions and Academic Achievement in the Non Disabled:

Studies indicate that a PPS led to higher academic scores in Mexico (Villalobos, et. al., 2004) and in Korean American adolescents raised by indulgent fathers (Kim and Rhoner, 2002).

In the western society a PPS was negatively associated with grades (Strange and Brandt, 1999; Steinberg, 1996; Lambourn, et. al., 1991; Dornbusch, Ritter, et. al., 1987) Academic achievement was lower when adolescents characterized their homes as indulgent (Thibedeau, 2001). A rationale for the lower grades among adolescents from permissive homes was their use of ineffective learning and study strategies (Boveja, 1998).

Research also indicates that parenting styles have no relationship with high academic achievement in Caucasian students (Champney, 2004; Hickman et. al. 2000; Joshi, et. al., 1993). Kim (1996) found that parenting styles were unrelated to school performance in Korean immigrants.

From this review it can be concluded that adolescents reared in authoritarian or permissive home environments appear to be at greater risk for negative academic outcomes especially in the West. Studies related to parental styles and academic achievement in India are rare.
2.3 Research on Self Esteem and Academic Achievement in the Non Disabled:

Researchers have extensively investigated children’s schemas of themselves and their relationship to academic achievement (Hinshaw, 1992; Harter, 1990b). There is a general agreement that a close relationship exists between self esteem and academic achievement (Reasoner, 2004). Decades of research has shown a clear relationship between levels of self esteem and academic achievement. Marsh and Yeung (1997) in a longitudinal study have demonstrated that academic achievement had substantial effects on subsequent academic self concept and academic self concept also had substantial effects on subsequent academic achievement. This reciprocal relationship between academic self concept and achievement has also been supported by other researchers (e.g., Filozof, et. al., 1998; Hay, et. al., 1998; Muijs, 1997; Benham, 1993; Auer, 1992; Rennie, 1991; Klein and Keller, 1990).

A positive relationship between self esteem and academic achievement has been reported in studies conducted abroad (Bowles, 1999; Davies and Brember, 1999; Hewitt, 1998; Kohn, 1994; Wiggins, et. al., 1994; Liu, Kaplan and Risser, 1992; Rosenberg, et. al., 1989; Wiggins, 1987; Rubin, et. al., 1977). A positive association between self esteem and academic achievement has been reported (Muijs, 1997; Baumeister, 1993; Covington, 1992; Morvitz and Motta, 1992; Manscill

Research supports the existence of a positive relationship between self concept and academic achievement in Indian studies (Pathani, 1985; Singh, 1984; Sween, 1984; Shanmugasundaram, 1983).

The causal relationship between self concept and academic achievement abroad suggests that a higher self concept leads to higher academic achievement (Zimmerman, et. al., 1997). Gage and Berliner (1992) indicate that at the level of very specific subjects (e.g., reading, mathematics, and science) there is a relationship between self concept or self esteem and academic success. Purkey (1970) asserted that a relationship exists between self esteem and academic achievement in African American and Caucasian American students.

According to the self enhancement view of academics, one's self esteem is the primary cause of academic achievement (Pajares and Schunk, 2002). Wiggins, et. al., (1987) found a significant correlation between earned grades and self esteem scores. They found that students who gained fifteen or more points on a self esteem inventory during their first year of the study raised their grade point averages substantially in the
second year supporting the theory that gains in self esteem and gains in academic achievement are positively correlated. Covington (1989) reported that as the level of self esteem increases, so do achievement scores; as self esteem decreases, achievement scores decline.

Kifer (1973) found that successful academic achievement interacted with self esteem, achievement responsibility and self concept of a learner increasing over time. He found that unsuccessful academic achievement interacted with self esteem, achievement responsibility and self concept of a learner decreasing over time.

However, recent research indicates that inflating students’ self esteem by itself has no positive effect on grades. One study has shown that inflating self esteem by itself can actually decrease grades (Baumeiste, 2005). Bachman and O’Malley (1986) have concluded that it is one’s actual ability rather than perceived ability that seems to be a determinant of self esteem and is the impetus that makes a difference in academic success.

According to the skill development achievement model, self esteem is conceived as a consequence rather than cause of achievement (Pajares and Schunk, 2001). Academic performance has also been shown to have an effect on self concept (Richman, Clark and Brown, 1985). Manning (2007) indicates self concept is frequently positively correlated with academic performance but self concept appears to be a consequence
rather than a cause of high achievement. This suggests that increasing students' academic skills is a greater effective means to boost their self concept than vice-versa.

Research also indicates a higher school performance may lead to enhanced self esteem both in an Indian study (Singh, 1984) and studies abroad (Bowles, 1999; Sundius, et. al., 1991; Skaalvik and Hagtvet, 1990; Steinberg, 1989). Improving school performance may enhance self confidence (Sundius, Entwisle and Alexander, 1991; Steinberg, 1989). Level of school success predicts level of regard for self and one's own ability (Bridgeman and Shipman, 1978; Kifer, 1975). Some researchers find this especially true for preadolescent males (Coopersmith, 1967; Kifer, 1975). For individuals raised in American culture, research reiterates the importance of school achievement for their self esteem (e.g., Voelkl, 1997; Covington, 1992; Simon and Simon, 1975; Purkey, 1970; Coopersmith, 1959, 1967, 1981).

Hamachek (1995) found that there is a relationship between self concept and academic ability. He argues that this relationship is very interactive, with each variable affecting the other. He indicated that there could be a positive affect on one variable with a positive affect on the other variable (the opposite, negative affect, would also hold true). In other words, if self esteem were lowered, one would see a drop in
academic achievement and if academic achievement were lowered, one would see a drop in self esteem.

Research also suggests that there is no direct relationship between self esteem and academic achievement (Kobal and Musek, 2001) and association between self esteem and scholastic performance (D’Amico and Cardaci, 2003) does not exist. Other researchers too found no apparent relationship between self esteem and overall academic achievement (Helmke and van Aken, 1995; Hoge, Smit, and Crist, 1995). Academic achievement is not seen as necessarily central to self perspectives (e.g., James, 1890/1950, Rosenberg, 1968). Wylie (1974, 1979) has indicated that empirical evidence does not support the idea that self esteem and school achievement are strongly associated rather, the relationship appears to be moderate in nature. Gage and Berliner (1992) suggest that measures of general or even academic self concept are not significantly related to school achievement. There is no clear consensus to support that high self esteem generates high academic achievement (Ginter and Dwinell, 1994; Pottebaum, Keith and Ehly, 1986).

It is also reported that self esteem does not have a causal impact on educational achievement (Muijs, 1997; Bachman and O’Malley, 1977, 1986; Maruyama, et. al., 1981). Studies in minority groups such as African-Americans do not indicate a positive association between self esteem and achievement (Van Laar, 2000). Rosenberg, Scholer, and
Schoenbach, (1989) affirmed that “global self esteem appears to have little or no effect in enhancing academic performance.”

From the review of research regarding the relationship between self esteem and academic achievement it can be concluded that it indicates inconsistent or conflicting results.

Parents of VI adolescents show various reactions and attitudes which influence their self esteem and academic achievement in various forms and degrees. Studies on parental behaviors and global parenting styles or the various dimensions in a parenting style with regard to self esteem and academic achievement in the VI are summarized in the following section.

2.4 Research on Parenting Styles, Related Behaviors and Self Esteem in the Visually Impaired:

This researcher with extensive search could find only one study relating to perception of parenting styles per se and self esteem in the VI. Cardinali and D’Allura (2001) in their study examined the relationship between perception of their mothers’ parenting styles and self esteem in young VI adults on the basis of the VI adults and their mothers’ reports. Their findings indicated that both young VI adults’ and their mothers’ reports of parenting styles were related to self esteem. Their study reported unusual findings such as a DPS was not positively related to VI adults’ self esteem and an APS was not negatively related to their self
esteem, while a PPS was positively related to their self esteem which is unprecedented in the literature on the relationship of parenting styles and self esteem.

Christian (2002) conducted a study on the effects of parenting styles on the development of adaptive competencies and the reduction in problem behaviors among children with and without VI. This study reported that parental protectiveness was negatively related to adaptive competencies and positively related to problem behaviors. Children with VI seemed to respond to their parents for a longer period of time in comparison to sighted children.

Kef and Deković (2004) examined the importance of parental support for the well being of VI and sighted adolescents. They found parental support proved to be important for the well being of both the VI and sighted adolescents; parental support was more strongly related to the well being of sighted adolescents than for the VI adolescents. Lopez-Justicia, et. al., (2001) found significant differences in Spanish VI children aged between 8 and 11 years compared to their sighted peers with regard to their relationship with parents. The VI children’s relationship with parents was regarded as strong and empowering. While Behl, et. al., (1996) and Dote-Kwan (1995) report mothers of VI children may be more directive and can still display appropriate responsivity. A study by Kekelis and Anderson (1984) found that mothers of VI children
are often controlling which suggests an APS. Parents of children with LV seem to be less understanding of the disability than those of blind children (Bateman, 1962).

In Indian studies Dawn (2005) reported that parents of blind students had a significant impact on their self evaluation irrespective of the type of school they attended. A study by Agarwal and Piplani (1990) indicated that blind girls perceived their parents as being more accepting and less rejecting than did blind boys.

This review indicates that research on parenting styles with regard to self esteem in the VI has been negligible both in India and abroad.

2.5 Research on Parenting Styles, Related Behaviors and Academic Achievement in the Visually Impaired:
An extensive search for studies with regard to the effect or relationship between parenting styles or their dimensions and academic achievement in the VI children or adolescents did not yield any results.

2.6 Research on Self Esteem/Self Concepts of the Visually Impaired:
Research finds a tendency for people with VI to present extreme opinions and attitudes about themselves both positively and negatively (Zunith and Ledwith, 1965). Harter, et. al., (1997) found that blind people showed extreme values, they either had a very low self concept or over-rated their personal attributes when compared to sighted people.
Studies which compared the self concepts of VI with the sighted have revealed conflicting findings. Research indicates similar levels of self concept (Martinez and Sewell, 1996; Sherrill, Hinson, et. al., 1990; Coker, 1979; Jervis 1959) and self esteem (Warren, 1994) between VI and the sighted. Lifshitz, Hen and Weisse (2007) found similar self concept profiles of sighted and VI adolescents in Israel. No significant differences in self esteem between VI and sighted adolescents were found in USA (Griffin-Shirley and Nes, 2005), in the Netherlands (Kef, 2002), in Spain (Lopez-Justicia, et. al., 2001) and in Finland (Huurre, et. al., 1998).

In Indian studies, Kumar and Meena (1997) found no significant difference between the blind and normal subjects in their self concept. Hasan, Khan and Khan (1983) as well as Dawn (2005) too compared the self esteem of the VI with the sighted and found no difference between the two.

Significant differences in self concepts of VI and sighted have also been reported. Beaty (1991) conducted a study on blind and low vision adolescents (aged 12-19 years) and age-matched sighted peers from an urban environment. The results revealed significant differences in global self concept as well as specific components of self concept among these two groups.
Research also indicates a higher level of self concept or self esteem in the VI. Kef (2002) in her study on psychosocial adjustment and the meaning of social support for Dutch VI teenagers (aged 14 to 24 years) revealed that majority of the teenagers had high-self esteem. Beaty (1994) in a study of VI and non disabled undergraduates revealed the blind / LV students scored higher than sighted students on self esteem. Obiakor and Stile (1990) found VI subjects scored higher than normally sighted subjects on 5 of the 12 SSAI subscales, refuting the notion that VI children have poorer self concepts than normally sighted children.

A lower level of self esteem (Lopez-Justicia, Pichardo, et. al., 2001; Tuttle and Tuttle, 1984, 2004) and lower self concept (Carin, 1997) has also been reported in the VI. Bhan (2005) reported a lower level of self concept in Indian VI children. Meighan (1971) found that the blind tend to view themselves extremely negatively.

Research with regard to specific areas of self concept indicates VI adolescents’ did not differ significantly in physical self, personal self and social self when compared to the non impaired (Beaty, 1992). Lower levels of self concept in specific areas in the VI have been reported (Diaz-Aguado et al., 1995; Obiakor and Style, 1989, 1990). Lopez-Justicia, et. al., (2001) reported adolescents with LV aged 12 to 17 years scored considerably lower only in terms of physical self concept when compared with their sighted counterparts.
Findings with regard to the degree of VI and the self concept/self esteem indicate inconsistent results. Lopez-Justicia, et. al., (2001) found that Spanish LV children between 4 and 11 years of age tended to score lower on all dimensions of self concept when compared to the sighted children. Sacks (1996) reported that individuals with LV perceive themselves more negatively when compared to the blind or sighted. While Kef (2002) in the Netherlands reported no significant differences between blind and individuals with LV (both severe and mild) although the scores for the severely VI tended to be more negative.

Studies indicate age of onset of VI is related to self concept (Lifshitz, Hen and Weisse, 2007; Konarska, 2003; Rosa, 1993). Lopez-Justicia, et. al., (2001) conducted several studies to determine whether Spanish children and adolescents with congenital LV had lower self concepts than sighted peers. They found that children between 4 and 11 years of age with congenital LV tended to score lower on all dimensions of self concept when compared to the sighted children. A decrease is reported in the global self worth score of the VI adolescents with age (Andonova, 2000).

Research with regard to gender of the VI reports differences between the sexes in their self esteem. Studies indicate that blind boys (Andonova, 2000) and blind men (Peterson, Sarigiani and Kennedy, 1991) had more positive and realistic self concept than blind girls and
women. Lower self esteem is reported in VI girls (King, Robertson and Warren, 1985). Huurre, et. al., (1998) found the self esteem of VI girls tended to be lower than that of the fully sighted girls. In India VI boys have been reported to have a high self esteem (Bhan, 2005) and VI male adolescents have significantly higher self concept than females (Kumar and Meena, 1997).

Differences between the sexes in specific areas of self concept have been reported. Al-Zyoudi (2007) found that compared with young men, young women with LV were higher on physical self concept and scored lower on social self concept, family self behavior and moral self study. Rothemburg (1997) also noted that VI women scored higher on personal identity, physical, family and social self concept while the men scored higher on self satisfaction and moral self concept. An opposite finding that VI boys had a higher score on physical appearance compared to VI girls is reported by Andonova (2000).

Research using schools as the context of study have indicated diverse results. Gronmo and Augestad (2000) found no significant differences in global self worth between blind youth integrated in Norway and those in a special school in France. Similar findings are reported in an Indian study by Dawn (2005). Self concept scores of VI adolescents in several class settings revealed no differences (Head, 1975). Kielly (1993) found that the self concept of adolescents with VI were similar in
different educational settings while Meighan (1971) reported negative self concepts in VI adolescents from residential schools.

In an Indian study Naseema and Usha (2007) reported a lower self concept in the VI when compared with normal pupils in an integrated system.

2.7  **Research on Academic Achievement of the Visually Impaired:**

Higher academic achievement in the VI is reported when compared to the sighted. Beaty (1991, 1994) in a study of VI and non disabled undergraduates reported the mean grade point average of VI was higher than the non disabled. Similar results have been reported in India (Satapathy and Singhal, 2002).

Klinkosz, Sekowski and Brambring (2006) reported VI university students in Poland were not high in their academic achievement. Poor performance in the VI is also reported by Dodds, et. al., (1991). The academic achievement of the VI when compared to the sighted has revealed no differences in India (Jangira, 1987).

Research with regard to the effect of degree of VI on academic achievement indicates inconsistent findings. The blind have been rated with higher school competence than partially sighted (Andonova, 2000). Peadboy and Birch (1967) found that LV children tend to exhibit underachieving behaviors with more frequency. Visual status has been
Gender differences in the VI individuals’ academic achievement have been reported. Higher levels of academic achievement in female VI students has been reported than male students abroad (Klinkosz, Sekowski and Brambring, 2006) and in India (Satapathy and Singhal, 2002). While others (Huurre, et. al., 1998) found the school achievement of VI girls tended to be lower when compared to the fully sighted girls. An Indian study reports a remarkable uniformity between VI boys and girls in their academic skills (Agarwal, 2004).

Findings with regard to school setting and academic achievement in Indian studies found VI students attending mainstream schools in integrated as well as semi-integrated setting were good at problem solving and reasoning skills due to greater exposure to the subjects like Mathematics and Science (Agarwal, 2004). In the Indian state of Kerala, Lali (1998) reported a significant difference in scholastic achievement between the VI and sighted students in all subjects except Malayalam in integrated schools. Findings of Shukla (2000) indicated the special school system is effective in competency and academic achievement for the VI students in India.
2.8 Studies on Interaction of Self Esteem and Academic Achievement in the Visually Impaired:

One comparative study in India with regard to self concept and academic achievement (in mathematics) of VI and normal pupils in an integrated system by Naseema and Usha (2007) indicates the VI scored lower both in self concept and in mathematics than the sighted.

The review indicates research on self esteem and academic achievement together in the VI is sparse in India and other countries.

Parents of HI adolescents whether they themselves are deaf or hearing influence the HI adolescent’s self esteem and academic achievement in various forms and degrees. Studies on parental behaviors in relation to self esteem and academic achievement in the HI are summarized in the following section.

2.9 Research on Parenting Styles, Related Behaviors in Parents of Hearing Impaired:

Some studies regarding parental styles and other aspects of parenting adopted by parents of deaf children are available. A study regarding parenting style adopted by parents of deaf children indicates a permissive style (Bodner-Johnson, 1986). Parents of the deaf have a tendency to overprotect and adopt an authoritarian pattern that relies on strong parental control (Brinich, 1980; Wedell-Monning and Lumley, 1980). Deaf children of deaf parents are more likely to have experienced
consistent parenting behavior, effective communication and more tolerant social environments (Greenberg and Kusché, 1987).

Luterman (1987) reports hearing parents of deaf children are more likely to become emotionally detached in interaction with their children when a hearing loss is diagnosed. Mothers of deaf children were found to be almost three times more inclined than mothers of hearing children to report feeling comfortable when spanking (smacking) their children (Schlesinger and Meadow, 1972). Gregory (1976) and Rodda (1966) found that deaf children received fewer explanations from parents about their feelings, why things have been done, their role expectations and the consequences of certain behaviors.

Research with regard to perception of parental styles per se by HI children or adolescents seems to be rare.

2.10 Research on Parenting Behaviors and Self Esteem in the Hearing Impaired:

Studies on various dimensions of parenting styles and self esteem in the HI indicate that if a deaf child feels that his or her family does not offer acceptance, the child’s self esteem suffers (Mindel and McKay, 1991) while overprotection by parents due to communication deficiency can cause a negative self esteem in the deaf child (Scabbo, 1993). Meadow (1980) argued that deaf parents provide effective role models for
their deaf children early in their development. This may lead to a positive impact on the development of identity and self esteem.

Deaf children of hearing parents have been reported to be more isolated, have lower acceptance, poorer communication, more psychological and behavioral disorders than deaf children of deaf parents (Anderson and Sisco, 1977).

Research on parenting styles adopted by parents of HI and their relationship to self esteem in the HI seems to be scarce and is almost non existent in India.

2.11 Research on Parenting Styles, Related Behaviors and Academic Achievement in the Hearing Impaired:

An extensive search for studies with regard to the effect or relationship between parenting styles or their dimensions and academic achievement in the HI children or adolescents did not yield any results.

2.12 Research on Self Esteem of the Hearing Impaired:

Research studies on self esteem of HI have yielded conflicting findings. Other findings suggest that one must examine this complex phenomenon more closely to understand how deafness influences self concept and self esteem (Bat-Chava 2000; Emerton, 1998; Foster, 1998; Munoz-Bell and Ruiz, 2000; Stone, 1998). Meadow (1980) opines methodological problems, particularly with regard to the development of appropriate measures of self esteem for use with deaf children cannot be
overlooked. Two measures of self concept in deaf children are a pictorial inventory and rating scales used by teachers with long-term observation opportunities. There is a need to develop more appropriate self concept measures for the HI.

Inconsistent findings have been reported in studies on self esteem of HI when compared to hearing individuals. Martinez and Silvestre (1995) indicate significant differences in self description between hearing and deaf subjects while Coyner (1993) indicated deaf subjects’ self concepts were not significantly different from hearing subjects’ self evaluations.

Other research has also indicated that children with a hearing loss have similar self esteem as that of hearing children (Munoz-Bell and Ruiz, 2000; Emerton, 1998; Foster, 1998; Stone, 1998; Cates, 1991). In India too self concepts of HI and hearing subjects were found to be similar (Kaushik and Singh, 2006).

Some studies have reported a higher self esteem in the deaf than hearing subjects (Crowe, 2003). A study in Hong Kong (Yee, et. al., 1997) reported that the HI group particularly the males, had higher self esteem in a number of dimensions of the self compared to hearing secondary school students.

Low self concept in the HI has been reported in an Indian study (Jyothi and Reddy, 1996) and a higher incidence of low self esteem
among deaf individuals (Schlesinger, 2000; Yetman, 2000; Mulcahy, 1998; Bat-Chava, 1994; Higgins and Nash, 1987; Loeb and Sarigiani, 1986) is reported in studies abroad.

As the HI have limitation in oral communication, it affects their self esteem. A person who has difficulty in communicating with others and in expressing himself or herself, that person may have a problem with self concept (Evans and Falk, 1986). Lack of communication being a major problem, deaf adolescents experience isolation and have lower self esteem more than the hearing (Higgins and Nash, 1997).

The type of communication used by the HI has an effect on their self concept. Kappy (1997) reported students who used oral communication considered deafness as a disability more than those who used total communication. Students who used oral communication had higher levels of self concept than those who used total communication. While Van Gurp (2001) reported no significant differences existed between the deaf using spoken communication and those using sign communication in any dimension of self concept.

Lack of communication in the HI leads them to identify with the deaf community. Strong identification with the deaf community significantly contributes to positive self esteem because it provides a sense of belonging (Jambor, 2005; Crowe, 2003; Bat-Chava, 1993 and 1994; Cartledge, Paul, et. al., 1991; Cates, 1991; Cole and Edelman,
1991; Foster, 1989) as they spend considerable time with similar others they often have positive self worth (Olney and Brockelman, 2003). Non identification with the deaf community is likely to lead to a poor self esteem (Schirmer, 2001) and those who are able to find a balance between their involvement in the deaf and the hearing world tend to have a positive self esteem (Brubaker, 1994). Deaf with bicultural skills that help them to function in both the hearing and the deaf community generally have a higher self esteem (Jambor, 2005).

Parental hearing status has emerged as an influential factor with regard to HI children’s or adolescents’ self esteem. About 90% of the deaf population has two hearing parents and 90% of deaf children who have hearing parents have no system of communication in their home other than primitive iconic signs (Meyers and Bartee, 1995). Raising a deaf child is especially difficult for hearing parents to help their children to have a high self esteem (Gatty, 1995). Presence of poor self esteem in deaf children may be more likely when the parents are not deaf. According to Schlesinger (1994) hearing parents can influence the self esteem of the deaf child by communicating acceptance to the child. On the other hand, a deaf child may feel more accepted if he or she is born to deaf parents, because deafness is not foreign to the parents.

A number of studies indicate deaf children with deaf parents had higher self esteem than those with hearing parents (Woolfe, 2001;
Clymer, 1995; Bat-Chava, 1993; Schein, 1989; Yachnick, 1986; Koelle and Convey, 1982; Gregory, 1976; Rodda, 1966). Weisel (1988) found that deaf children with two deaf parents had a better self image. Crowe (2003) reported deaf subjects with two deaf parents had higher self esteem scores than those who had two hearing parents. Harris (2001) reported an unusual finding that deaf adolescents with hearing parents had a self esteem score higher than those with deaf parents.

Parental mode of communication has been reported as an important aspect related to the HI adolescent’s self esteem. The use of total communication at home was positively significant to the self image of deaf students (Polat, 2003). Crowe (2003) reported that deaf respondents who had at least one deaf parent who signed, those with hearing parents who could sign, scored significantly higher than those with hearing parents who could not sign. Deaf children whose hearing parents can communicate using sign language rather than oral communication have higher self esteem (Woolfe 2001).

Desselle (1994) found a positive relationship between the parent’s communication method and the deaf child’s self esteem. She compared the self esteem of two groups of deaf students, those with hearing parents who used sign language and those with hearing parents who did not communicate with their child in sign. The parents who were best able to communicate by using sign language had deaf children whose self esteem
scores were higher than those children whose parents were less skilled in sign language. Deaf children whose hearing parents communicated using total communication (speech, finger spelling and sign) had higher self esteem scores than those children whose parents used only oral communication.

A study by Yachnik (1986) looked at the self esteem of two groups of deaf students with deaf and hearing parents. This study indicated that deaf adolescents with deaf parents have a higher self esteem than those with hearing parents. This may be due to several factors including the ease of communication between deaf children and deaf parents through visual communication, the exposure to other deaf people and the deaf community which deaf children of deaf parents have available to them.

Findings with regard to the degree of hearing loss and self esteem indicate a higher self esteem in those with greater degree of hearing loss (Jambor, 2005). An opposing finding that deaf individuals have lower self esteem than those with some residual hearing (Beck, 1988; Brooks and Ellis, 1982) is also reported. Some researchers contend that partial hearing loss affects self concept (Myklebust 1960). Partial hearing loss affects the self concept more drastically because being close to “normal” makes it more difficult to accept disability (Bauman and Yoder, 1966). Other researchers have concluded that the degree of hearing loss has no
effect on self esteem (Montannini-Manfredi, 1993; Schroedel, 1992; Egelston-Dodd, 1978) of the HI individuals.

Brooks and Ellis (1982) in their research reported that HI subjects’ perceptions of others’ evaluations of them were more positive for the hard of hearing (HOH) than for the deaf and suggested that higher self esteem in the HOH resulted indirectly from these differential perceptions rather than directly from the labels “deaf” and “HOH”.

Age of the HI individual has an impact on his or her self esteem. Miller (1997) found that 10 year old deaf girls had significantly higher mean self concept scores than 12, 15, and 16 year old deaf girls.

Studies indicate the age when hearing loss occurs is related to self esteem of the HI. Congenital deafness is more of a linguistic problem which causes communication disability in the deaf and can have an important impact on their self esteem (Strong and Shaver, 1991; Higgins, 1980). Prelingually deaf individuals have been shown to have a more positive self image (de Graff and Bilj 2002) and later deafened individuals usually have other kinds of issues with self esteem (Schirmer, 2001). Loeb and Sarigani (1986) state that earlier onset of deafness leads to a greater degree of satisfaction with self while Crowe (2003) opines the age of deafness has no significance to self esteem.

Differences in self concept of male and female deaf students have been reported (Pudlas, 1996). Male deaf students tended to report higher
self esteem than females in a number of dimensions of the self (Yee, Watkins and Crawford, 1997) while Crowe (2003) found no significant difference in gender with regard to self esteem of the deaf.

The schools the HI individuals attend have a great influence on their self esteem. Studies have found that deaf students integrated in mainstream schools have higher self concepts (Leigh, 1999; Musselman, Mootilal and Mackay, 1996; Lynas, 1986; Aplin, 1985, 1987; Hegarty, Pocklington and Lucas, 1982) than the hearing students. Yee, et. al., (1997) in their study found no evidence that integration into the normal classroom damages the self esteem of the HI. Sarfaty and Katz (1978) reported the HI as a group and individual had higher self concepts in integrative school settings than students in the special school.

Yetman (2002) reported in integration, comparison processes play an important role in the formation of deaf students’ self esteem. Deaf students who utilized hearing peers as their social comparison group reported lower levels of self esteem in a number of areas. Gans (1995) reported the deaf had low self image than the hearing students in an integrated school. Self image was significantly poorer in children receiving special services for 1 to 2 hours daily when compared to those who were either fully in a more mainstreamed or with more intensive delivery service options (Gans, 1995). Deaf and HOH students in public schools appeared to demonstrate lower levels of self esteem than hearing
students (Farrugia and Austin, 1980). Deaf adolescents in residential schools had higher self esteem (Harris, 2001; Farrugia and Austin, 1980). While Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) noted no difference in positive self concept of the deaf in various school placements. Bat-Chava (1993, 1994) also reported type of school attended by the HI had no effect on their self esteem.

Gans (1995) found students in schools which offered total communication program had higher self image scores than those schools which used oral communication.

This review indicates that research in self esteem of the HI in India is minimal.

2.13 Research on Academic Achievement of the Hearing Impaired:

The academic achievement gap between students who hear and those who are deaf or HOH is a frequently reported fact (Marschark, 2006; Moores, 2003; Meadow-Orleans, 2001). Hearing loss with its limiting effects does influence an individual’s behavior in educational and socio emotional development (Heward, 2000). McCain and Antia (2005) indicated differences in academic achievement of deaf or HOH students and hearing peers in a co-enrolled, grade 3-4-5 combination classroom, but deaf and HOH students made steady academic progress over three years.
Some deaf pupils achieve at levels comparable to their hearing peers (Weisel and Kamara, 2005). In Indian studies it is found that deaf pupils are achieving high levels of academic success (Satapathy and Singhal, 2002) and above average academic achievement in the HI is reported (Jangira, 1987). Deaf pupils’ achievement in reading levels has been found to be very similar to their hearing peers in the United Kingdom (Lewis, 1996) and in the United States (Geers and Moog, 1989). Moores (1996) reports each year children who are deaf continue to make gains in reading scores, compared to the scores in previous years. Conversely poor educational performance (Davis, et. al., 1981), low academic achievement (Gregory, et. al., 1984) and problems in academics (Loeb and Sarigiani, 1986) in the HI students have also been reported. In the United States Holt (1993) found that the average reading age of 17 year old deaf pupils was 9.5 years. Moores (1996) reports that most of the deaf children do not read at the average national norm.

Parents’ hearing status is one of the most important predictors of academic achievement in the deaf (Koelle and Convey 1982). Deaf students with deaf parents generally have been shown to exhibit higher levels of academic achievement (Schlesinger, 2000; Hilburn, Marini and Slate, 1997; Ritter-Brinton and Stewart, 1992; Weisel, 1988; Quigley and Paul, 1984; Delgado, 1982; Karchmer, et. al., 1978; Brasel and Quigley, 1977; Trybus and Karchmer, 1977). Deaf children of deaf parents have
been found to be more advantaged at school (Meadow, 1967; Montgomery, 1966) and more successful in educational achievement. Weisel (1988) found that deaf children with two deaf parents showed higher levels of reading comprehension. Vernon and Koh (1971) compared the written language skills and the overall academic achievement of three groups of deaf children: 1) Deaf children of deaf parents with no preschool training 2) Deaf children of hearing parents with no preschool training 3) Deaf children of hearing parents with preschool training. They found that the children of deaf parents scored higher than the two groups of children with hearing parents. As a result, Vernon and Koh (1971) concluded that the deaf children’s early exposure to American Sign Language resulted in their high academic achievement.

Corson (1973) compared the reading and writing skills of four groups of deaf children: 1) Deaf children of deaf parents who used sign language at home 2) Deaf children of hearing parents who used sign language at home 3) Deaf children of deaf parents who used oral communication at home and 4) Deaf children of hearing parents who used oral communication at home. The first two groups attended total communication programs; groups three and four attended oral programs. Results indicated that the children of deaf parents out performed the children of hearing parents regardless of the mode of communication used at home or the type of educational program. Studies also indicate
that the hearing status of parents is not a major factor in deaf children’s achievement (Powers, 2003; Ritter-Brinton and Stewart 1992).

The degree of hearing loss has an impact on academic achievement. Sustained hearing loss bears some relevance to one’s learning outcomes in schools (Mba, 1995). Karchmer, Milone and Wolk (1979) reported that degree of hearing loss strongly influences the type of educational placement. Jensema and Trybus (1978) conducted a survey of deaf and HOH children and reported that as degree of hearing loss increases, use of sign language increases, speech intelligibility decreases, use of amplification increases (except for those with the most severe losses) and residential educational placements become more common.

Several studies have reported a decrease in academic achievement with increase in degree of hearing loss (Davis, Shepard, et. al., 1981; Quigley and Thomure, 1968). Musselman, Lindsay and Wilson (1988) found degree of hearing loss has the most significant correlation with language and educational achievement. Davis, Elfenbein, et. al., (1986) reported a contrasting finding. Degree of hearing loss by itself does not strongly influence academic achievement (Powers, 1998 and 2003; Abel, 1986; Allen, 1986; Wood, et. al., 1986) of the HI.

Age of onset of deafness is commonly considered as an important determinant of academic outcomes (Fortnum, Davis, et. al., 1996; Allen, 1986; Jensema, 1975). Some studies report poorer results in deaf learners
whose hearing loss occurred before 3 years of age (Fortnum, et. al., 1996) and some report higher results with later age of onset (Powers, 2003). Allen and Osborn (1984) compared reading comprehension scores of students who had incurred hearing loss before age three with those who had lost hearing after age three. Separate comparisons were made for these deaf children in mainstreamed and self contained programs. Scores of the postlingually deaf children were higher than those of the prelingually deaf children within the mainstream educational settings. However, the prelingually deaf children scored higher than their postlingually deaf counterparts in the self contained classes. Apparently, age of onset as a predictive variable was confounded by the type of educational program. Few studies have specifically examined the effects of onset of hearing loss on educational performance. Further research is needed to isolate age of onset as a predictive variable.

Gender effect on academic achievement of the HI has been studied. Significant association was found between examination results and gender of HI (Powers, 2003). Deaf girls scored higher on reading (Allen, 1986; Allen and Osborn, 1984) and deaf boys scored higher on mathematics (Kluwin and Stinson, 1993; Quigley and Paul, 1986). No significant gender differences in reading (Kluwin, 1994; Wood, et. al., 1986) or mathematics (Epstein, Hildegeist and Grafman, 1994; Kluwin, 1994; Wood, et. al., 1986) among the HI have also been reported.
The type of communication approach used in the school influences the deaf students’ achievement. Geers and Moog (1989) studied profoundly deaf students in oral programs and reported that 57% of the students scored at the seventh grade level on reading comprehension. Lewis (1996) studied deaf students in oral programs and found that majority of them read at levels above the functional literacy level of 11 years.

Type of school the HI attend has an influence on their academic achievement. Generally positive results have been reported regarding the relationship between mainstreaming of HI and their academic achievement. A number of research studies have linked mainstream placement (versus special school placement) with higher achievement (Lynas, 1986). Moores, Kluwin and Mertens (1985) reported mainstreamed children with severe hearing loss achieved more in mathematics than in English, history or science.

Deaf students who were integrated with hearing students had better self perceptions of reading ability than those in special classes (Van Gurp, 1998, 2001). Deaf pupils in mainstream programs achieved greater success in GCSE examinations than deaf pupils in schools for the deaf (Powers, 1995). Furstenberg and Guy (1994) found mainstreamed deaf students scored higher on all the performance outcome categories than students in other school placements. Holt (1994) reported higher
performance of deaf and HOH students in regular classrooms. Research indicates that academic performance of HI is probably enhanced by attendance in public schools (Reich, Hambelton and Houldin, 1977). In an early study, O'Connor and Connor (1961) reported that half of the deaf students in mainstream public schools were academically unsuccessful.

Family factors and SES are predictors of academic achievement in the HI. A high family SES was reported as a predictor of examination success in the deaf (Powers, 1999; Kluwin, 1994). A significant positive association was found between better examination results and a small family size (Powers, 2003).

Research regarding academic achievement of HI has not received much attention in India.

2.14 Research on Self Esteem and Academic Achievement in the Hearing Impaired:

Rodda and Grove (1987) suggested that there is probably an interaction between academic achievement and self esteem in the deaf whereby each influences the other to accelerate either positive or negative outcomes.

Deaf students’ self concepts were found to be the most important predictors of achievement. Chovan and Roberts (1993) reported significantly positive but small correlations among reading scores and
reading appraisals in achievement outcomes of the deaf. Reading in the deaf is associated with their self concept (Chovan and Roberts, 1993) and self esteem (Gurp, 2001; Deselle, 1994). Academic achievement particularly reading appears to be associated with concepts of self in the deaf.

A study by Desselle (1994) showed that deaf students with higher self esteem had higher reading levels and academic achievement. Higher self esteem and self competence appear to be related to greater academic achievement in the deaf (Koelle and Convey, 1982). Self esteem is associated with academic success in deaf students (Joiner, Erickson and Crittenden 1966). Pflaster (1980) states that self concept is an important intrinsic factor in the academic performance of deaf students in regular classes.

While some studies report a positive relationship between self esteem and academic achievement in the deaf (Crocker, Karpinski, et. al., 2003; Disselle, 1994; Liu, Kaplan and Risser, 1992) others claim that this association is too weak and confounded to be interpreted as causal (Hewitt, 1998; Kohn, 1994).
2.15 Studies Comparing Self Esteem and Academic Achievement in the Visually and Hearing Impaired:

Satapathy and Singhal (2000) in their study on mental health of VI and HI adolescents found that the VI students had higher self esteem and better academic performance than the HI students.

Loeb and Sarigiani (1986) in their study examined how children with varying degrees of HI differ from VI children and children with no major SI. HI children had lower self esteem and related problems in self confidence and academics.

Satapathy and Singhal, (2002) studied the academic achievement of VI and HI and found that the VI performed better than the HI.

Lipkowitz (2000) in her study about the relationship between sensory disabilities and self determination, self esteem, cultural/disability identification, inclusion and academic achievement reported significant differences between the sensory groups on self esteem, academic achievement and significant placement differences in academic achievement.