Chapter II

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON EXAMINATION ANXIETY

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON STUDY HABITS

2.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON SELF CONCEPT

2.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON HOME LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

2.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT
The present study is an investigation on the psychological and sociological concept, associated with the learning process and progress of the higher secondary students. The theoretical overview shall provide a conceptual framework about the different aspects of the investigation.

The present chapter tries to provide a theoretical background related to the investigating concepts in the following headings.

1. Theoretical framework on Achievement motivation
2. Theoretical framework on Examination anxiety
3. Theoretical framework on Study habits.
4. Theoretical framework on Self concept
5. Theoretical framework on Home learning environment.
6. Theoretical framework on Academic achievement.

2.1 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

2.1.1 Motivation

The term motivation has its etymological roots in the Latin word “movere” which means “to move”. Motivation is defined as the energization and direction of behavior. Motivation is a hypothetical construct, meaning that it is an abstraction, not an overt entity that can be seen with the eyes. Motivation cannot be observed but its effects may be observed.

Motivation focuses primarily on two central questions – the why and how of behaviour. These questions map on to the energization and direction aspects of motivation. “Why” represents the underlying reasons that an individual is energized or impelled to engage in a certain type of behaviour. This “why” question focuses on; what the pioneering psychologist William James called the
“springs of action” – the fundamental impetus for behaviour that gets the individual oriented towards a certain type of movement.

“How” represents the guiding or channeling of energization in a precise way. This “how” question focuses on the specific aims on which persons focus to direct their behaviour. Both energization and direction, need to be considered to fully explain a motivated behaviour.

The most basic distinction that can be made about motivation is whether it represents approach motivation or avoidance motivation. This approach-avoidance distinction is applicable to all types of motivation and to all types of organisms. Furthermore, the approach-avoidance distinction is applicable to both the energization and direction aspects of motivation. Approach motivation is the energization of behaviour by or the direction of behaviour toward positive stimuli, whereas the avoidance motivation is the energization of behaviour by or the direction of behaviour away from negative stimuli.

Although motivation represents an internal force within the person, it is influenced by both internal factors within the person and external factors outside the person. Broadly stated internal factors include biologically based predispositions that lay the foundation for behaviour across situations; affectively based and cognitively based dispositions that produce behavioural tendencies in particular domains and situation specific states that have an immediate direct impact on behaviour. External factors include culture which provides a basic set of assumptions, meanings and practices that establishes a person’s basic world view; socialization by parents, other adults in leadership positions and peers that moulds and shape a persons specific values, beliefs and behavioural patterns and environmental contexts that provide immediate cues for what is important and
Theoretical Overview

expected in a given situation. Internal factors influence each other in producing behaviour and external factors like wise influence each other. In short human motivation is complex, emerging from a multitude of mutually interacting internal and external factors.

Theories of Motivation

Since motivation is considered as complex psychological construct, the psychologists have divergent views about the concept of motivation. Each of them has their own explanation about this concept.

1) Drive theory

Drive theory assumes that when biological needs arise within our bodies which create an unpleasant state of arousal – the feeling we describe as hunger, thirst, fatigue and so on. In order to eliminate such feelings and restore a balanced physiological state or homeostasis, we engage in certain activities (Winn 1995). Thus according to drive theory, motivation is basically a process in which various biological needs push (drive) us into actions designed to satisfy these needs.

2) Arousal theory

The theory formulated by (Geen, Beathy and Arkin 1984); focuses on arousal, our general level of activation. Arousal theory suggests that what we seek is not minimal level of arousal but rather optimal arousal – the level that is best suited to our personal characteristics and to whatever activity we are currently performing.

Though arousal theory provides useful insights into the nature of motivation, the fact that we can’t readily predict what will constitute an optimal level of arousal.
3) Goal-setting theory

This theory emphasizes the importance of cognitive factors rather than drive or arousal. Goal setting theory view that motivation can be strongly influenced by goals. People performed better when they were given specific goals than when they were simply told to “do your best”. The term impressive is appropriate because people often did much better when working toward specific goals than when such goals were absent.

The goal setting theory works best under certain conditions. It is most effective in boosting performance when the goals set are highly “specific” (people know just what they are trying to accomplish), the goals are “challenging” (meeting them requires considerable effort) but the goals are perceived as attainable (people believe they can actually reach them). Finally goal setting is most successful when people received feedback on their progress toward meeting the goals and when they are truly and deeply committed to reaching them.

4) Maslow’s theory of motivation

This theory suggests that human motives may exist in a hierarchy. So that we must satisfy those that are more basic before moving on to ones that are less linked to biological needs.

Maslow places “physiological needs” such as those for food, water, oxygen and sleep at the base of the hierarchy of needs. One step above these are “safety needs”; needs for feeling safe and secure in one’s life. Above the safety needs are “Social needs” including needs to have friends, to be loved and appreciated and to belong – to fit into a network of social relationships.
Maslow refers, physiological, safety and social needs as deficiency needs. They are the basics and must be satisfied before higher levels of motivation or “growth needs” can emerge.

Above the social needs in the hierarchy he proposes the “esteem needs”; needs to develop self respect, gain the approval of others and achieve success. Ambition and the need for achievement are closely linked to esteem needs. At the top of the hierarchy are the self-actualization needs. These involve the need for self-fulfillment – the desire to become all that one is capable of being.

2.1.2 Achievement Motivation

Theory and research pertaining to achievement motivation had gained much importance for the last three decades. Achievement motivation plays a decisive role in the organization of human behavior. It is a psychological construct which determines the achievement level of an individual. Achievement motivation is also called need for achievement (n-achievement). It was Mc Clelland (1953) who initiated research in the field of achievement motivation and developed means of measuring achievement motivation using Thematic Apperception Test.

Achievement motivation is a construct originated from motivation. Motivation has traditionally been used to describe and explain difference in intensity and direction of behavior. Lewin (1935) highlighted the importance of n-achievement in human behavior. He studied the “upward striving” nature of achievement, aspiration and behaviors’.

The concept of achievement motivation was first systematically studied by Mc Clelland (1953) and his associates, though the concept was actually originated by Murray (1938). Murray has listed twenty common needs. Out of the different needs listed the focus of interest was social needs like need for affiliation, need for
power and need for achievement. McClelland started research of human motivation by selecting the “need to achieve” which Murray had listed. Murray’s “effect need” and “model need” are also related to the need for achievement.

McClelland’s concept of achievement motivation resemble with Maslow’s (1954) concept of self actualization. In the hierarchy of needs, self actualization implies that there is a strong motive in every individual to go beyond what one has attained as to achieve more. The concept of “Striving for superiority” by Adler (1927) is also related to the achievement motivation. Thus it is a psychological characteristic which has to be considered as an integral part of an individual’s personality make.

Definition of Achievement motivation

Murray (1938) defined achievement motive as the desire or tendency to do things as responsible as possible. Good (1959) defines achievement motivation” as a combination of psychological forces which initiates, direct and sustain behaviour towards successful attainment of some goal which provides a sense of significance, no single measurable factor seems to account for it, measurement is in terms of constant validation of inter related scholastic, social and individual factors.”

According to Heckhusan (1967) achievement motivation is the striving to measure or keep as high as possible one’s own capacity in all activities in which standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the executions of such activities can neither succeed nor fail.

Vidler (1977) defined achievement motivation as a pattern of planning of actions and of feelings connected with striving to achieve some internalized standard of excellence as contrasted for example with power of friendship.
Nicholls (1984) defined achievement behaviour as that behaviour which the goal is to develop or demonstrate to self or to other’s high activity or to avoid demonstrating low activity. This implies that in achievement situation individuals desire success to the extent that it indicates high ability and seek to avoid failure to the extent that indicates low ability.

. Development of Achievement Motivation

Motivation drives and directs behaviour, achievement motivation govern behaviour relevant to achievement and learning. An understanding of achievement motivation has implications for many aspects of human life, including how individuals develop new skills and how individuals make use of their existing skills.

Many approaches have been taken to explain achievement motivational process. Some approaches have included the examination of global achievement “motives” such as Self concept, self esteem etc. However, researchers have become aware of the need to examine specific concept that illuminates motivational processes. One such approach the “goals” approach has begun to provide answer to the basic questions in the field.

The goals approach grew out of research on adaptive and maladaptive motivation (Ames 1984, Diener and Dweek 1978). Findings from this research indicate that children of comparable ability often respond very differently when they encounter academic obstacles. Some children interpret their difficulties mean that they have low ability. They seem to lose hope that their efforts will lead them to success and their performance tends to deteriorate. This constellation of responses sometimes referred to as a “helpless” pattern, is considered maladaptive because it prevents individuals from reaching potentially attainable valued goals.
In contrast other children respond to obstacles as challenges to be mastered. These children do not appear to be upset by their difficulties and sometimes report feeling excited by the challenge.

They typically focus their attention on modifying their effort and strategy and they maintain or improve their level of problem solving. These reactions, which are frequently called “mastery-oriented” responses, are considered to be adaptive because they allow individuals the time that is often necessary to overcome difficulties and to progress toward valued goals.

Achievement motivation researchers have examined two classes of achievement goals. One class of goals, referred to as “performance goals” centers on issues of performance and adequacy. When individuals hold performance goals they are concerned with documenting their competence and they tend to view achievement situations as tests of their competence. Another set of goals termed “learning goals” revolves around learning and task mastery. When individuals hold learning goals, they strive to master new tasks and develop competencies.

Achievement motivation has its roots in early childhood. Child care practices, social cultural and economic conditions of the family, parental expectations about their children, the conditions in which particular groups live and culture of the society influence in developing a person’s motive to achieve. Man’s social origin and culture also affect the extent to which one acquires an achievement motive.

Self esteem and self concept is another factor facilitating the need for achievement. Some psychological factors like anxiety, level of aspiration, curiosity etc affect in developing one’s own achievement motivation. Ojha ((1973) observed that mothers love, father’ permissiveness and love were positively related to n-
achievement, whereas parental restriction and protection were negatively related to n-achievement. Achieve motive develops more in the family where independent development of the child is emphasized. Low achievement motivation is associated with families in which the children are more depended on their parents.

There is growing recognition that motivational processes are dynamic systems that have the potential to change over the course of development. Systematic research has been undertaken in order to understand the nature of the development of achievement motivation.

Nicholls (1984) found that young children do not understand or measure ability in the same manner as older children and that young children are more likely to expect effort to lead to desired outcomes. This emphasis on effort rather than ability is characteristic of the mastery oriented motivational response. These results suggest that young children are less likely to view effort as having negative implications for their abilities and are less apt to question the usefulness of effort. It also supports that children start off with relative motivational resistance and becomes less adaptively motivated as they grow older.

Stipek et al. (1992) suggest that when task are meaningful and failures are salient, some young children like their older counterparts respond to difficulties with negative emotional reactions and also display the thoughts and behaviors characteristics of the helpless pattern.

The children may think about their performance not in terms of how it reflects on their ability but on other important aspects of themselves. If failure in achievement situations does have implications for aspects of the self early in life, it would most likely hold meaning in terms of concepts that are familiar to young children. One set of such concepts relates to goodness and badness. Since teaching
children what is right and wrong is a major goal of socialization, children are likely to receive numerous messages regarding these issues. Thus young children may develop ideas about goodness or badness that they can apply to variety of situations, including achievement contexts (Dweek 1991).

In summary research has suggested that there may be meaningful differences in the ways in which younger and older children process ability information and respond to some achievement situations. Research also suggests that for young children differences in motivational patterns may be more closely related to conceptions of goodness and badness than to specific conceptions of intellectual competence.

**Theoretical Approaches to Achievement Motivation**

The roots of the present theories of achievement motivation are the theories of Freud, Hull and Lewin.

There are two main approaches to achievement motivation. The consistency theory approach and Expectancy value approach (Koreman, 1974).

**The Consistency Theory Approach**

Festinger’s theory of cognitive dissonance can serve as a base for predicting the conditions under which people will be motivated to achieve and the conditions under which they will not. The consistency theory means the motivation that person’s cognitions will tend to be logically and psychologically consistent with one another. If inconsistencies are present the individual attempts to reduce them by changing his cognition, behaviour or both, so that they are consistent with each other.
The Expectancy Value Approach

McClelland and Atkinson take the expectancy value approach to motivation. The basic assumption here is that people’s motivation to achieve something is a function of the value one expects to obtain. There are two important things to predict behaviour, the person’s motive or need for achievement, his expectancy of being to achieve in the given situations.

McClelland’s achievement motivation concepts is one of the most important expectancy value approach. He argues that achievement motivation develops in some people more than in other because for some people achievement outcomes have positive effects. For others these outcomes have negative avoidance effects on the individual. He argues that individuals differ in the degree to which they find achievement satisfying experience.

The Attribution Theory

Weiner (1972) and his associates have proposed an attribution theory of achievement motivation. They suggested that the cognitive appraisal or interpretation made by an individual when confronted with an achievement task is an important determinant of the individual’s willingness to undertake the task. Attribution about a task can be placed on two independent dimensions according to this theory. Persons motivated to approach success attribute to lack of ability and success to external factors such as luck.

Achievement motives

An achievement motive is a dispositional motivational tendency to energize competence relevant behavior and orient-individuals towards success or failure possibilities. Two primary achievement motives have been posited by theorists;
need for achievement, which represents a desire to approach success and fear of failure which represents a desire to avoid failure.

Theorists distinguish between two general types of motives; implicit motives are rooted in the mid brain structures and operate outside of conscious awareness, whereas explicit motives are rooted in cortical brain structures and are accessible to conscious awareness. Research has shown that implicit and explicit achievement motives are not related to each other strongly. However, factors such as one’s degree of access to bodily cues and one’s level of preference for consistency greatly influence the extent to which implicit and explicit competence motives are related.

**Achievement Motivation and Academic Achievement**

There are different interpretations for motivation. In the discipline of education motivation is a tridimensional phenomenon consisting of individuals’ belief’s in ability in carrying out a specific task, reasons and goals of the individuals in doing the task and the emotional response concerning carrying out the task (Hassanzadegh and Amuee 2001).

Psychologists have noted that motivation should be taken into account in education because of its effective relationship with new learning, abilities, strategies and behaviours (Shahraray 2007) and they have presented motivation for academic achievement as one of the preliminary constructs for defining such type of motivation. Motivation for academic achievement is attributed to behaviours which lead to learning and achievement (Masaali 2007). In other words, motivation for academic achievement is such a pervasive inclination towards doing a task successfully in a particular context and assessing the performance spontaneously.
The bulk of behaviours indicating the academic motivation involve insisting on doing difficult assignments, hard working or effort into learning to reach mastery and choosing assignments which need great efforts (Abedi 2008). Accordingly, motivation for academic achievement is a psycho-cognitive condition which is acquired once the individual perceive him to have autonomy.

The Psychologists have recognized and examined the effective factors in motivation for academic achievement. The results of their research indicated that personality, family, and social variables are related to this construct (Masaali 2007). Some others directed their studies towards integrating intellectual ability, learning style, personality and motivation for academic achievement as the predictors of academic achievement in higher education (Busato, Elshouta and Hamakeru 2009).

Studies have found numerous factors that motivate students to schools including perceptions of classroom climate, perceived ability, perceived instrumentality of instruction and achievement goals as predictor’s engagement and efforts in school (Hadre et al. 2007).

Student’s motivation in academic results from their perceptions of the classroom and sometimes from the interactions with teachers, peers and others in school (Hardre 2003, Pintrich and Schunla 1996). Many factors influence student’s motivation to learn including interest-in the subject matter, perception of the usefulness of studying, the desire to achieve, perception of one’s ability and persistence to achieve.

Experts, parents and teachers have been interested in discovering the important forces influencing students’ achievement in academic. Most people believe that motivation plays a significant role in determining whether students
achieve or fail. Each student has a different level of motivation as well as different personal and social factors that affect his or her motivation. It is imperative for educators and parents alike to understand better the interaction of the various aspects contributing to student’s motivation in order to ensure the academic success of school children.

Most studies to date have examined the relationship between one or two components of motivation and academic achievement. However, recent trends have challenged the views that academic motivation is one dimensional and instead attempted to understand the relationship between motivation and academic outcomes from multi dimensional aspects (Dowson and Mcinerney 2001). Research has suggested that motivation does not act individually but may be interrelated thus contributing to a wholesome effect on the motivation for students to achieve academically.

Different psychological perspectives explain motivation in different ways. It is logical to assume that no one particular type of motivation influence a person at any one time. Several components of motivation will be at work influencing an individual to become energetic and moves towards a goal. The social cognitive model of motivation sees motivation as a dynamic, multifaceted phenomenon (Pintrich 2000). They do not categorize students as either “motivated” or “not motivated”. They believe that students can be motivated in multiple ways, influenced by various factors and ways.

**Measurement of Achievement Motivation**

McClelland started research for the development of techniques for the measurement of motivation. The most common technique employed in measuring the achievement motivation has been an adaptation of Thematic Apperception
Test. Mc Clelland and his associates (1953) adapted Murray’s TAT technique for
the measurement of human motivation. On the lines of Mc Clelland’s work Mehta
(1969) developed Achievement values and Anxiety Inventory. It is a self reporting
kind of inventory to measure achievement motivation.

The achievement motivation test has developed by Herman (1970). It
consists of 20 multiple choice items based on 10 aspects of the achievement
motive.

Shah, Beena (1988) has developed an Achievement Motivation Scale using
four factors of need for achievement motivation. Thus it is evident that the
methods of measuring achievement motivation was based both upon the methods
of experimental psychology and on the insight of psychoanalysis.

The measurements techniques of motivation can be broadly classified into
five categories (Singh 1981). They are:

1. Production measures, behavior measures theoretically related to motivation
   and activities representative of academic interest and endeavor grade point
   average.

2. Self concept measures consists of questionnaires, rating scales and check
   lists which elicit an individuals assessment of his own behavior, belief for
   preferences.

3. Observer’s ratings are ratings made by the observers instead of the
   individuals.

4. Projective techniques are based on the assumption that men project some
   part of themselves in everything they do.

5. Objective tests are assessment procedure which obtains consistent scores.
2.2 EXAMINATION ANXIETY

Anxiety is a common phenomenon of the modern world and all of us are the victims of it one way or the other. The role of anxiety in the study of personality has been a child of the twentieth century. Freud (1949) was the first to attempt to indicate how the conditions under which anxiety arise. Even though considered it as a negative emotion it becomes generally the central emotional concept of many theoretical treatments in psychology. Anxiety has variously been considered as a state of the human organism; a physiological syndrome involved to account for defensive behavior, the avoidance of noxious stimuli and neurotic symptoms.

**Definition of Anxiety**

Dictionary of Psychology (1934) defines anxiety as an emotional attitude or sentiment concerning the future, characterized by an unpleasant alternation or mingling of dread and hope. This harrowing experience influences the achievement of students. Examination anxiety is considered as a causal variable affecting the performance of an individual.

According to Sieber, O’Neil & Tobias (1977) “The term ‘test anxiety’ refers to the set of phenomenological, physiological and behavioral responses that accompany concern about possible negative consequences or failure on an examination or similar evaluative situation.”

Sarason et al (1971) are of the view that the test anxious child often pays more attention to his own anxiety responses in test situation than to the tasks. Some children who consistently perform below par in situations characterized by a high degree of stress while taking important examinations: while some students strive
under examination pressure other student become highly anxious and cannot function at an optimum level (Dembo, 1977).

The Concept of Examination Anxiety

The subject of examination and evaluation occupies an important place in the field of education. Examination anxiety a worried, restless agitated distress that results from tests of performance or academic ability, affect everyone from athletes to students, to executives. Examination anxiety can either enhance performance or hinder it, depending on whether the triggering event requires physical or intellectual performance. Examination anxiety has become of particular concern to educators students and even to parents.

Students experiencing examination anxiety can have different characteristics. There are three types of test anxious students. Students in the first category lack the study skills to adequately prepare for tests and therefore lack the knowledge to perform well on tests. Students in the second category have the study skills necessary to prepare for the test but have a fear of failure that makes them unable to perform successfully in test situations. Students in the third category believe that they have the study skills, but they do not have. As a result, students in this category do not adequately prepare for the test and the poor preparation for the test causes anxiety.

Empirical studies have shown that the anxiety experienced by teachers has a significant impact on the test anxiety that is experienced by students. If teachers experience stress and anxiety, students can be expected to experience stress and anxiety. Conversely if teachers are relatively free of anxiety and stress then students can be expected to also be relatively free of anxiety and stress in the classroom setting.
Another way of explaining test anxiety is to consider it as an interactional or transactional process. Bandura (1982) said that test anxiety develops in a Social context. He described reciprocal determinism as the constant interaction of factors that are personal characteristics behavior that happen in reaction to the behaviors of others, and behaviors that happen in reaction to situations. This interaction of people with different personalities, the ways people react and the different situations, in which they find themselves because what they think, feel or do in reaction. One way to consider test anxiety might be to see it as an interactive process that takes place during the test situation.

One must understand how personality, behavioral characteristics, situations and backgrounds interact during a test situation to understand the problems that test anxiety causes for individuals in test performance. Behavior patterns that develop in the interactions that occur in a family play a role in the formation, growth and continuation of an individual’s anxiety. Likewise behavior pattern that develop in school affect the development, growth and continuation of test anxiety for students.

Mandler and Sarason’s (1952) investigations of test taking anxiety proposed a drive – conflict theory in which efforts to reduce anxiety were stimulated by behavior relevant to task completion and implicit attempts to leave the testing situation through self denigrating responses irrelevant to and interfering with task completion. Alpert and Haber (1960) formulated distinct constructs of facilitating and debilitating anxiety which suggested possibilities of conflict, the action of either separately or not experienced anxiety. Liebert and Morris (1967) divided debilitating anxiety into worry and emotionality and their experiments indicated that the first of these tended to interfere more with performance.
Spielberger’s (1966) theory of anxiety distinguishes anxiety as a trait (A-trait) and as a State (A-State). A-trait refers to individual differences in anxiety proneness, whereas A-State refers to individual differences in the actual response to a particular stressful situation. Measures of both kinds of anxiety tend to be positively correlated. High and low A-trait are inferred from the reported frequency of anxiety experiences, while differences in A-State are inferred from reports of the intensity of the experience, generally as it occurs but sometimes reminiscently.

All these formulations imply that test-taking anxiety interferes with performance, generally in a negative way. However, Tobias (1985) has suggested that test-anxiety may be a function of poor study habits or deficient skills of test taking, which themselves have deleterious effects on performance. Gaudry and Spielberger (1971) proposed that cognitive appraisal of the test situation as threatening to self-esteem stimulates; A-State which interferes with performance. A-Trait and intelligence appeared to influence cognitive appraisal such that at higher levels of ability, performance appeared to be facilitated by anxiety. Presumably the threats consequent on cognitive appraisal here enhance task directed drives (Mandler and Sarason 1952) rather than stimulating the emotional preoccupations characteristic of anxiety.

Some findings (Denney 1980, Tryon 1980) suggest that although treatments of test anxiety may be efficacious, reduced or controlled anxiety does not necessarily enhance performance. Diffenbacher and Hazaleus (1985) have suggested that emotionality and worry may be related but different constructs. Worry appears consistently to correlate negatively with performance and
performance expectations, while the relation of emotionality to these is less consistent (Morris et al. 1981).

Test taking anxiety may or may not be perceived as a controllable factor. This may depend on the degree of perceived threat involved. Covington and Omelich (1987) in investigating the purported interference function of test taking anxiety, administered the same test under evaluative and non evaluative conditions. The hypotheses that high anxious students would retrieve more information under circumstances of reduced threat than would low anxious students was not completely supported, particularly for complex test items. Easy item performance provided some evidence for the interference hypotheses. Their results may also indicate the importance of mastery of content in moderating test-anxiety and for enhancing performance on difficult items.

The reduction of anxiety is not always effective in enhancing performance, even though test-taking anxiety and performance are significantly related. It is important to distinguish subject matter examinations from mental tests. In the latter case reduction in test anxiety through psychological intervention appears regularly to enhance testing performance. Study skills and examination technique appear to be salient in knowledge testing. Reducing test anxiety is not a substitute for learning. It may be that where the worry component in test anxiety results from inadequate preparation, this is the most important component in terms of effects on performance.

The perceived threat of test and test like situations arises from several sources. These include task difficulty, the formalities of testing and the tests instrumental importance as a hurdle to be overcome. Difficulty refers to not only to the subject matter or the complexities of question or test item construction but also
to knowledge preparation and level of ability. Anticipated difficulty as a force of anxiety may thus in part be a function of lack of preparation, which is unstable but may have been capable to control personally. On the other hand difficulty as a consequence of low ability may be stable and is beyond personal control.

**Determinants of Examination Anxiety**

Sarason et al (1960) undertook an extensive study on school anxiety and test situations. There are two sets of factors: (1) factors that are immediately and directly responsible for anxiety and (2) factors that have had an impact during the child’s early years of life and whose vibrations spread throughout his life (Philips, Martin and Meyers 1972).

The first set of factors relates to such stress conditions in the environment as an ambiguous threat, a feeling of inability to hope and a situational constraint. The second group of factors is indirect and includes lower social class, racial ethnic minority status, sex identification, unpleasant pre school and early years experience and a non-supportive parent child relationship.

The impacts of examination anxiety on students are in varying ways. Important symptoms of examination anxiety can be classified into five. They are physical, emotional, behavioral, cognitive and social.

The physical symptoms include headache, nausea, extreme body temperature changes, excessive sweating, shortens of health, fainting, rapid heart beat, lightening of muscles, stomach upset, appetite change, increased perspiration, more frequent urination and dry mouth.

Emotional problems during examinations are atypical mood swings, excessive feelings of fear, disappointment, anger, depression, uncontrollable crying or laughing, worry, frustration, panic, feeling of helplessness and hopelessness.
In the behavioral context the symptoms are fidgeting, pacing, substance abuse, avoidance of tense movements, losing focus of actions, less coordinated movement, nail biting, moving or walking faster than normal and escaping behaviors such as partying the night before an examination.

Cognitive components of test anxiety include racing thought, going blank, difficulty concentrating, self-defeating thoughts, feelings of dread, comparing oneself to others, difficulty in originating thoughts, scattered attention, irrational thoughts, lasting disruptive day dreaming and self abusing thoughts.

The social problems are social withdrawal, avoidance of friends and family, unusual irritability with others and procrastination through increase socializing.

**Measurement of Examination Anxiety**

Anxiety levels can be inferred or measured in a variety of ways, one of the easiest ways is to ask the child how he feels about a particular situation. There are physiological indicators also as signs for anxiety. Tests can be used to identify anxiety; one of the widely used is the Test anxiety scale for children.

**2.3. STUDY HABITS**

Study habits and learning strategies refer to activities carried out by a learner during the learning process for the purpose of improving learning. This definition has three components, concerning the what, when and why of study habit and strategies. First study habits are the behaviours that the learner produces. Second they occur at the time of learning. Third they are intended as aids to learning.

The basis for a theory of study strategies comes from the information processing approach to human learning (Mayer 1984, 1987 Sternberg 1985). The model highlights three memory stores represented as sensory memory, short term
memory and long term memory and three cognitive learning processes represented by selecting, organizing and integrating.

The information processing model suggests four possible learning outcomes. First, if the learner fails to select relevant information no learning will occur. Consequently the student will perform poorly both on retention tests which cover the presented material and transfer tests which require applying the material in new situations. Second, if the learner pays attention to the material but does not work on organizing it then no meaningful learning will occur. In this case the student would be expected to perform well on retention tests but poorly on transfer tests. Third partially meaningful learning occurs when the learner selects and organizes relevant incoming information but fails to integrate it with existing knowledge. This learner would perform well on retention and on certain types of transfer tests. Fourth when all three learning process are engaged the learner builds a meaningful learning outcome that supports good retention and transfer performance.

Study habits are intended to elicit and guide one’s cognitive process during learning. A self directed learner processes appropriate study strategies and uses them at the appropriate times and places during learning. Knowing when to use or modify use of a study strategy is a kind of Meta cognitive skills.

Study habits play a vital role in the achievement of children. Higher learning outcome of every child is the result of excellent study habits. Poor study habits are one of the important causes of low achievement.

Study is very essential for learning and fundamental scholastic achievement. Acquisition of knowledge and skills, development of positive attitudes and inculcation of values at the mastery level constitute the main purpose
Theoretical Overview

of learning. Any application of energy directed towards the learning of new materials, the solution of a problem, the discovery of new relationships or similar purposeful activity can be considered to be study (Nault 1976). Study implies search for the mastery of facts, ideas or procedures that are unknown or partially known to the students.

A major portion of our day to day activities is dominated by our habits. Not only our actions but our attitude, aptitudes, interests, feelings and emotions are influenced and controlled by one’s habits. When we do a particular activity initially we may require deliberate and voluntary attention and deliberate effort from our part. If we repeat a particular activity several times in the same manner under the similar conditions it tends to become automatic. It is now learned as habitual action and thus habit is established.

Nelson (1942) defines habit as a pattern of movements relatively stereotyped than can be elicited by a limited class of associative stimuli in a wide variety of situations. Habits are the product of experience and practice.

Study habits exert a profound influence in the field of education and learning. Good and effective study habits help students learn with great ease and facility. In the class room we can see two types of students. One group having effective and good study habits can concentrate on their studies properly and score high marks. They can acquire new knowledge and skills in a short span of time with greater facility and enjoys the fruits of success. They can reach the stage of self actualization in their learning and this motivates them for further learning. The other group having poor and ineffective study habits shows less concentration on their study. They lack interest in their study and their performance in academic subjects become poor. This situation compels them to fix a low level of aspiration
in their study which is below their actual potential. It kills their motive to achieve.

It is therefore essential that proper care should be taken to develop effective and
proper habits of study in students form the very beginning.

**The Concept of Study Habits**

The concept of study habits was first introduced by Wrean, an American
psychologist in 1930. The students approach to learning is highly individualistic.
The manner of habits of study varies from person to person. One student may
underline the texts another may takes down notes. One may take many breaks
during study another may study for hours. One may prefer early morning for his
study another may prefer evening time for study. We often see students who are
above average in intelligence but are very poor in their scholastic achievement. A
great majority of them seem to have faulty or bad study habits, poor performance
and failure in scholastic area. Though there are many factors for poor performance
and failure in scholastic area, poor or bad study habits or lack of training in study
habits have an impact on learning. Psychologists and educationist felt that the
study process should be more effective and meaningful if learners were taught
specific study skills and techniques.

Study strategies can be categorized in terms of the cognitive process they
affect, strategies to promote selecting, organizing and integrating. Pressley and his
colleagues (1990) have suggested several study strategies that could become part
of the curriculum. They include summarization strategies, text structuring
strategies and question asking strategies. Summarization strategies involve writing
or stating the content of a passage or lecture in condensed form. Since
summarization strategies can be expected to activate the cognitive process of
selecting relevant information, they should improve student’s retention performance.

Text structuring strategies involve selecting pieces of information from a passage that fit within a general structure. Question generation strategies occur when a reader creates questions based on text material. When the learner generates transfer questions that require integration and extension of the material in the passage, he or she is encouraged to engage in selecting, organizing and integrating processes which results in superior retention and transfer performance.

Learning to learn

Learning to learn strategies and skills include any thoughts, emotions or behaviours that facilitate studying, understanding, knowledge or skill acquisition or the reorganization of one’s knowledge base. Strategic learners are able to set realistic yet challenging learning goals. They can use knowledge about (a) themselves as learners (b) the tasks they must perform (c) their repertoire of learning strategies and skills (d) their poor content knowledge and (e) their knowledge of the content in which they will be expected to use new learning both in the present and in the future, to help them select effective ways to study and learn new information and skills.

Strategic learner

Students who want to and are able to take much of the responsibility for regulating their own learning will be in a better position to succeed in a world with rapid technological and social change where life long learning will be required. Students must not only increase their knowledge and skills while they are in college, they must also learn how to manage their own learning. Strategic learners
can take responsibility for optimizing their learning in both academic and non
academic contexts (Pintrich 1791, Zimmerman and Schunk 1989).

Expert learners have a variety of different types of knowledge that can be
classified into five basic categories. They are:-

a) Knowledge about themselves as learners.

b) Knowledge about different types of academic tasks

c) Knowledge about strategies and tactics for acquiring, integrating and applying
   new learning.

d) Prior content knowledge

e) Knowledge of both present and future contexts in which their knowledge
   could be useful.

However these different types of knowledge are not sufficient for expertise.
Expert learners must also know how to use these various types of knowledge to
meet their learning goals and how to monitor their own progress so that they are
sufficiently flexible to alter what they are doing if a problem occurs. They need to
know how to use self-assessment or self-testing to determine if they are meeting
their learning goals or not.

Knowledge for strategic learning

The strategic learners have a variety of different knowledge basis that they
call upon and integrate to meet educational goals. They are:-

A. Knowledge about oneself as a learner

Strategic learners know a lot about themselves; they are aware of their
academic strengths and weakness, which subjects are harder or easier for them to
learn? What are their interests? Where do their talents lie? How do they prefer to
study? What are the best times of day for them to concentrate on their work? What are their current study habits and practices?

It is important for students to know about themselves as learners so that they can manage the internal and external resources necessary for attaining their learning goals. This knowledge includes personal resources such as emotions as well as knowledge of cognitive or study strategies. Using all of these information sources helps students to make decisions that will increase their probability of meeting a learning goal.

**B. Knowledge about different types of academic tasks**

Another type of knowledge needed by strategic learner is knowledge about the different types of academic tasks they will need to perform; such as reading text books, listening to lectures, watching demonstrations, writing papers, taking notes, preparing for tests and so on (Brown et al, 1983, Weinstein and Mayer 1986). Without this type of knowledge, students would find it difficult to get clear goals and optimize their study or learning activities (Pressley et. al. 1987).

**C. Knowledge of learning strategies and study skills**

The acquisition, integration, organization and storage of new knowledge are all facilitated by the use of effective and efficient learning strategies and study skills. (Pressley et al, 1987, Weinstein and Mayor 1986, Zimmerman 1990). A variety of processes and methods are included in this category, each of which is designed to help either organize the study environment, generate and maintain motivation, create positive effect towards learning goals and tasks, make new information more meaningful, help organize new information into more meaningful forms, integrate new information with old knowledge or reorganize
existing knowledge so that it can be integrated with new understandings and information.

A number of different strategies and skills for studying and learning have been identified in the research literature. The most common study skill described include time management methods, listening techniques, reading strategies, test taking skills, and dealing with study anxiety. Cognitive learning strategies include generating and maintaining motivation, eliminating negative self talk and debilitating anxiety, generating positive affect toward learning, building relationships among parts of the material being studied, relating new information to existing knowledge through various forms of elaboration, using cognitive monitoring to focus attention and to facilitate concentration, using comprehension monitoring to check on understanding and using executive control strategies to organize and orchestrate learning activities.

**D. Knowledge of Content**

Strategic learners are able to use prior knowledge they possess about different content areas to help them make sense of new information they are trying to learn and to help store the new information with related knowledge so that it will be easier to retrieve for future use (Alexander and Judy 1988). Thinking about prior content knowledge can increase understanding by providing a knowledge structure in which to place new information. It also helps students to establish relationships to the new information so that it might become more memorable. The more prior knowledge one has in any given area, the easier it becomes to make sense of new information in that area. This is why study in a new area is often more difficult than in one where the student already has some prior knowledge.
**E. Knowledge of Context**

Knowledge of context helps students to think about the contexts in which they might apply what they are trying to learn presently or in the future in meeting either their academic, personal, social or occupational goals. It is not enough simply to want to learn; students must also value the outcomes sufficiently to translate their motivations into actions (Corno 1989). At any given point in time, the decisions that individuals make about what they will think about or do is the result of a compromise among competing motivations. Which motivations become translated into actions, rather than simple wishes or dreams, is partly a function of the perceived utility values of the different anticipated outcomes.

**Definition**

Good (1959) defines study habits as the basic features involved in the application of the mind to a problem or subject the characteristic pattern which an individual follows in learning about things and people.

Pauk (1974) defined study habits as efficient means for using time and mind. Good study habits can be learned and made habitual. According to Nord (1985) study skills are those techniques such as summarizing, note taking, outlining or locating material which learners employ, to arrest themselves in the efficient learning of the material at hand.

Study habits is the sum of all habits, determine purpose and enforced practices that the individuals uses in order to learn; effective study habits have a direct correlation with academic success.

**2.4 SELF CONCEPT**

“Self Concept” can be understood as the relatively stable picture people have of themselves and their own attributes, an individual’s attitude towards his
physical and his own behavior. The two features of self concept are of particular theoretical and practical relevance; the content of self concept and the evaluative attributes of self concept.

Self concept consists of our perceptions of ourselves. Kobal and Musek (2002) defined self concept as “a psychological entity which includes our feelings, evaluations and attitudes as well as descriptive categories of ourselves. Self concept regulates social cognition, academic achievement and attitudes to schools. Self concept is a cognitive generalization about the self which mostly includes self-description of neutral values”.

Self concept is considered as an important parameter in the field of education and it is a means to understand a person and to enhance his or her potentialities to perform better in all areas of ability including learning.

An overview of research on the development of self concept must take into account considerable diversity of “self” constructs such as self, self concept, self-schema, self-understanding, self-knowledge, self-system, self-evaluation, self-esteem, and so on and closely related constructs eg: ego, identity which are sometimes used interchangeably.

**Nature of Self Concept**

Various theorists have emphasized different aspects of the structure, function and determinants of self concept. A particularly influential approach to the origin of self concept was “Symbolic interactionism”. Cooley (1902) introduced the concept of the “looking-glass self” to represent the idea that a person’s self concept is in large part the result of interactions with significant others.

A comprehensive theory dealing with the function of the self concept was suggested by Epstein (1979) who integrated a variety of positions on the nature of
self concept. According to Epstein, self concept serves two basic functions; a) hedonic, that is to maximize pleasure and minimize pain, (b) structuring or integrating ie to organize and assimilate the data of experience. Whereas the first function is equivalent to the enhancement of self esteem, the second focuses on the need to maintain the conceptual system and consistency.

The self concept has three major components, the perceptual, the conceptual and the attitudinal. The perceptual component is the image the persons have of the appearance of his body and of the attractiveness and appropriateness of his body. Such as his muscles, his build, his behavior and the prestige they give him in eyes of others. The perceptual component is often called the physical self concept.

The conceptual component is the person’s conception of his distinctive characteristics, his abilities and disabilities, his background and origins and his future, it is often called the psychological self concept and is composed of such life adjustment qualities as honesty, self-confidence, independence, courage and their opposites.

The attitudinal component of the self are the feelings a person has about himself, his attitudes towards his present status and future prospects, his feelings about his worthiness and his feelings regarding self-esteem, self reproach, pride and shame.

**Dimensions of self concept**

**Physical Self**

There are many traditional beliefs about the impact of facial features, body build and body functioning on personality. The body build of the persons affected his self concept favorably, if it permits him to do things that are prestigious or
better than other. It affects his self concept unfavorably if what he does has little prestige in the eyes of his social group. If he consumes his energy on useful, prestigious activities, the effect on his self concept will be more favorable than he utilizes it in useless and meaningless activities that are annoying to others.

Appearance plays an important role in social judgments and affects the self concept. A persons feeling that his appearance is such that he will be judged positively, will have a favorable effect on his personality. The more a person varies from the norms in physical attractiveness, the more he will vary in satisfaction and thus in the favorableness of his self concept. Studies illustrate how severely are unattractive feature can affect the self concept.

Hellsberg (1957) and Faust (1960) have pointed out that irregularities in the growth and functioning of different parts of the body also affect the self concept and life adjustment.

Social Self

The Social group judges a person in terms of his conformity to group expectations regarding proper performance, behavior and role playing. Social judgments serve as the basis for self evaluation, in this way the social group influences the self concept of the individual. The effect of the Social self concept on the behavior of the individual will depend largely on how important the opinions of others are on to him at times and person or persons who are most influential in his life at that time.

According to Jersild (1952) Bell (1960) Videbeck (1960) and Kinch (1968), the Social Self concept is based on the way the individual believes, other perceive him. It is usually referred to as a “mirror image”. Social self concept is derived from Social interactions. Therefore, whether the concept will be favorable or not
depends on how the social group treats the individual. A person who is a child or adolescent is discriminated against because of his race color, religion or social class with usually have a far less favorable concept of himself than the person who is not.

**Temperamental Self**

The predominance of a particular kind of emotional reaction – the person’s “prevailing emotional state” determines his temperament. Hilgard (1962) explains that temperament is that aspect of personality which is revealed in the tendency to experience moods or mood changes in characteristic way. The outstanding quality of temperament is that it tends to be persistent and as such discloses the emotions which play a dominant role in the person’s life.

Emotionally toned experiences affect the persons self concept at the time they occur but memories of experience continue to leave their mark. The greater the discrepancy between the real and ideal self concept, the more likely the person is to try to repress memories of unpleasant experiences. This he does in the hope of eliminating the damage they do to his concept of self.

**Intellectual Self**

As an important personality component intelligence is necessary to deal effectively, act purposefully and to think rationally. It ensures problem solving and adjustment to the environment. How well the individual’s likes come up to social expectations will have marked effect on his self concept. Mehta and Saraswat (1986) found that boys with superior scholastic ability found to have a more positive real self concept as compared to average boys.

The attitude of significant people, especially family members have more influence on the self concept of the persons of deviant intelligence than do the
attitudes of members of the social group as a whole. The closer the social relationship between the person and other the more their attitude towards him will affect his self concept.

**Moral Self**

The individual’s intellectual capacities affect his response to the group’s moral standard. The moral behavior of the individual, in turn is closely related to his adjustment to life, to the judgments other make of him and to his judgment of himself. The more closely his behavior conforms to the moral standards of the group, with which he is identified, the more favorable will be the effects on his personal and social adjustment. Conformity to the group’s mores will lead to group approval and personal satisfaction.

The influence of moral expectations on the self concept will depend on a number of conditions; whether the person is forced, by fear of punishment, to conform or whether he wants to conform because of the personal benefits he will derive from doing so, the attitude of the person who requires his conform and the method used to enforce conformity; and whether he feels secure is his moral beliefs and in his ability to translate these abilities into actions.

**Definition**

According to Rogers (1951) the self-concept is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one’s characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and the goals and ideas which are perceived as having positive or negative valence. It is then the organized picture existing in awareness either as figure or ground, of the self and the self in relationship, together with the positive and negative values which are associated
with those qualities and relationships as they are perceived as existing in the past, present or future.

Staines (1954) places the self concept into the realm of attitude and defines as a conscious system of percepts, concepts and evaluations of the individual as he appears to the individual. It concludes cognition of the evaluative responses made by the individual to perceived and conceived aspects of himself, an understanding of the picture that others are presumed to hold of him which is the notion of the person as he would like to be and the way in which he ought to behave.

Calhoun, Warren and Kurfiss (1976) defined self concept as the way an individual perceives himself and his behavior and his opinion of how others view him.

**Theoretical Approaches about Self Concept**

**The I-Me Dichotomy**

William James (1964) was the first psychologist to elaborate on the self concept. According to him the global self consists of “I” and “Me” ; I,or self as knower or process or doer and Me or self as known which can include a number of sub selves, physical, social, ideal, other etc. Each can not exist without the other; the self is simultaneously I and Me. In the widest sense the self as known is everything that a man can call his. James has given a comprehensive formulation of the self as known and detected the integrative aspects of the self concept.

**Symbolic Interactionism**

Cooley and Mead emphasized the origin of self concept through social interaction. Cooley and Mead produced a new perspective on the individual society relationship. Mead argued that self actually arises from social conditions. Cooley (1912) introduced the theory of the looking-glass self. It states that one’s self
concept is significantly influenced by what the individual believes others think of him. The looking glass reflects the imagined evaluations of others about one. The looking glass self arises out of symbolic interaction between individual and his various primary groups. According to Cooley self concept is formed by a trial and error process by which values, attitudes, roles, and identities are learned.

Mead (1934) suggested that the self was essentially a social process within the individual involving two analytically distinguishable phases- the ‘I’ and ‘Me’. He proposed that man is able to predict other man’s behavior and the predictions other men make the one’s own behavior. Mead considered the ‘Me’ as representing the incorporated ‘other’ within the individual. He considered ‘I’ as the perception of oneself as reflected by the shared meaning and values of ‘others’.

**Erikson on Identity**

Erikson (1993) used the concept of identity rather than self. The process of identity formation explained by Erikson is similar to the Cooley -Mead formulation of the generalized other. He states that identity comes from achievement that has meaning in the culture. Identity arises from a gradual integration of all identifications. It is necessary for children to come into contact with adults with whom they can identify. According to him identity formation is a continuing process of progressive differentiations and crystallizations which expand self awareness and self-exploration. He defined identity as a subjective sense of an invigorating sameness and continuity and it involves an individual’s relationships with his cultural context.

**Phenomenological Approaches**

Phenomenological approach attempts to understand man through the impressions of the subject. Perception is the central concept in phenomenology.
Perception refers to the processes of selecting, organizing and interpreting materials into a coherent construction of the psychological environment. It seeks to understand how the individual views and how his perception of his environment influences him to behave as he does.

**Carl Rogers View**

The present state and formulation of Self concept theory owes much to Rogers’s work. He developed self concept theory out of his experiences with clinical client centered approach to psychotherapy. According to Rogers (1951) self concept is an organized configuration of perceptions of the self. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one’s characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of self in relation to others and to the environment; the value, qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence.

**Development of Self concept**

A necessary precondition for the development of self concept is the ability to differentiate the self from the surrounding environment ie to develop a sense of the self as subject (the existential self). The second development task of the infant is to learn the particular attributes that define the self as object (the categorical self).

The development of the self as object can be characterized by two main features (Damon and Hart 1988, Rosenberg 1986). First, the pre schoolers typically dwell on their physical characteristics, their possessions and their likes and dislikes, with increasing age, psychological traits, attitudes, beliefs, fears and wishes come to predominate. This increasing focus on the internal world rather than overt and visible elements also reflects a growing capacity for and interest in
reflecting on personal feelings and thoughts. Second, self concept also becomes more differentiated with development. An infant’s classification and definition of the self starts with basic dimensions, such as age, size and gender and is extended by global psychological characteristics which becomes increasingly more finely tuned and complex overtime.

In contrast to this one-dimensional description of the development of self concept; Damon and Hart (1988) proposed a comprehensive theory of the development of self understanding. They argued that the main developmental change is not a shift from physical to psychological conceptions of the self. Rather they started that there are systematic developmental trends within each of the physical, the active, social and psychological selves. Development in each of these four areas of the self as object is claimed to progress through the same four stages; (1) categorical identifications (2) comparative assessments (3) interpersonal implications (4) systematic beliefs and plans. Damon and Hurt also postulated that the development of self as subject is also hallmarked by four developmental stages; (1) categorical identifications, (2) permanent cognitive and active capabilities and immutable self characteristics, (3) ongoing recognition of the self by others (4) relations between past, present and future selves.

**Determinants of Self Concept**

Researches showed that there are many factors which determine the development of self concept. According to Hurlock .E.B (1985) The following factors influencing self concept.

**Parental impact**

For infants, a secure emotional attachment to their caregivers is the crucial prerequisite for the development of a favorable self concept. According to Lewis
and Brooks-Gunn (1979) a key to the development of a favorable self concept is the experience of regular consistencies between actions and outcomes in the external environment, which allow the infant to establish generalized expectancies about control of the world.

For older children, self concept has been linked to patterns of child-rearing. One of the most prominent studies was by Cooper Smith (1967) who found that the parenting style used by parents of boys with high self esteem was characterized by high acceptance of their children; clearly defined limits on their children’s activities and within the limits set by parent’s standards and social norms.

**Level of Aspiration**

Individuals with realistic level of aspiration experience more success which leads to greater self confidence and self satisfaction and develop better self concept. Individuals having unrealistic high level of aspiration experience failure which results in the development of feeling of inadequacy, lack of confidence and poor self concept.

**Success outcome**

Individuals experiencing success outcome have stable self concepts and those having failure outcome have poor self concepts.

**Social Class**

Self concept is positively and significantly influenced by social class.

**Peers and Group**

Self Concept is influenced by peers and under group pressure.

**Measurement of Self Concept**

Different psychologists have developed different measures for self concept. Some of the measures is Q-sort, Semantic differential measure, Projective
Theoretical Overview

methods, Self Concept scale. The Q-sort developed by Stephonson (1953) is one of the most commonly used techniques for assessing self concept. The semantic differential measure has been developed by Osgood, Suchi and Taunenbum (1957) for measuring self concept. Projective techniques such as sentence completion (Rotter and Rafferty 1950, Smith and Lebo1950) have also been used to measure self concept. Many tools have been developed by Indian psychologists to assess the self concept in Indian contexts. Some of them are Indian Adaptation of Lipsitt’s scale by H.M. Singh, Self Concept Inventory by Beena Shah, and Self Concept Scale by Dr. Mukta Rani Rastogi.

2.5. HOME LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

From the last half of the 20th century onwards we have witnessed profound changes in family life throughout the world. Transmission from agrarian to industrialized economies, rapid advances in technology and automation and breakdown in traditional family structures have had ineradicable effect on the home life of families in both developing and industrialized societies. Stable hierarchical organizations of family life have in many cultures given way to radical changes in the roles of parents and children. Traditional two parent families have been replaced by single parent households in many countries. Even in two parent families many mothers work full time and are unavailable during the day. The greater independence and at times estrangement of children from their parents is heightened in many societies by the high percentage of children who work in part time jobs while attending school.

As a consequence; factors outside the home come to play more important roles in children’s lives. Peers often replace parents as the primary source of values
Theoretical Overview

and goals and children’s learning may depend more on their own social world than on what occurs at home.

These dramatic changes have required a new conceptualization of home environment. Rather than considering the family as a firm structure in which roles are clearly defined and the direction of influence in predominantly from parents to children, the family is viewed as a dynamic system in which there is the potential of mutual influence among all participants.

In this circumstance, the study of the effects of home environment on school learning, once the exclusive province of sociologists, has captured the attention of increasing number of developmental psychologists. Sociologists are more likely to be interested in socio cultural variables. Psychologists are more likely to be interested in fine-grained analysis of behavior within the home environment. Both approaches are obviously important and their combination is leading to a more detailed picture of the rich variety of ways in which the home environment can influence children’s performance at school.

Sociologists such as Majori Banks (1979) and Alexander and Entwisle (1988) have sought to bridge the gap between sociological and psychological approaches. Supplementing their work are analyses by psychologists; how environmental factors influence psychological process such as children’s motivation, personality characteristics, attitudes and beliefs and how these in turn influence learning.

The field has also benefited from the work of developmental psychologists who have highlighted the importance of the developmental status of the child. The home environment influences learning differently according to the child’s age. The variables affecting a 6 or 7 year olds learning do not necessarily operate in the
same manner after the student has been in school for several more years. Moreover, the home environment may change markedly over this period; for example parent child interaction declines as children grow older. Parents may spend less than half the time in care taking and interacting with children during the middle years of childhood than they did during the preschool years. (Maccoby 1984). The meaning of other variables such as paternal absence or paternal level of education may also differ according to the age of the child. By studying academic progress in conjunction with the rest of the children’s development; have yielded a better portrayal of the complex ways in which children may benefit or are impeded in their school learning by different types of home environment.

**Processes of Transmission**

The influence of the home environment is transmitted to children in many different ways. These ranges form the effects of the objective, physical environment in which child lives to the subjective psychological environment created by parents through their child-rearing practices. Each of these will be explored in the following sections.

**Physical Environment**

Little attention has been paid to the physical environment of the home as a contributor to school progress. Homes in industrialized countries are typically equipped with reasonable amounts of space, electricity and other modern amenities. In contrast, homes in many developing countries lack even the most fundamental necessities, including adequate food and fresh water. It is hard to imagine how children living in these unhealthy environments can learn effectively at school. In many developing countries the dramatic differences between the
home environments of rural people and those in the cities are accompanied by striking differences in what children are able to accomplish in school.

Even when economic conditions are not so dire many parents in developing countries spend significant portions of their limited resources on tuition books and school uniforms. Their willingness to do this offers a much stronger indication to children of how their parents value education than the case in more affluent societies where these expenditures place few limitations on other aspects of family life.

Children in economically sound families that do not allocate a quite place in the home for studying or that fail to provide their children with desks or workbooks demonstrate their family’s lack of support for education. Such conditions are less likely to occur in societies where strong emphasis is placed on education than in there where education is given a less central role in children’s lives (Stevenson and Lee 1990).

**The Child-rearing climate**

Explorations of the relation between psychological climate within the family and children’s development have a long tradition in research about children. One popular view is that of Baumrind (1973), who describes two important dimensions of family climate: a) the degree of parental guidance and control, (b) the amount of emotional support and encouragement – parents give to their children. A series of studies revealed small but consistent effects of child-rearing practices on children’s academic performance during high school (Dornbusch et al. 1987, Steinberg et al 1991). Students from ‘authoritative households (those high in support and control) tended to have the highest grade point averages. Their performance was better than that of students in either “authoritarian” households
those low in support and high in control) or in “permissive” households (those low in both support and control).

The relation between child-rearing and school performance is assumed to be mediated partially by the effects of child-rearing on other variables. For example, authoritative parenting is predictive of adolescents’ self reliance and feelings of autonomy. Thus moderate amounts of parental control along with positive emotional support help to produce a sense of competence and confidence in children. These characteristics are one considered to be important for success in school.

Hess and Azuma (1991) make a distinction between two modes of cultural transmission that influence the family climate. Osmosis, where nurturance, interdependence and close physical proximity provide exposure to adult values and instill a readiness on the part of the child to imitate, accept and internalize such values and teaching, where “direct instruction, injunctions, frequent dialogue and explanations are used”. Japanese parents were much less willing than United States parents to assume the role of teacher. They tended to rely more strongly on modeling as the means of Socialization, while parents in the United States depended upon a reward based training strategy.

Children’s success in School may depend in part on the extent to which mother-child interaction fits the cultural model and thereby matches the style of instruction in school. Hess and Azuma found that persistence in children a highly admired tract among the Japanese was significantly related to later academic achievement for Japanese children but not for children in the Untied States. In contrast, early independence, which is fostered in American culture, was a significant predictor for American, but not for Japanese children.
Parental Involvement

As children with increasingly diverse family backgrounds have begun to attend school, discord between the values and goals espoused by parents and by the schools has increased. For example, parents in many indigenous cultural groups appear to believe that a quite child is preferable to a talkative one and may rely more closely on modeling and other non verbal forms of instruction in teaching their children. Teachers at school on the other hand, expect children to be able to express themselves verbally and their teaching style relies heavily on verbal instruction. In attempting to reduce this discord between styles of teaching, efforts have been made to involve parents more closely in the activities of the school.

The degree of parental involvement varies widely. In some cases teachers simply went to inform parents about their educational procedures and practices. In other cases, increased parental involvement means that parents are urged to become familiar with their children’s daily assignments and progress. This may consist of attending parent teacher meetings or of communicating daily with the teacher through the note books children carry back and forth between home and school. In still other cases, parents are expected to assume direct responsibility for establishing educational policies.

While the benefits of parental involvement in their children’s education seem obvious, there has been little research to document the utility of the various forms this can take. Typical of the research there has been reported is the study of Stevenson and Baker (1987), who found that the extent to which parents were involved in school activities such as parent teacher organizations and parent teacher conferences was positively related to children’s school performance.
Involvement was greater among parents of younger children and among more highly educated mothers.

**Cognitive stimulation and Academic Assistance**

More direct ways in which the home environment can influence school learning are through cognitive stimulation and assistance with schoolwork. Although in many societies these responsibilities lie with the mother, this is not always the case. In three-generation homes, these tasks often become the province of grandparents; in other societies, all members of the family, including siblings and other relatives, share these duties.

Despite the potential for cognitive stimulation that exists in all homes, some families do not provide their children with experiences that help assure their success in school. Efforts have been made to remedy these deficiencies by instructing parents about ways in which they can help their children by talking with them, reading stories, providing toys and playing games. In some programs, mothers also participate in groups that involve instruction and mutual support. Many of these home-based intervention programmes have been found to improve children’s later performance in school and at times to enhance their cognitive functioning (McCartney and Howley 1992).

Parent’s provision of out-of-home experiences, including taking children shopping, visiting zoos, museums, and libraries, can also stimulate cognitive development. These opportunities for informal learning about the everyday world increase the fund of general information available to the child—a factor that has frequently been found to be predictive of skill in such subjects as reading and language arts.
The influence of direct assistance by parents on children’s school work is little understood. It is generally agreed that parental involvement and interest are necessary ingredients for academic success, but the form they take varies widely. Most parents in industrialized societies are capable of offering direct help to their children during the early years of elementary school, but fewer are able to do this when their children are in the later grades. Because of this, the primary way in which this interest is expressed is through the supervision of homework and the creation of an environment conducive to study. The “education norms” in many societies are distinguished not by direct forms of teaching but by the intense interest in education they convey to their children and the support they give to their children’s efforts to achieve.

**Beliefs and Attitudes**

More subtle in their influence are the beliefs and attitudes parents hold about ways in which the home environment can influence school learning. Several reviews (Goodnow and Collins 1990, Miller 1988) have documented how beliefs held by family members affect children’s development and how these in turn, are related to their success in school.

One focus has been on parental expectations and their satisfaction with their children’s academic progress. High standards are critical in establishing high levels of motivation for achievement; children cease to be motivated to work harder when they believe they are already meeting the standards set by their parents and teachers.

Parents also hold strong beliefs about the relative contribution of innate ability and efforts to children’s achievement. The importance of effort is acknowledged by parents in all cultures. What differs is the degree to which
parents in different cultures believe innate abilities limit what children are capable of accomplishing. A strong belief in innate ability undermines children’s motivation to study hard. Parents, teachers and children themselves believe that highly able children do not need to study hard to perform well and that intensive study is not especially productive for children with low levels of ability.

### 2.6. ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Measurement of the academic outcome of the students is an age old process. This phenomenon of educational measurement seems to fall in and out of favour in cyclic fashion over the time. Usually the era of a peak demand is followed by a period of increasing criticism of the inadequacies of testing and of the inability of tests to address the educational problems. But the most recent escalation in the use of tests gained impetus from such educational movements as “excellence”, “effective schools”, “public accountability”, and “minimum competency”. Teachers have to give classroom tests to assess learning outcomes and to motivate their students to learn. And schools continued to administer standardized testing programs to monitor the progress of each grade group and to assess curricular strengths and weakness. Thus students and teachers alike found themselves in some phase of testing-preparing to take a test, administering a test, review or explaining the results from a test.

Measurement data enter into decisions at all levels of education, from those made by the individual classroom teacher to those made by the minister of education. We have found the following classification approach, suggested by Thorndike and Hagen (1977), useful for understanding the various types of decisions that can be made in schools. The categories range from specific everyday in class decision making to much less frequent administrative decisions. The
categories of decisions discussed below are instructional, grading, diagnostic, selection, placement, counseling and guidance program or curriculum and administrative policy.

**Instructional decisions**

Instructional decisions are the nuts and bolts type of decisions made by all classroom teachers. These are the most frequently made decisions in education. Since educational decisions at lower levels have a way of affecting decisions at higher levels, it is important that these types of decisions be found ones.

**Grading decisions**

Educational decisions based on grades are also made by the class teacher but much less frequently than instructional decisions. The teacher considers test scores and decisions, teacher made tests are usually the most appropriate for grading decisions. Other factors such as attendance, ability, attitude, behavior and effort are also sometimes graded. Although each of these factors represents an area of legitimate concern to class teachers and although assigning grades for one or more of these factors is perfectly acceptable, these grades should be kept separate from grade for achievement.

**Diagnostic decisions**

Diagnostic decisions are those made about student’s strengths and weakness and the reasons for them. In schools formal diagnostic decisions are often made by specialists. These may include the resource teacher, school psychologist or educational diagnostician. In making diagnostic decisions, these specialists normally rely primarily on standardized tests and secondarily on tests of their own construction.
Selection Decisions

Selection decisions involve test data used in part for accepting or rejecting applicants for admission into a group, program or an institution. The Scholastic Aptitude test is used to select students for a particular college.

Placement decisions

Placement decisions are made after an individual has been accepted into a program. They involve determining where in a program someone is best suited to begin work. Standardized achievement test data are often used in elementary and secondary schools for placing students in courses that are at their current level of functioning.

Counseling and Guidance decisions

Counseling and guidance decisions involve the use of test data to help recommend programs of study that are likely to be appropriate for a student.

Curriculum decisions

The curriculum decisions are usually made at the school district level after an evaluation study comparing two or more programs has been completed. Teachers are often required to participate in these studies and even to help collect test data for them.

Administrative Policy Decisions

Administrative policy decisions may be made at the school, district, state or national level. Based at least in part on measurement data, these decisions may determine the amount of money to be channeled into a school or district, whether a school or district is entitled to special funding or what needs to be done to improve a school, district or the nation’s achievement scores.
Evaluation and Measurement

The purpose of evaluation is to make a judgment about the quality or worth of something – an educational program or student attainment. The terms formative and summative were introduced by Seriren (1967) to describe the various roles of evaluation in curriculum development and instruction. Formative evaluation is conducted to monitor the instructional process, to determine whether learning is taking place as planned. Summative evaluation is conducted at the end of an instructional segment to determine if learning is sufficiently complete to warrant moving the learner to the next segment of instruction.

Measurement is the process of assigning numbers to individuals or their characteristics according to specified rules. Measurement requires the use of numbers but does not require that value judgments be made about the numbers obtained from the process. We measure achievement with a test by counting the number of test items a student answers correctly, and we use exactly the same rule to assign a number to the achievement of each student in the class. Measurement is useful for describing the amount of certain abilities that individuals have.

Tests represent one particular measurement technique. A test is a set of questions, each of which has a correct answer that examines usually answer orally or in writing. Test questions differ from those used in measures attitudes, interest or certain other aspects of personality.

All tests are a subset of the quantitative tools or techniques that are classified as measurements. All measurements techniques are a subset of the quantitative and qualitative technique used in evaluation.

The goal of education is to develop in students a command of substantive knowledge. Achievement of this kind of cognitive mastery is certainly not the only
concern of educators. Parents and students, but it is the central concern. Also is the kind and nature of the achievement.

Thinking, understanding and performing are among the significant goals of education, but none of this behavior can be produced without a substantive knowledge base. Thinking is a process and knowledge is a product but the two are intimately related (Aaron 1971). New knowledge cannot be produced internally or used without thinking and thinking always involves knowledge. Thought processes are wholly dependent on the knowledge being processed. Knowing how to think can be distinguished from knowing what so is but cannot be separated from it. Acquiring knowledge and learning how to think thus would seem to be interdependent goals.

In order to assimilate new information learners must incorporate it into their own structure of knowledge. They must relate it to what they already know. The relating is understanding. The understanding of any separate thing involves seeing it’s relative to other known things. And knowledge that is understood is more useful than knowledge that is only information.

Teachers can give information to pupils. But they cannot give them understanding, for a persons understanding is a private, personal possession created by the one who seeks it. How much we know about a subject depends not only on how much information we have obtained from others or from our experiences. It depends also on how much we have thought about that information, related to it and tested it against other elements of information we have received. This is a primary purpose of study.

Educational achievement means acquisition of command over a store of usable knowledge and in developing the ability to perform certain tasks. Abilities
usually include anything from ability to explain, ability to apply knowledge, to ability to take appropriate action in practical situations.

The terms that some educators have used to identify or describe achievement are more impressionistic than demonstrative. Their categories of achievement are based on hypothetical mental functions like comprehension, recognition, analysis, scientific thinking or synthesis; functions that are not directly observable or readily understood. All important aspects of achievement can be described by the type of behavior required to demonstrate attainment of the achievement.

The fundamental concern of test developers is the process of translating the relevant structure of knowledge into tasks (test items) that require a demonstration of the knowledge and abilities of that specific structure. To do so require that the elements of the structure be identified so that test items can be written based on them. These elements can be represented in a variety of ways – propositions, instructional objectives or goal statements – and with varying levels of specificity.

The knowledge and understanding on which the instructional efforts in our schools are focused is the same knowledge and understanding that tests of achievement ought to measure. The specific knowledge we expect students to learn is represented by the instructional objectives. The teacher’s job is to define the structures of knowledge, the concepts and relationships that should form the basis of instruction. Statements of instructional objectives can be useful for instructional planning, for promoting intentional learning and for developing tools for performance assessment.
Instructional objectives

Instructional objectives are statements that describe the abilities students should be able to display to demonstrate that important concepts and principles have been incorporated into their own structures of knowledge. These statements indicate what the learner should be able to do at the end of an instructional sequence. Because the development of cognitive abilities ought to be the primary concern of our schools, the delineation of these important abilities is no trivial matter. Particularly at the elementary and secondary school levels, the job of deciding what students should learn, what they should know should not be left to the classroom teacher alone. Most purposeful formal learning is organized in the context of a curriculum defined in terms of grade levels and subject matters.

The instructional objectives are derived from a few broad educational goals through successive stages in hierarchical fashion. In other words, the pyramid develops from a small set of educational goals that indicate the purpose of the instructional programme. These goals are broad, general statements that are the foundation of the educational program. In order to accomplish the educational goals it is to formulate the level objectives, the objectives at the school grade levels. The level objectives suggest the need for a particular course in a particular grade level. Another tier of objectives is needed to define in more detail the curriculum of the particular grade, known as the course objectives. Once course objectives have been specified teachers must organize them logically and sequentially. Such activities result in the formation of instructional units, defined by yet more detailed descriptions of the abilities students should attain known as the instructional objectives The final tier, prerequisite knowledge, suggests that
new learning builds on prior learning and that students entering behaviors must be considered in planning the instructional procedures for a particular unit.

Instructional objectives should be prepared primarily by those who will do the teaching. The statements should be written in a form and at a level of specificity that will make them most useful for their intended purposes. Objectives that have been prepared to guide instructional planning or to communicate intended learning outcomes to students can also be used in evaluation planning and test development.

The approach to developing objectives recommended by Groanlund and Linn (1990) incorporates both implicit statements, what they call general learning outcomes and explicit statements, what they call specific learning outcomes. Preparation of the instructional objectives for a specific situation may be dictated by the teaching model adopted. The individualized approaches to instruction require explicit statements of objectives to define and organize the curriculum, to plan instructional activities, to monitor learner progress and to advance the learner through the curriculum. The instructional objectives can also be useful to test constructors as guides to determine the nature of test content and the differential emphasis of topics within a test.

**Taxonomy of academic achievements**

A number of educators have devoted considerable effort to reducing the ambiguity associated with stating instructional objectives and translating these objectives into relevant test items. This may otherwise know to the taxonomy of educational objectives. The important contributions to this field were, Bloom’s taxonomy, Ebel’s Relevance Guide and Gagne’s learning outcomes.
Achievement Tests

Learning cannot be promoted effectively by teachers and students who have no particular goals or who pay no attention to the results of their efforts. If test were abandoned, some other means of assessing achievement would have to be used in their place. Unfortunately perhaps no other means that is as efficient, as dependable and as beneficial to the educational process has been discovered yet.

The major function of a classroom test is to measure student achievement and thus to contribute to the evaluation of educational progress and attainments. The tests often do help teachers and instructors to assign meaningful and accurate grades. Because these grades are meant to be a comprehensive measurement of student achievement, because they are reported to students and their parents to indicate how effective their efforts have been and because they are entered in the permanent school record and may influence opportunities for future education and employment, it is important that teachers and instructors take seriously their responsibilities for assigning grades.

Conclusion

The investigator examined in detail the theoretical framework of Achievement motivation, Correlates of achievement motivation such as Examination anxiety, Study habits, Self concept and Home learning environment. This helped the investigator to frame the topic of study and to adopt the suitable methodology to carry out the study.