CHAPTER - II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A literature review is a description of the literature relevant to a particular field or topic. It gives an overview of what has been said, who the key writers are, what are the prevailing theories and hypotheses, what questions are being asked, and what methods and methodologies are appropriate and useful. As such, it is not in itself primary research, but rather it reports on other findings. A literature review uses as its database reports of primary or original scholarship, and does not report new primary scholarship itself. The primary reports used in the literature may be verbal, but in the vast majority of cases reports are written documents. The types of scholarship may be empirical, theoretical, critical/analytic, or methodological in nature. Second a literature review seeks to describe, summarize, evaluate, clarify and/or integrate the content of primary reports.

A literature review may be purely descriptive, as in an annotated bibliography, or it may provide a critical assessment of the literature in a particular field, stating where the weaknesses and gaps are, contrasting the views of particular authors, or raising questions. Such a review will not just be a summary but will also evaluate and show relationships between different materials, so that key themes emerge. Even a descriptive review, however, should not just list and paraphrase, but should add comment and bring out themes and trends.

Review of related literature in the concerned field is of greater significance in locating the research problem. Hence, it plays the pivotal role at the crucial juncture of planning of the study. Review of related literature is an intellectual pursuit, essential to the development of the
problem and to find out an effective approach to its solution. Practically all human knowledge can be found in books and libraries, unlike other animals that must start with each generation. Man builds upon the accumulated and recorded knowledge of the past. The importance of related literature cannot be denied in any research.

It works as guidepost not only with regard to the quantum of work done in the field but also enables us to perceive the gaps and lacuna in the concerned field of research. The similar or related studies carried out by researchers at various levels are called review of related literature. The various sources of it are the research reviews and survey books, journals, newspapers, records, documents, indexes, abstracts, dissertations, internet based data base etc. and other information directly or indirectly connected with the problem of investigation. Importance of related literature can be presented below:

1. It is crucial step to minimize the risk of dead ends, rejected topics, rejected studies, wasted efforts, trials and error activity oriented towards approaches already discovered by previous investigations and even more important erroneous findings on a faulty research design.

2. It makes study comparative and critical.

3. It provides ideas, theories, explanations or hypothesis in formulating, solving the problem and interpreting the finding.

4. It also suggests method of suitable research to the problem.

5. Thorough and comprehensive evaluation and synthesis of the sources are the qualities of related literature.

Purpose of review of related literature:

1. It shares with the reader the results of other studies that are closely related to the study being reported.
2. It relates a study to the larger, ongoing dialogue in the literature about a topic, filling in gaps and extending prior studies.

3. It helps to identify the inadequacies (in terms of coverage and methodology) of the earlier studies.

4. It provides a framework for establishing the importance of the study, as well as a benchmark for comparing the results of a study with other findings.

From the above discussion, it is clear that for any worthwhile investigation a review of related literature in the field of investigation is of great help to the investigator. The investigator tapped the various sources of available literature pertaining to the problem of present study. A comprehensive review of related studies is classified year wise under the following heads:

- Studies related to academic Stress.
- Studies related to happiness
- Studies related to academic achievement motivation
- Studies related to self-regulation.

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC STRESS

Bartwal & Raj (2014) conducted a research on “Academic stress among school going adolescents in relation to their social intelligence”. This study investigated the relationship between academic stress and social intelligence. Data were collected from rural and urban area of Bathinda city in Punjab. The sample consisted of 200 school going male and female adolescents. Results of the study revealed that there were no significant gender differences with regard to academic stress and social intelligence among rural and urban adolescents. Male and female students experienced same amount of academic stress. A significant correlation was found
between academic stress and social intelligence of rural and urban adolescents. The high social intelligence level would have better degree of coping with the academic stress. Social intelligence plays a vital role in reducing academic stress.

Xiao, J. (2013) worked on “Academic Stress, Test Anxiety, and Performance in a Chinese High School Sample: The Moderating Effects of Coping Strategies and Perceived Social Support”. This study investigated relationships among academic stress, test anxiety, coping strategies, perceived social support and test performance in a Chinese high school sample. Specifically, this study tested the moderating effects of coping strategies and perceived social support on the relationships between academic stress, test anxiety, and test performance. Four hundred and fifty Chinese high school students completed four surveys: 1. Test Anxiety Inventory (TAI; Spielberger et al., 1980)-Chinese Version, 2. Academic Stress Scale (ASS; Kohn & Frazer, 1986)-Chinese Version, 3. Simplified Coping Styles Questionnaire (SCSQ; Xie, 1998), and 4. A revised Chinese version of the Multi-dimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS; Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1998). Scores from the pre-National College Entrance Exam (pre-NCEE) were obtained from the school. Hierarchical multiple regressions indicated that academic stress was positively related to students’ test anxiety and negatively related to their academic test performance. Test anxiety had a negative relationship to test performance. While active coping was not found to moderate the relationships among academic stress, test anxiety, and academic performance, perceived parent support and perceived other support moderated the relationships between test anxiety and test performance as well as between academic stress and test anxiety. These moderation effects were in a different direction than predicted as there were stronger
relationships between test anxiety and test performance, and between academic stress and test anxiety, when students reported higher levels of perceived parent support or other support. This study contributes to the research literature by exploring the integrative relationships among academic stress, test anxiety, test performance, coping strategies, and perceived social support. Findings of this study and related literature are considered for public policy and the design of training programs aimed at assisting Chinese high school students cope with academic stress and test anxiety.

Sun (2012) submitted a thesis entitled “Educational stress among the Chinese adolescents: Measurement, risk-factors and associations with mental health” for the degree of doctor of philosophy. Survey was conducted with a sample of 1627 secondary school students to examine the influencing factors of educational stress and its association with mental health outcomes including depression, happiness and suicidal behaviours. Study revealed that most of the strong factors for academic stress were school or study related, including rural school location, low school connectedness, perceived poor academic grades and frequent emotional conflicts with teachers and peers. The study revealed positive relationship between educational stress and poor mental health. Educational stress makes the largest contribution to depression but only has marginal effect on perceived happiness. Findings show that the relatively weak association with happiness suggest that happiness may be a much broader concept than mere absence of stress and many other problems. Many positive individual and environmental factors, such as self-efficacy and family connectedness may be more important in relation to happiness.

Kadapatti and Vijyaluxmi (2012) endeavoured to know the stressors of academic stress among pre-university students. The sample
consisted of 360 pre-university students of both boys and girls drawn using random sampling method from four co-educational colleges. The results showed that high aspiration, poor study habits, more study problems, change in medium of instruction and low socio-economic conditions are the factors responsible for academic stress and become stressors for stress among selected respondents.

Busari (2012) worked on “Identifying Difference in Perceptions of Academic Stress and Reaction to Stressors based on Gender among First Year University Students”. This study identifies the difference in the perceptions of academic stress and reaction to stressors based on gender among first year university students in Nigeria. Student Academic Stress Scale (SASS) was the instrument used to collect data from 2,520 first year university students chosen through systematic random sampling from Universities in the six geo-political zones of Nigeria. To determine gender differences among the respondents, independent samples t-test was used via SPSS version 15.0. The results of research showed that male and female respondents differed significantly in their perceptions of frustrations, financials, conflicts and self-expectations stressors but did not significantly differ in their perceptions of pressures and changes-related stressors. Generally, no significant difference was found between male and female respondents in their perceptions of academic stressors, however using the mean scores as basis, female respondents scored higher compared to male respondents. Regarding reaction to stressors, male and female respondents differ significantly in their perceptions of emotional and cognitive reactions but did not differ significantly in their perceptions of physiological and behavioural reaction to stressors.

Calaguas (2011) examined the perception of academic stress among college students in a state college in the Philippines highlighting gender
differences. In order to achieve the purpose of the study, an indigenous survey instrument was developed. A total of 1,210 college students chosen through systematic random sampling responded to the survey instrument. To determine gender differences among the respondents, independent samples t-test was used via SPSS version 15.0. Statistical analyses showed that male and female respondents differed significantly in their perceptions of subject, teacher, schedule, classroom, and expectation-related stressors but did not significantly differ in their perceptions of enrolment and admission, classmate, and financial-related stressors. Generally, no significant difference was found between male and female respondents in their perception of academic stressors, however using the mean scores as basis, female respondents scored higher compared to male respondents.

Gupta et al (2011) examined the level of academic stress and educational achievement of secondary school’s children. Academic stress inventory of Abha Rani Bist (1972) was used. The academic stress was measured through its four components i.e. frustration, conflict, pressure and anxiety. 1. About frustration, the result showed that boys were comparatively more frustrated than girls. 2. While about academic conflict, the result showed that boys and girls both experienced mental conflict equally in their academic situation. 3. About academic pressure the result showed that girls student perceived more pressure than boys. 4. About the anxiety the result showed that girls were found comparatively more anxious than boys in academic situation. Academic stress was related to poor achievement and this trend was shown by the girls prominently.

Nandamuri and Gowthami (2011) endeavoured to explore the components of academic stress among the post graduate management students. The study tried to make a further in-depth investigation into each component of academic stress such as curriculum and instruction, team-
work related issues, assessment, and placement, to identify micro issues that are causing stress. Around twelve micro issues have been identified under the curriculum and instruction component while four stressors were prioritized related to team work, five sub issues regarding assessment and three micro issues under placement components of academic stress.

**Conner, Pope, and Galloway (2010)** explored what students themselves said about the causes of their school-related stress and then looked at ways to reduce it. Many students reported feeling stressed out, overworked, and sleep deprived. They spoke of the tolls of stress on their mental and physical well-being and on their ability to learn academic material. Ultimately, their comments raise questions about whether a student's grade point average, frequently used as a marker of student success, is a good indicator of what students are actually learning and accomplishing.

**Agolla and Ongori (2009)** conducted a research on “An assessment of academic stress among undergraduate students: The case of University of Botswana”. This paper investigated the stressors, symptoms and effects that are likely to be experienced by the undergraduate students in higher institutions (Universities). Stressors related to time, academic pressure, and academic environments were explored. It was found out that, academic workload, inadequate resources, low motivation, poor performance in academic, continuous poor performance in academic, overcrowded lecture halls, and uncertainty of getting job after graduating from the university lead to stress among students.

**Arun and Chavan (2009)** conducted a cross-sectional study to find out academic stress, psychological health, and presence of suicidal ideas in students and to find out any correlation between these variables. Data was collected on 2402 students from classes VII to XII on socio-demographic
scale, 12-item general health questionnaire, Mooney problem checklist, and suicide risk eleven- a visual analogue scale. Statistical analysis used was chi square and Spearman's correlation. The results showed that out of 2402 students, 1078 (45.8%) had psychological problems, half (1201 students) perceived problems in their role as students, 930 (45%) reported academic decline, 180 (8.82%) students reported that life was a burden, 122 (6%) reported suicidal ideas and 8 (0.39%) students reported suicidal attempt. The study also revealed that students with academic problems and unsupportive environment at home perceived life as a burden and had higher rates of suicidal ideations.

Rao (2008) submitted a dissertation entitled “Academic stress and adolescent distress: The experiences of 12th standard students in Chennai, India” in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and the purpose of the study was to assess the prevalence of academic stress and adolescent distress. A majority of students reported that they were stressed by the coming school year, and rates of depression and anxiety were very high in the sample. Further analyses indicated that different groups of students appeared to experience distress in different ways. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 12th standard students to explore their perceptions of academic stress and adolescent distress. Their perceptions could be categorized into six themes: busy schedules, experience of stress, somatic symptoms, attitudes and beliefs about 12th standard, the role of God vs. hard work, and education reform. The same interview data was also used to understand the role of parents. Analysis suggested that parents were involved in their child’s education in five ways– they had specific expectations for achievement, they put pressure on their children, they compared their child to others, they controlled the study environment, and they were supportive of their
children. Some categories appeared to be associated with a greater experience of academic stress and adolescent distress than others. The interview data was also explored for gender, academic track, and school type differences. Jointly, these findings suggest that academic stress and adolescent distress is indeed a significant problem in Chennai, India.

**Hussain et al (2008)** conducted a study entitled “Academic Stress and Adjustment among High School Students” to examine the level of academic stress and overall adjustment among Public and Government high school students and also to see relationship between the two variables (academic stress and adjustment). For that purpose 100 students of class IX were selected randomly from two different schools out of which 50 were taken from Public and the remaining 50 were taken from Government school. Sinha and Sinha scale for measuring academic stress was used to see the magnitude of stress and Sinha and Singh Adjustment Inventory for school students was used to examine level of adjustment among the students. Results indicated that magnitude of academic stress was significantly higher among the Public school students where as Government school students were significantly better in terms of their level of adjustment. However, inverse but significant relationships between academic stress and adjustment were found for both the group of students and for each type of school.

**Ang & Huan (2006)** examined relations among academic stress, depression, and suicidal ideation in 1,108 Asian adolescents 12–18 years old from a secondary school in Singapore. Using Baron and Kenny’s [J Pers Soc Psychol 51:1173–1192, 1986] framework, this study tested the prediction that adolescent depression mediated the relationship between academic stress and suicidal ideation in a four-step process. The previously significant relationship between academic stress and suicidal ideation was
significantly reduced in magnitude when depression was included in the model providing evidence in this sample that adolescent depression was a partial mediator. The applied and practical implications for intervention and prevention work in schools are discussed. The present investigation also served as a demonstration to illustrate how multiple regression analyses can be used as one possible method for testing mediation effects within child psychology and psychiatry.

**Misra and McKean (2001)** conducted a study at a Midwestern university and investigated the interrelationship among academic stress, anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction among 249 university undergraduates by age and gender. The study showed that time management behaviours had a greater buffering effect on academic stress than leisure satisfaction activities. Significant gender differences existed among all the measures. Females had more effective time management behaviours than males, but also experienced higher academic stress and anxiety. The study also revealed that males benefited more than females from leisure activities. Anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction were all predictors of academic stress in the multivariate analysis. Anxiety reduction and time management in conjunction with leisure activities may be an effective strategy for reducing academic stress in college students.

**Pfeiffer, D. (2001)** submitted a research paper entitled “Academic and environmental stress among undergraduate and graduate college students: A literature review” in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Master of Science Degree. This study revealed that graduate students have more stress in their lives while completing school than undergraduates. Graduate students seem to have more life changes that are occurring while they are in school. This literature review was help to show the interventions that can be used to help reduce the stress level.
Struthers, Perry & Menec (2000) conducted a research on “An Examination of the Relationship among Academic Stress, Coping, Motivation, and Performance in College”. The purpose of this research was to examine the extent to which college students' academic coping style and motivation mediate their academic stress and performance. A structural equation analysis showed that the relationship between college students' academic stress and course grade was influenced by problem-focused coping and motivation but not emotion-focused coping. As expected, greater academic stress covaried with lower course grades; however, students who engaged in problem-focused coping were more likely to be motivated and perform better than students who engaged in emotion-focused coping. Strategies for promoting more effective coping in college students are discussed.

Jemmott et al (1983) conducted a research on Academic stress, power motivation, and decrease in secretion rate of salivary secretory immunoglobulin A. The effect of academic stress on immune function, as measured by the rate of secretion of salivary secretory immunoglobulin A (s-IgA), was studied prospectively in 64 first-year dental school students. Perceived stress and s-IgA secretion rate were measured five times—during an initial low-stress period, three high-stress periods coinciding with major examinations, and a final low-stress period. The s-IgA secretion rate was significantly lower in high-stress than low-stress periods for the whole group. In addition, personality characteristics differentiated patterns of s-IgA secretion rates. Students characterised by a great need to establish and maintain warm personal relationships secreted more s-IgA at each point than did all other subjects. The s-IgA secretion rates of those with a high inhibited need for power continued to decline through the final low-stress period rather than recovering as in all other subjects.
2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO HAPPINESS:

Oswald et al (2014) worked on “Happiness and Productivity” and this study explored a question of interest to economists, behavioral scientists, employers, and policy-makers. Does ‘happiness’ make human beings more productive? The study provided evidence that it does. The sample size in study, which proceeded over a number of years, is 713 individuals. Each of these employed a different form of experiment (numbered I, II, III, and IV). “Experiment I” on short-run happiness shocks, induced by a movie clip, within the laboratory; “Experiment II” which was similar but also asked happiness questions throughout the lab experiment; “Experiment III” using a different form of short-happiness shock (fruit, chocolate, drinks) in the laboratory; “Experiment IV” on severe happiness shocks from the real-world. The results point to the existence of a positive association between human happiness and human productivity. The treated individuals had approximately 12% greater productivity. Lower happiness is systematically associated with lower productivity.

Kaur et al (2014) conducted a research on “Happiness among Indian and Canadian university students: A comparative study”. The sample consisted of 182 university students, 91 students (35 male and 56 female) each from India and Canada (41 male and 50 female) purposively selected from Delhi and Ontario. Descriptive survey method was used for the study. The 29 items Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI) developed by Michael Argyle was used for collection of data. Data obtained were analysed using statistics like Mean, Standard Deviation, and t-test. Findings indicate significant difference in the happiness of Indian and Canadian university students, with Canadian university students were found to be happier than their Indian counterparts. Significant difference
also exists in the happiness of Indian female university student and Canadian female university students, with Canadian female university students were found to be happier than their Indian counterparts. Results further reveal no significant difference in happiness of Indian male university students and Canadian male students.

Edited by Helliwell, Layard and Sachs (2013) World Happiness Report 2013 strengthens the case that well-being should be a critical component of how the world measures its economic and social development. The report was published by the Sustainable Development Solutions Network (SDSN). Leading experts in several fields – economics, psychology, survey analysis, national statistics, and more – described how measurements of well-being could be used effectively to assess the progress of nations. The World Happiness Report 2013 offered rich evidence that the systematic measurement and analysis of happiness could teach us a lot about ways to improve the world’s well-being and sustainable development.

Veenhoven and Choi (2012) conducted a research on “Does intelligence boost happiness? Smartness of all pays more than being smarter than others”. The relation between intelligence and happiness is explored on two levels, at the micro-level of individuals and at the macro-level of nations. At the micro-level, the results of 23 studies were considered and no correlation between IQ and happiness was found. At the macro-level, the correlation between average IQ and average happiness in 143 nations was assessed and a strong positive relationship was found. Together these findings mean that smartness of all pays more than being smarter than others. This suggests that intelligence adds to happiness only indirectly through its effects on society. Educators should acknowledge this counter intuitive finding.
Gudmundsdottir (2012) conducted a research on “Determinants of Adolescents’ Happiness”. The aim of this research was to explore the relations between socio-demographic factors and happiness among Icelandic adolescents as well as finding which factors are best predictors of adolescents’ happiness. A sample of 2000 Icelandic adolescents aged 14 to 15 years in 9th and 10th grade was analysed. The main results showed that 86.6% of Icelandic adolescents describe themselves as happy. The results demonstrated no difference in happiness between gender. Those who had experienced that their parents had divorced had significantly lower happiness score. Parent’s education, being religious and time spent with parents had a positive correlation with adolescents’ happiness whereas financial difficulties had a negative correlation with happiness. The relation between loneliness and happiness was strongest of all the relations measured in the study. When all the factors were tested together in a stepwise linear regression, the loneliness alone accounted for 18% of the happiness variance. It was confirmed in the study that the more loneliness the adolescents experienced the less their reported happiness. Finally a strong positive correlation was found between physical health and happiness.

Bergsmal et al (2011) worked on “Happy life expectancy associated with various mental disorders”. The respondents were interviewed using the Composite International Diagnostic Interview (Wittchen et al, 1991) to assess mental disorders. Happiness was measured using a single question on how often respondents had felt happy during the past four weeks. The scale ranged from 1 = never felt happy, 2 = rarely felt happy, 3 = sometimes felt happy, 4 = often felt happy, 5 = usually felt happy, until 6 = always felt happy. The one-month prevalence of different mental disorders and the associated levels of happiness was used in the
calculations of the loss of happy life years for different mental disorders. It was taken into account that unhappiness is associated with a loss of longevity (Lyubomirsky et al. 2005, Veenhoven, 2008). The most happy group (usually of always happy) got an additional 2.5 months of life and the most unhappy group (never or rarely happy) lost five life years. The loss of happiness associated with mental disorders is enormous and shows that treating mental disorders probably offers the best changes to enhance the happiness of the population.

**Kamvar, Mogilner, Aaker (2009)** worked on “The Meaning (s) of Happiness” and it was found that that the meaning of happiness is not fixed. It shifts as people age: Whereas younger people are more likely to associate happiness with excitement, older people are more likely to associate happiness with feeling peaceful—a change driven by increasing feelings of connectedness (to others and to the present moment) as one ages.

**Michalos (2008)** endeavoured to find answers to the questions ‘Does education influence happiness and if so, how and how much? And he has agreed that it depends on how one defines and operationalizes ‘education’, ‘influences’ and ‘happiness’. If ‘happiness’ is understood in the robust eudaimonist sense of overall human wellbeing, then education evidently has an enormous impact. The study suggests that any discipline-driven, reductionist definition that psychologizes, medicalizes, economizes, geneticizes, socializes or politicizes the idea should be avoided.

**Cid, Feeres and Rossi (2008)** tested happiness hypotheses among the elderly and found that people in Uruguay had a tendency to report themselves happy when they had higher standards of wealth and they reported lower level of happiness when they lived alone and their nutrition is insufficient.
Furnham & Christoforou (2007) conducted a study and the title was “Personality Traits, Emotional Intelligence, and Multiple Happiness”. This study set out to re-examine the predictors of self-reported trait happiness as measured by the Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI) as well as the predictors of various happiness types proposed by Morris (2004). In all, 120 Cypriot participants completed the 4 questionnaires: Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI), Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue-SF), and Morris Multiple Happiness Inventory (MMHI). It was hypothesized that Extraversion and Neuroticism would be, respectively, positively and negatively correlated with happiness and trait EI would be a positive predictor of happiness. Considering Morris’ happiness types, it was hypothesized that specific individual difference variables (Extraversion, trait EI, religiousness, Neuroticism) would be predictive of different happiness conditions or motivations (Sensation seeking, Interpersonal happiness, Spiritual happiness and Negative happiness) respectively. All but one hypothesis was confirmed: Neuroticism was not a significant predictor of Negative happiness. This study demonstrated that high trait EI and extraversion are predictive of overall happiness and most happiness types proposed by Morris, although other factors, like religiousness, are also important. Implications for increasing well-being are discussed.

Variance in children’s happiness was partially accounted for by positive social interaction involving the family (e.g., children agreeing that they are important members of their family) and friends (e.g., parents reporting that their children visit with friends more frequently). Negative social interactions also explained variance in children’s happiness including negative relations with peers (e.g., children agreeing that they feel left out of things) and behaving badly toward others (e.g., children agreeing that they are often mean to other people, and they cause trouble for their family). Demographic variables related to the family (i.e., number of siblings, age of parents, and marital status of parents) were only weakly, or not at all, associated with children’s happiness. The results parallel findings from the literature involving adults and adolescents; social relationships are significant correlates and predictors of happiness.

Wilkinson, W. (2007) worked on “In pursuit of Happiness Research Is It Reliable? What Does It Imply for Policy?”. The data show that neither higher rates of government redistribution nor lower levels of income inequality make us happier, whereas high levels of economic freedom and high average incomes are among the strongest correlates of subjective well-being.

Veenhoven’s (2007) research entitled “Healthy happiness: effects of happiness on physical health and the consequences for preventive health care” reveal that happy people live longer, probably because happiness protects physical health. Happiness can be advanced in several ways: At the individual level happiness can be furthered by means of (1) providing information about consequences of life-choices on happiness, (2) training in art-of-living skills, and (3) professional life-counselling. At the level of society greater happiness for a greater number can be achieved by policies that aim at a decent material standard of living, the fostering of freedom
and democracy and good governance. Both ways of promoting health through happiness require more research on conditions for happiness.

Sillick and Schutte (2006) studied the mediation of emotional intelligence and self-esteem between perceived early parental love and adult happiness and found that early paternal love had a direct association with adult happiness. There was no mediating effect of self-esteem and emotional intelligence.

Tkach and Lyubomirsky (2006) worked on “How do people pursue happiness?: Relating Personality, Happiness-increasing strategies, and well-being”. The study shows that five hundred ethnically diverse undergraduates reported their happiness strategies - that is, activities undertaken to maintain or increase happiness. Further, factor analysis extracted eight general strategies: Affiliation, Partying, Mental Control, Goal Pursuit, Passive Leisure, Active Leisure, Religion, and Direct Attempts at happiness. According to multiple regression analyses, these strategies accounted for 52% of the variance in self-reported happiness and 16% over and above the variance accounted for by the Big Five personality traits. The strongest unique predictors of current happiness were Mental Control (inversely related), Direct Attempts, Affiliation, Religion, Partying and Active Leisure. Gender differences suggest that men prefer to engage in Active Leisure and Mental Control, whereas women favour Affiliation, Goal Pursuit, Passive Leisure, and Religion. Relative to Asian and Chicano students, White students preferred using high arousal strategies. Finally, mediation analyses revealed that many associations between individuals’ personality and happiness levels are to some extent mediated by the strategies they use to increase their happiness - particularly, by Affiliation, Mental Control, and Direct Attempts.
Lyubomirsky, S., Laura K. & Diener, Ed (2005) worked on “The Benefits of Frequent Positive Affect: Does Happiness Lead to Success?”. As numerous studies show that happy individuals are successful across multiple life domains, including marriage, friendship, income, work performance, and health. The authors suggest a conceptual model to account for these findings, arguing that the happiness-success link exists not only because success makes people happy, but also because positive affect engenders success. Three classes of evidence--cross-sectional, longitudinal, and experimental--are documented to test their model. Relevant studies are described and their effect sizes combined meta-analytically. The results reveal that happiness is associated with and precedes numerous successful outcomes, as well as behaviors paralleling success. Furthermore, the evidence suggests that positive affect--the hallmark of well-being--may be the cause of many of the desirable characteristics, resources, and successes correlated with happiness.

Layard, R. (5 March 2003) gave a lecture and its title was “What would make a happier society?” Happiness depends on a lot more than your purchasing power. It depends on your tastes, which you acquire from your environment - and on the whole social context in which you live.

Mahon and Yarcheski (2002) examined a collection of enabling mechanisms and personality characteristics in relation to happiness in early adolescents. The sample consisted of 127 seventh and eighth graders between the ages of 12 and 14 years. Three enabling mechanisms (self-esteem, future time perspective, and optimism) were positively related to happiness (.70, .67, and .73 respectively). Three personality characteristics (vigor, social support, and inclination to change) were also positively related to happiness (.64, .60, and .27, respectively). Happiness in this study was measured by the Happiness Subscale of the short version of the Adolescent General Well-Being (AGWB) scale.
Sage, M. Z. (1998) conducted research on Exploring Adolescent Happiness: Commitment, Purpose and Fulfilment, using a range of research methods (both qualitative and quantitative methods), conducted among populations from various cultural backgrounds (Israeli-Jewish, Israeli-Arabs, American-Christians) or populations with various personal qualifications (like, hearing impairment,). The author uncovers common determinants of adolescents' happiness. Data show that happiness of young people is shaped by experiences with self, with the external world, and with others, and that cultural background, gender, and personality do have implications for adolescent happiness. Yet, across cultural and personal differences, the majority of the adolescents found an utmost happiness in experiences with others. The researcher concludes that adolescent search into life and into oneself is best achieved - according to the adolescents' point of view - through a search beyond self.

Crooker and Near (1997) conducted research on “Happiness and satisfaction: Measure of affect and cognition?”. Analysis of data from six national samples of adult respondents indicated that happiness could be predicted better from cognitive measures of domain satisfaction and work attitudes than from a measure of positive affect, thereby calling into question the widely accepted argument that satisfaction measures are cognitive and happiness measures affective in orientation.

Ouweneel and Veenhoven (1991) worked on Cross-national difference in happiness: Cultural bias or societal quality?. The paper is about differences in average happiness between countries. The findings reveal that there is a little support for the view that these differences are due to “cultural bias”. Results do not suggest that a great part of the difference results from cultural differences in “language”, “desirability bias”, “response tendencies” or “familiarity” with the concept of
happiness. There is solid empirical support for the view that these differences result from the fact that some societies provide their citizens with better living conditions than others. The bulk of the variance in happiness can be explained by nation characteristics such as economic prosperity, social security, political freedom and social equality.

Argyle and Crossland (1987) studied the dimensions of positive emotions and revealed that happiness comprised three main components: 1. the frequency and degree of positive affect; 2. the average level of satisfaction and 3. the absence of negative feelings such as depression and anxiety.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Chetri, S. (2014) undertook a study entitled “Achievement Motivation of Adolescents and Its Relationship with Academic Achievement” with the objective to investigate the achievement motivation of adolescents and its relationship with academic achievement. The study was confined to 480 secondary school leavers studying in different schools of Sikkim by using stratified random sampling techniques from various government and non-government managed schools within the age range of 16-17 years, from urban and rural areas. The finding of the study revealed significant positive relationship between achievement motivation and academic achievement. Non significant difference in achievement motivation with regard to gender and locale variation but significant differences in relation to management variation were found. Another finding of the study was the significant difference in the academic achievement of the students with regard to locale and management variation.
Badola (2013) worked on “Effect of School on Academic Achievement Motivation of Secondary level Students.” The study was conducted to study the academic achievement motivation and different administrative setups of secondary school students. Sample of 480 students of secondary level was taken from Pauri and Tehri Garhwal, (Uttarakhand State). The data was collected on the basis of Academic Achievement Motivation Test developed and standardized by Dr. T.R. Sharma (1984). Analysis of variance showed that there was significant difference among Government, Public and Convent secondary school students on their academic achievement motivation. Public and Convent secondary school students scored higher than the Government school students on academic achievement motivation. Female students were more motivated by their parents in comparison to male secondary students. Insignificant difference was found between Public & Convent school students on their academic achievement motivation.

Roy, Sinha & Suman (2013) endeavoured to examine relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement motivation. It also studied the emotional intelligence of students with high, average and low academic achievement motivation. Sample for the study included 105 students (48 boys and 57 girls) of class XII of Patna. The data was analysed with the help of product moment coefficients of correlation. The findings of the study revealed positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement motivation. The study also revealed that students with high, average and low academic achievement motivation differed from one another on emotional intelligence.

Parr (2013) conducted research on “Academic Achievement Motivation and High School Dropout: An Integrative Model”. The thesis reported that High school dropout is a pressing issue in the United States as
7.1% of all 16 to 24 year olds in the United States are high school dropouts (U. S. Department of Commerce, 2012). To create effective dropout prevention programs, it is must to understand the factors that contribute to this national crisis. Two factors that play a role in educational outcomes are achievement motivation and performance. The purpose of this study was to test an integrated model, based on SCCT and EVT, which predicts high school dropout from self-efficacy, performance, and subjective task value. The model was tested through the statistical analysis of a large-scale national data set, Education Longitudinal Study (ELS), with a sample size of 15,753. The findings indicated that performance, compared to self-efficacy and subjective task value, most strongly predicted later high school dropout. Furthermore, the outcomes of the present study showed that the integration of SCCT (Social Cognitive Career Theory) and EVT (Expectancy-Value Theory) is useful when predicting educational outcomes.

Uniyal & Rawat (2013) conducted research on “Role of family background in generating academic achievement motivation in adolescents” with the purpose to investigate the influence of different types of family background and sex on the academic achievement motivation (AAM) of the adolescents. A normative survey method of research was employed by adopting 3X2 factorial design. A sample of 480 adolescents from Dehradun city was selected by stratified random sampling method. This sample of 480 adolescents was comprised of 142 adolescents with High family background (HFB), 274 with Average family background (AFB) and 104 with Low family background (LFB) on the basis of the feelings of the adolescents which they perceive towards their parental acceptance, concentration and avoidance. Further, the sample was also divided gender wise. An Academic Achievement Motivation Test (AAMT)
developed by T.R. Sharma was used to collect the data from the sample. One way and two ways ANOVA were calculated for deriving the results. The results showed that there was significant difference in the level of academic achievement motivation between boys and girls and also among the adolescents having HFB, AFB and LFB. Girls were found to have high academic achievement motivation (AAM) than their boys counterpart. It was interesting to find adolescents with LFB have more AAM while adolescents coming from HFB have the least AAM. The most important finding was that the computed F ratio of interaction was found to be insignificant which indicates that sex and family background do not jointly affect the academic achievement motivation of the adolescents.

**Sharma, (2013)** worked on “A Correlation Study of Personality Characteristics, Academic Achievement Motivation, Educational Aspiration and Adjustment of Secondary School Students.” Present investigation has been performed to find out correlation among personality characteristics, level of aspiration, adjustment and scholastics achievement in regard to secondary school students. Results revealed that academic achievement motivation was found positively correlated with personality traits and educational aspiration whereas insignificantly correlated with adjustment.

**Jabeen & Khan (2013)** undertook a study to examine the Need achievement of High and Low achievers of 9th grade students. The sample for the study was (300 high achievers and 300 hundred low achievers) selected randomly from two educational zones (Budgam and Soibugh) of district Budgam (J&K). For the measurement of Need achievement Mukherjee’s Incomplete Sentence Blank Urdu adaptation (Khan, 1992) was used. The results of the study highlighted that the high achievers have high need achievement, possess a hope of success, have high ego-ideal,
possess perseverance, have realistic attitude are in favour of ‘internal control of fate’, while as low achievers have low need achievement, have fear of failure, possess low ego-ideal, are not perseverant, have unrealistic attitude and possess a feeling of external control of fate. The study has also revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between need achievement and academic achievement of high and low achiever group.

Rucker (2012) studied the relationship between academic motivation, perceived stress and academic achievement in students. The present study is aimed to examine the relationship between academic motivation, perceived stress and academic performance. Therefore, 146 undergraduate psychology students at the University of Twente took part and filled in an online questionnaire, containing the Academic Motivation Scale, the Perceived Stress Scale and additional questions concerning their academic performance and possible stressors. It was found that both gender and native language affected the level of perceived stress. In addition to that, the feeling of stress was significant correlated with the failing rate of courses. Not being motivated was found to be associated with higher levels of stress and a lower Grade Point Average.

Ahmad and Ahmad (2012) conducted a research on “Academic Achievement Motivation of Adolescents in relation to their Socio-Emotional School Environment”. The objective of the study was to study the relation between socio-emotional school environment and academic achievement motivation of male and female adolescents. The researchers selected 500 (250 males and 250 females) adolescents from different higher secondary schools of Kanpur city by lottery random sampling method. To measure academic achievement motivation and social-emotional school environment, the standardized test A.A.M.T. by Sharma (1984) and Socio-emotional school climate inventory (S-E SCI) constructed by Sinha and Bhargava (1994) were used. Socio-emotional
school environment was studied with the help of interaction, love, compassion, respect, honour, courtesy and sympathy. Findings revealed that there is positive and significant correlation between academic achievement motivation and socio-emotional school environment of male and female adolescents.

Muola (2012) worked on “The effect of academic achievement motivation and home environment on academic performance among standard eight pupils”. The objectives of this research were to; (a). Investigate the influence of academic achievement motivation and home environment on the academic performance of pupils. (b). Examine the relationship that exists between the pupils’ home environment and their academic achievement motivation and (c). Find out whether the variation in pupils’ academic performance and academic achievement motivation can be attributed to their sex. The study was carried out on 235 standard eight pupils from six primary schools which were randomly selected from Machakos district, Kenya. The pupils’ age ranged between 13 and 17 years. Two questionnaires i.e. the SP profile and home environment questionnaire were administered to provide information on pupils’ levels of academic achievement motivation and home environment. The findings of the study indicated a significant positive relationship between the pupils’ academic achievement motivation and their performance in school. The relationship between the home environment factors and academic performance was found to be weak. No sex differences were found in the pupils’ academic achievement motivation. The academic performance of boys was found to be significantly higher than that of girls in the papers on Mathematics and Science and Agriculture. No significant differences were found between the mean scores of boys and girls in all the other examination papers and academic achievement motivation.

Onete et al (2012) examined the relationship between first year education students’ achievement motivation and their academic...
performance. The design employed for the study was survey (expo-facto). A total of seven hundred and fifty (750) out of one thousand three hundred and fifty two students (1352) students of the 2010/2011 academic session were randomly selected for the study. To guide the study, two hypotheses were formulated on students’ academic achievement motivation and academic performance as well as students’ social achievement motivation and academic performance. The instrument used for the study was tagged “Education Students’ Achievement Motivation Scale (ESAMS)” which was adapted from Cofer and Appley (1964) Achievement Imagery and Grandal and Grandal (1965) Modified Intellectual achievement Questionnaire (MIAQ). The instrument consisted of two parts, A and B. Part A consisted of items on respondent’s Bio-data while Part B comprised of 15 items which elicited responses from students’ achievement motivation. The results of the study indicated that neither students’ academic achievement motivation nor students’ social achievement motivation had any significant influence on education students’ academic performance.

Shekhar & Devi (2012) carried out a study with the objectives to investigate the gender related differences and differences across academic majors on achievement motivation among college students. The study was carried on 80 undergraduate students of various colleges from Jammu region, 40 males and 40 females (aged 18-23 years) selected by purposive sampling method. As per research plan all 80 subjects were selected on the basis of gender (males and females) and academic majors (arts and sciences) using Achievement Motivation Scale. T-Test was used for deriving the results. Significant difference was found between the achievement motivation of sciences and arts stream students and achievement motivation among male and female college students. Science
stream students had significantly higher achievement motivation compared to arts stream students. Females had higher achievement motivation compared to males. The differences indicate significant role of gender and academic majors in achievement motivation of college students.

Mwangi (2011) conducted a research on “Relationship between home environment, academic achievement motivation and performance for pupils with hearing impairment”. The study examined the relationship between home environment and academic performance of upper primary pupils with hearing impairment. The study was based on Atkinson's motivation theory. A sample of 75 upper primary pupils (Classes V, VI, VII, VIII) between the ages of fourteen and eighteen were randomly selected from three primary schools for the hearing impaired in Central Province. Survey design was used whereby two questionnaires were used to collect data. The academic achievement motivation questionnaire (SP profile) was used to obtain information on pupils' level of academic achievement motivation. The home environment questionnaire was used to collect information on pupils' home environment. The result of the end of the year 2005 was used as a measure of their academic performance. For data analysis, statistical software, SPSS was utilized. Pearson's product-moment correlation analysis and two-tailed t-test for mean differences were used to test the hypotheses. The hypotheses were tested at a significant level of 0.05. The findings showed there were no significant relationships between academic achievement motivation and academic performance: The correlation coefficients ranged between \( r = 0.077 -- 0.323 \). In 70 percent of the respondents, it was found that home environment played a crucial role in determining the academic performance of children with hearing impairment. Sex was also found to influence their academic achievement motivation and their academic
performance: The mean for academic achievement motivation score of boys (X = 51.70) was higher than that of the girls (X = 51.13). The study, therefore, recommended that parents, teachers and educationists should try to ensure that the children with hearing impairment have favourable home environment in order to achieve success in school.

Aydin and Coskun (2011) conducted a research entitled “Secondary School Students’ Achievement Motivation towards Geography Lessons”. The purpose of this research was to investigate the influence of “gender”, “class level”, “parent education level” and “family income level” on achievement motivation of students. Total 151 students studying in high schools in the city center of Karabuk in the academic year of 2010-2011 participated in the research. Survey model was used in the study. "The Achievement Motive Scale" was used as data collecting tool developed by Ellez (2004). The descriptive statistics, t-test and one way variance analysis (ANOVA) were used in the analysis of data. At the end of the study, the arithmetic mean of the views of students about the scale of achievement motivation has been determined to be 3.74. The views of students about the scale of geography lesson achievement motivation has shown significant difference according to “class level”, but did not show any significant difference according to “gender”, “mother’s education level”, “father’s education level” and “family income status”. Based on the findings of the study, suggestions for increasing the achievement motivations of the students towards geography curriculum have been developed.

Areeappattamannil, et al (2011) worked on Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and academic achievement among Indian adolescents in Canada and India. The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationships among intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and
academic achievement for the Indian immigrant adolescents in Canada in comparison to their counterparts in India. Descriptive discriminant analysis indicated that the Indian immigrant adolescents in Canada had higher intrinsic motivation and academic achievement than their peers in India. By contrast, the Indian adolescents in India had higher extrinsic motivation than their counterparts in Canada. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses revealed the positive predictive effects of intrinsic motivation on academic achievement for both the Indian immigrant and Indian adolescents. While extrinsic motivation had a negative predictive effect on academic achievement for the Indian immigrant adolescents in Canada, it was not a significant predictor of academic achievement for the Indian adolescents in India. Implications of the findings for policy and practice are discussed.

Ahmad and Sinha (2008) studied the effect of motivation on academic achievement of aided and private higher secondary students, a sample of 500 students of higher secondary level was taken. The data was collected on the basis of motivation test by Sharma (1984) and academic achievement was taken as the percentage of class 10th marks obtained by students. The result suggested that motivation is significantly related to academic achievement of aided and private higher secondary students. This shows that motivation affects academic achievement of aided and private higher secondary students.

Wigfield & Eccles (2001)’s work “Development of Academic Achievement Motivation” outlines the answer to question in terms of three basic questions students ask themselves: Can I succeed? Do I want to do this task? And, why am I doing this task? To the extent that individuals have positive answers to each of these questions, they will be motivated to achieve. In this article, a basic model of achievement motivation was
presented and discussed. Most importantly, lack of confidence in one's ability to succeed and extrinsic (rather than intrinsic) motivation are directly related to the two major motivational problems in the academic achievement domain: test anxiety and learned helplessness. Specific interventions for these two motivational problems were discussed. Future research needs to focus on interconnections among the various aspects of achievement motivation.

Berndt et al (1990) worked on “Friends' influence on adolescents' academic achievement motivation: An experimental study”. To examine the influence of friends on adolescents' motivation to achieve in school, each of 118 8th graders was paired with a close friend. The pairs of friends were randomly assigned to either an experimental or a control condition. In the experimental condition, the friends discussed dilemmas that required them to decide between 2 actions reflecting different levels of achievement motivation. In the control condition, friends discussed topics unrelated to school. Before and after the discussions, all adolescents made decisions on the dilemmas independently. The 1st hypothesis was that discussions of the dilemmas would lead to an increase in the similarity of friends’ decisions. The 2nd hypothesis was that discussions would lead to shifts toward more extreme decisions. The results supported the 1st hypothesis but not the 2nd. More harmonious discussions involving greater information exchange led to greater changes in decisions.

Pintrich and Groot (1990) worked on “Motivational and self-regulated Learning Components of classroom Academic Performance”. This co-relational study examined relationships between motivational orientation, self-regulated learning, and classroom academic performance for 173 seventh graders from eight science and seven English classes. A self-report measure of student self-efficacy, intrinsic value, test anxiety,
self-regulation, and use of learning strategies was administered, and performance data were obtained from work on classroom assignments. Self-efficacy and intrinsic value were positively related to cognitive engagement and performance. Regression analyses revealed that, depending on the outcome measure, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and test anxiety emerged as the best predictors of performance. Intrinsic value did not have a direct influence on performance but was strongly related to self-regulation and cognitive strategy use, regardless of prior achievement level. The implications of individual differences in motivational orientation for cognitive engagement and self-regulation in the classroom are discussed.

McClelland’s study (1961) revealed that nations differed in the mean levels of need-achievement of their citizens. The research displayed that the level of need-achievement varied from individual to individual in the same group, group to group in the same culture, culture to culture in the same nation.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO SELF-REGULATION

Mega et al (2014) worked on “What makes a good student? How emotions, self-regulated learning, and motivation contribute to academic achievement”. The authors proposed a theoretical model linking emotions, self-regulated learning, and motivation to academic achievement. This model was tested with 5,805 undergraduate students. They completed the Self-Regulated Learning, Emotions, and Motivation Computerized Battery (LEM–B) composed of 3 self-report questionnaires: the Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire (LQ), the Emotions Questionnaire (EQ), and the Motivation Questionnaire (MQ). The structural equation model showed that students’ emotions influence their self-regulated
learning and their motivation, and these, in turn, affect academic achievement. Thus, self-regulated learning and motivation mediate the effects of emotions on academic achievement. Moreover, positive emotions foster academic achievement only when they are mediated by self-regulated learning and motivation. The results are discussed with regard to the key role of emotions in academic settings and in terms of theoretical implications for researchers.

Merino and Aucoc (2014) undertook a research work entitled “The role-modelling of self-regulated learning strategies and skills through enrichment tutorials”. The research describes a tutor-led intervention based on self-regulated learning (SRL) principles carried out at a School of Accountancy in South Africa. Traditionally, lectures and tutorials in the School of Accountancy emphasise the academic content of the required courses. This approach tends to encourage students to become passive learners. In an effort to motivate students to take responsibility for their own learning, a pilot study was carried out to assess the impact of a tutorial system that would introduce students to SRL strategies and skills. This was done through the role modelling of self-regulated behaviours by a specially selected tutor. A total of twenty one second year Management Accounting students took part in seven enrichment tutorials. The tutorials used the academic content of the course to demonstrate the cognitive, interpersonal and motivational attributes associated with SRL. Six months after the intervention, students reported being more confident in interacting with lecturers and peers. They were also implementing time management principles, and actively engaging with the material of their courses. The marks obtained in Management Accounting by the students in the pilot group were compared to that of their peers and were found to be significantly better in both the second year and third year of their degree.
The intervention illustrates a way of transforming the educational experience of students by empowering them to be the main drivers of their own learning.

Amanda Ladd Berhenke (2013) submitted a dissertation entitled Motivation, Self-Regulation, and Learning in Preschool in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Education and Psychology) in the University of Michigan. The study focussed on how motivation and self-regulation are related, how they predict learning in preschool, and teachers’ attributions about students’ behavior when children are struggling academically. Accordingly, the present study addressed the following questions:

- What is the relation between self-regulation and motivation in preschool children?
- When children fail to persist at challenging tasks, can we tell whether they lack motivation and/or self-regulation?
- Which components of self-regulation and motivation best predict student learning over the course of the preschool year? How do teachers identify student struggles with self-regulation and motivation?
- How do they differentiate between these concepts?
- How do teachers choose courses of intervention for issues identified as motivational problems versus self-regulatory problems?

One hundred forty children ages 3-5 were assessed using teacher reports, group challenge tasks, and individual assessments of motivation, self-regulation, and achievement. Results revealed that motivation and self-regulation are distinct and related constructs. Persistence is likely the product of motivational beliefs and self-regulatory skills. Motivation was
shown to significantly predict growth in children’s reading skills during preschool, whereas both motivation and self-regulation predicted growth in math skills. Teacher reports of children’s motivation and self-regulation did not predict growth in children’s academic skills. Finally, teachers reported using a theoretical, largely intrinsic conceptions of children’s motivation and ideas about self-regulation that included both cognitive skills and emotion regulation. Teaching practices used to promote motivation and self-regulation were aligned with teachers’ conceptions of motivation and self-regulation.

Argyropoulos et al (2012) conducted a research on “Assessing Self-Regulation in Individuals with Visual Impairments: Generality Versus Specificity in Self-Regulatory Functioning” and the purpose of the present study was to assess self-regulation of students with visual impairments across two academic subjects, language and math. The participants were 46 Greek students with visual impairments who completed self-regulation measures across the subject matters of language and math. Initially, the factorial validity of the scale was established. In turn, results pointed to the existence of a single universal self-regulation functioning pattern in individuals with visual impairments across subject matters (at the mean level). Measurement invariance was also observed at the item level through imposing equality constraints between items from different subjects. Based on the findings, it is suggested that self-regulation is not context specific for individuals with visual impairments.

McAuley et. al. (2011) worked on Self-regulatory processes and exercise adherence in older adults: executive function and self efficacy effects. Self efficacy and the use of self-regulatory strategies are consistently associated with physical activity behavior. Similarly, behavioral inhibition and cognitive resource allocation-indices of executive
control function-have also been associated with this health behavior. The purpose of this study was to examine the hypothesis that self efficacy mediates the relationship between self-regulatory processes, such as executive function, and sustained exercise behavior. Older adults (N=177, mean age=66.44 years) completed measures of executive function, self-reported use of self-regulatory strategies, and self efficacy prior to and during the first month of a 12-month exercise intervention. Data were collected from 2007 to 2010 and analyzed in 2010-2011. Structural equation models were tested examining the effect of executive function and strategy use on adherence via efficacy. Results showed significant direct effects of two elements of executive function and of strategy use on self efficacy and of efficacy on adherence. In addition, there were significant indirect effects of strategy use and executive function on adherence via self efficacy. Higher levels of executive function and use of self-regulatory strategies at the start of an exercise program enhance beliefs in exercise capabilities, which in turn lead to greater adherence.

**Vendrame & Pinsky (2011)** studied “Inefficacy of self regulation of alcohol advertisements: a systematic review of the literature.” The most recent scientific literature indicates that alcohol advertising influences behavior, particularly early and higher alcohol consumption by children and adolescents. From a public health perspective, alcohol advertising should be restricted. In many countries, as well as in Brazil, limits to alcohol advertising are established by industry self regulation (e.g. controlled by the advertising community itself). We examined in this review all papers on the subject of industry self regulation of alcohol advertising published in the international literature. Further measures should be considered for the control and the broadcast of alcohol advertising, such as independent monitoring, legal control.
Shea & Bidjerano (2010) worked on “Learning presence: Towards a theory of self efficacy, self regulation, and the development of communities of inquiry in online and blended learning environments”. In this paper they examined the Community of Inquiry framework (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000) suggesting that the model may be enhanced through a fuller articulation of the roles of online learners. They present the results of a study of 3165 students in online and hybrid courses from 42 two and four- year institutions in which they examine the relationship between learner self efficacy measures and their ratings of the quality of their learning in virtual environments. They conclude that a positive relationship exists between elements of the CoI framework and between elements of a nascent theoretical construct that label learning presence. They suggest that learning presence represents elements such as self-efficacy as well as other cognitive, behavioural and motivational constructs supportive of online learner self regulation. They suggest that this focused analysis on the active roles of online learners may contribute to a more thorough account of knowledge construction in technology-mediated environments expanding the descriptive and explanatory power of the Community of Inquiry framework. Learning presence: Towards a Theory of Self efficacy, Self regulation, and the Development of a Communities of Inquiry in Online and Blended Learning Environments.

Eisenbergin (2010) worked on Emotion-related Self-regulation and its relation to Children's Maladjustment and found that the development of children's emotion-related self-regulation appears to be related to, and likely involved in, many aspects of children's development. In this review, the distinction between effortful self-regulatory processes and those that are somewhat less voluntary is discussed, and literature on the former capacities is reviewed. Emotion-related self-regulation develops rapidly in
the early years of life and improves more slowly into adulthood. Individual differences in children's self regulation are fairly stable after the first year or two of life. Such individual differences are inversely related to at least some types of externalizing problems. Findings for internalizing problems are less consistent and robust, although emotion-related self regulation appears to be inversely related to internalizing problems after the early years. Self-regulatory capacities have been related to both genetic and environmental factors and their interaction. Some interventions designed to foster self regulation and, hence, reduce maladjustment, have proved to be at least partially effective.

McCullough and Willoughby (2009) investigated “Religion, Self-Regulation, and Self-Control: Associations, Explanations, and Implications”. Many of the links of religiousness with health, well-being, and social behaviour may be due to religion’s influences on self-control or self-regulation. Using Carver and Scheier’s (1998) theory of self regulation as a framework for organizing the empirical research, the authors review evidence relevant to 6 propositions: (a) that religion can promote self-control; (b) that religion influences how goals are selected, pursued, and organized; (c) that religion facilitates self-monitoring; (d) that religion fosters the development of self-regulatory strength; (e) that religion prescribes and fosters proficiency in a suite of self-regulatory behaviors; and (f) that some of religion’s influences on health, well-being, and social behavior may result from religion’s influences on self-control and self-regulation.

Shell and Husman (2008) studied on “Control, Motivation, Affect and Strategic Self-Regulation in the College Classroom: A Multidimensional Phenomenon” and this study of 397 undergraduate students examined relations between self-reported control, goal orientation,
future time perspective, affect and strategic self-regulation. Five patterns were found in three canonical dimensions.

**Anderson, Winett & Wojcik (2007)** worked on “Self regulation, self efficacy, outcome expectations, and social support: social cognitive theory and nutrition behavior”. Participants were 712 churchgoers (18% African American, 66% female, 79% overweight or obese) from 14 churches in south-western Virginia participating in the baseline phase of a larger health promotion study. Data were collected on the nutrition related social support, self efficacy, outcome expectations, and self regulation components of SCT, as well as on the fat, fiber, fruit, and vegetable content of food-shopping receipts and food frequency questionnaires. These data were used to test the fit of models ordered as prescribed by SCT and subjected to structural equation analysis. It was found that SCT provided a good fit to the data explaining 35%, 52%, and 59% of observed variance in percent calories from fat, fiber g/1000 kcals and fruit and vegetable servings/1000 kcals. Participants' age, gender, socioeconomic status, social support, self efficacy, negative outcome expectations, and self regulation made important contributions to their nutrition behaviour -- a configuration of influences consistent with SCT. These results suggest a pivotal role for self-regulatory behaviour in the healthier food choices of adults. Interventions effective at garnering family support, increasing nutrition related self efficacy, and overcoming negative outcome expectations should be more successful at helping adults enact the self-regulatory behaviours essential to buying and eating healthier food.

**Eniola (2007)** studied The Influence of Emotional Intelligence and Self-regulation Strategies on Remediation of Aggressive Behaviours in Adolescent with Visual Impairment. In this study he investigated the influence of two interactions-emotional Intelligence Tracing (EIT) and Self
regulation training (SRT) in remediating aggressive behavior in adolescence with visual impairment. 48 visual impaired (ranging from total blind to partially sighted) participated in the study. The interaction effects revealed that participants treated with the two interactions EIT and SRT showed significant improvement in their aggressive behaviour pattern than their counterparts in the control group. These findings were discussed and educators, educational administered, parents, policy makers, and the Government was stressed.

Behncke (2002) studied “Self- Regulation: A Brief Review” and a review of self-regulation examined basic volitional factors of goal setting, self-monitoring, activation and use of goals, discrepancy detection and implementation, self-evaluation, self-consequation, self efficacy, metaskills, boundary conditions, and self regulation failure that revealed self-monitoring as fundamental to self regulation. There is no consensus in the literature concerning definitions, methods and procedures of self-monitoring that may cause validity and reliability issues in research. It was indicated that future research should explore the various phenomenological aspects of psychosomatic function if methodological approaches to self-monitoring are to be more clearly defined.

Holcomb (2002) studied “Examining self-efficacy and self-regulation levels across gender in business distance education courses” and the purpose of his study was to examine the roles self efficacy, specifically technology self efficacy and distance education self efficacy, and self regulation play in students' learning via distance education. Participants were undergraduate and graduated students enrolled in business distance education courses at a university in north-eastern USA. Prior to the completion of the semester, students were asked to complete an online survey that was designed to measure technology self efficacy, distance
education self-efficacy, and self-regulation. In addition, students responded to three short answer prompts concerning the benefits and drawbacks of distance education. Their self-efficacy and self-regulation levels were compared across gender to see if there were in fact gender gaps in technology, distance education, and self-regulation.

**Parent & Lariveein (1991)** investigated Influence of Self-efficacy on Self-regulation and Performance among Junior and Senior High-School Age Students and the aim of the present study was to examine the influence of self-efficacy on actual self-regulation during a verbal concept formation task of students, already known to be of average or above average cognitive ability, at two grade levels. Following the assessment of self-efficacy, students were observed while they attempted to solve four problems of varying difficulty. The major findings were that irrespective of differences in school grade and in cognitive ability, self-efficacy exerted significant influence on various aspects of self-regulation, such as monitoring of working time, task persistence, and rejection of correct hypotheses, as well as on performance. These results provided support for the construct validity of self-efficacy as different from cognitive competence.

**Lengua & Long (2002)** conducted a research on “the role of emotionally and self-regulation in the appraisal coping process: tests of direct and moderating effects”. Temperament negative emotionality, positive emotionality, and self-regulation were investigated as predictors of children’s appraisal and coping styles and adjustment problems in a community sample of children (8-12 years, N=101). Mother and child reports of negative life events, temperament, and adjustment problems were obtained and children reported on their threat and positive appraisals, active and avoidant coping styles. Negative emotionality was positively
associated with threat appraisals, avoidant coping, and adjustment problems above the effects of negative life events. Self-regulation predicted more active coping and lower adjustment problems. Contrary to prediction, positive emotionality was not related to positive appraisals or active coping, but predicted lower adjustment problems independently of those variables. The results suggest that negative emotionality engenders a style of appraisal and coping that exacerbates the effects of stress, whereas self-regulation may mitigate the effects of stress on children’s adjustment problems.

Rothbart and Jones (1998) studied “Temperament, Self-Regulation and Education” and found that in recent years, advances in the study of temperament have identified a short list of temperament dimensions. These include positive emotionality/ approach, fear, irritability/frustration, attentional persistence and activity level. In this article, they review research on the first four of these dimensions, briefly linking them to underlying biological systems. They then apply knowledge of temperament to teachers’ approaches to children’s mastery motivation, fear of novelty, and ego based anxiety. They argue that educators’ training should include a basic understanding of the development of temperament as well as methods for assessing individual differences in children’s emotional reactivity and attention self-regulation.

Karoly (1993) conducted an extensive review of self regulation mechanism underlying cognitive and somatic based learning in therapy and performance and defines self-regulation as: “those processes, internal and or transactional, that enable an individual to guide his/her goal-directed activities over time and across changing circumstances.
2.5 CONCLUSION

Review of related literature indicates that attempts have been made to study students’ academic stress, happiness, academic achievement motivation and self-regulation. As Rucker (2012) explored the relationship among academic motivation, perceived stress and academic achievement of students. Similarly, Gihar et al (2013), Onete et al (2012) and Pintrich and Groot (1990) investigated the relationship of academic achievement motivation with personality characteristics, educational aspiration, academic performance and self-regulating learning.

Uniyal and Rawat (2013), and Berndt et al (1990) studied role of family background and friends’s influence on adolescents’ academic achievement motivation. A few studies are available on self-regulation too. Many studies are available on academic stress associated with variables like anxiety, depression, poor academic performance and suicidal ideation. Jiang (2012), Ang & Huan (2006), Arun (2009) explored the relationship of academic stress with mental health, depression and suicidal ideation, but the researcher could not find sufficient studies exploring relation of academic stress with academic achievement motivation and self-regulation. Further, there is dearth of researches in the area of academic stress as well as happiness in relation to academic achievement motivation and self-regulation especially with the reference to disabled and non-disabled secondary school students particularly in India. In view of these facts the investigator decided to undertake the present study.