CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
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An attempt has been made here to define the concepts and summarize the studies relevant to the problem selected for investigation. The studies reviewed in this chapter have been arranged according to the relevance of variables, viz., locus of control, anxiety and need for achievement.

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF LOCUS OF CONTROL

First introduced by Rotter (1954), the locus of control concept has become increasingly of more importance in theoretical and practical considerations of motivation. According to Rotter (1966), the concept of locus of control reinforcement may be perceived by the person, as being a function of his own behaviour, that is internal control, or as a function of luck, chance or as unpredictable, due to the great complexity of the forces surrounding a person, that is, external control. The internal person blames himself for his failures and accepts praise as deserved for his triumphs. The external person will not blame himself for his errors and will not think his successes are caused by his own efforts. In short, the locus of control concept deals with an important belief system inherent in an individual's mode of thinking, viz., the extent to which the individual believes that he is self-motivated, directed or
controlled (Internal frame of reference) or that the environment (luck, fate, chance) plays a dominant role in influencing his behaviour and in determining the rewards and punishments that he obtains (External frame of reference). Thus, locus of control belief, in essence, refers to the way people perceive the relations between their actions and the outcome.

2.2 LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

A large number of studies have linked internality-externality with grade point averages, achievement test scores and class room achievement behaviour among school going and college students. The first investigation to implicate locus of control with achievement related behaviour was reported by Crandall et. al. (1962). They found that when performance on intelligence and achievement tests was correlated with the prediction variables, the scores on the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility (IAR) Questionnaire were significantly related to each test for the boys (r = 0.52, P < .05 with intelligence, r = 0.50, P < .05 with reading achievement, r = 0.38, P < .05 with arithmetic achievement), but for the girls the variables remained totally unrelated (r = .00, - .03 and -.13 respectively). Phrases (1968) compared internal and externals with regard to initial learning, retention and correct utilization of information with no significant differences between internals and externals regarding initial learning and retention, he found that internals were significantly better than externals in correctly utilizing the available information. He concluded that the evidence clearly points to the internal's greater potential for effectiveness in his environment.
In a study using large samples of eighth and eleventh grades from the Chicago School, Lessing (1969) found that the sense of personal control was correlated with grade point averages even when I.Q. scores had been statistically partialled out; i.e. among both, the more and less intelligent pupils, a sense of personal control was related to actual school achievement.

Fanelli and Vidler (1970) measured the performance of internal and external high school students under two conditions of self-reinforcement. The supportive condition involved the silent rehearsing of self-referent positive statements; the challenging condition involved the silent rehearsing of negative statements. They found no difference in performance levels in the positive, supportive condition. In the negative, challenging, condition, the performances of externals were adversely affected. This depression of the performance level of externals was greatest when the task involved was novel rather than familiar. Since externals tend to be more anxious than internals and novel situations tend to be more arousing than familiar ones, it might be that the combination of novelty and challenging motivations produced sufficient anxiety in the external subjects to interfere with their ability to perform.

Brown and Strickland (1972) using introductory psychology students as subjects, found internality associated with high grades for males but not for females. Massari and Rosenblum (1972) examined the relationship between locus of control and academic achievement in college students. The researchers reported that neither the Rotter's I-E Scale nor Crandall's IAR were significantly correlated with academic
achievement for men. For women, the correlations were significant but opposite from the predicted direction, i.e. external women got higher grades than internal women. Messer (1972) has found support for simple generality that internal locus of control is associated with higher grades and achievement test scores even when I.Q. and cognitive impulsivity are controlled (Fanneli 1972).

Gorden (1977) found that among male children, locus of control was related to grade point averages but not to achievement test scores. For females, locus of control was associated with achievement test performance but not with grade point averages. It was the more internal child who out-performed the external child in both cases. Rupp and Nowicki (1978) with 469 Hungarian children found high magnitude relationships between grade-point averages and I-E scale. Internal children were found to be higher achievers. Stake (1979) also found support for the previous findings that locus of control is related to academic achievement for both sexes. Brown (1980), on the other hand, failed to find a significant relationship between locus of control and achievement. Fry and Coe (1980) found that internal subjects showed significantly better academic performance than externals. Similar findings were reported by Maqsud (1980); Edwards and Waters, 1981; Findley and Cooper, 1983; Ashkansay and Gallois, 1987. Thus a consistent finding is that internals have higher achievement, especially in intellectual and performance tasks (Lefcourt, 1982). Locus of control appears to be a predictor of standardized measures of achievements among other demographic variables (Collins and Carol Lea, 1995). Thus,
it is clear from the above cited studies that more interval beliefs are associated with greater academic achievement and magnitude of this relation is small to medium (Findley, Maureen, 1983).

Harper (1984) investigated the academic achievement of university students in relation to internality and externality and levels of cognitive development. The findings of this study were that levels of cognitive development with locus of control and other demographic factors may be used as valid predictors of grade point averages for college students. Females achieved significantly higher grade point averages than males. Internals achieved significantly higher grade point averages than externals.

Bode and Elizabeth Ann (1995) studied the relationship between locus of control and academic success in selected medical office assisting students. The instrument for locus of control assessment was the Adult Nowicki Strickland Internal - External Scale (ANSIES). The research question addressed the relationship of locus of control to the degree of internality or externality associated with the Grade Point Average (GPA). The findings indicated that there was a relationship between internal locus of control and highest academic success as measured by grade achievement. A more external locus of control was demonstrated in those individuals with the lowest academic success.

Biggs, John B. (1997) studied the relationship between locus of control and college student’s approaches to learning. He reported that absences from class correlate negatively with course grade, the internal locus of control correlates positively with GPA and course grade.
Rotter (1966) summarizes research indicating that when a subject perceives the task as controlled by chance, random conditions, or the experimenter, he is less likely to rely on his own past experiences. When the subject perceives a task to be under his own control, he is more likely to attend and to perceive better. Thus externals, who generally perceive control to be elsewhere than in themselves, might learn less, or worse, learn the wrong things. Externals tend to adjust their behaviours on the basis of what they perceive to be random or manipulated events having little to do with their own past experiences.

Bryant (1972) explored teacher-student relationships as perceived by teachers and their internal external students. She found that teachers tended to attribute more negative characteristics to external students and that external students described their teachers more negatively than did internal students. External students, when compared to internal students, showed more misunderstandings and fewer understandings, showed more feelings of being misunderstood and fewer things of being understood. Assuming that students desire to maintain a shared sense of interpersonal experience with their teachers, Bryant concluded that students whose locus of control is external, have more painful relationships with their teachers than do students whose locus of control is internal.

Khayyar, Mohammad (1995) studied the relationship between academic achievement and locus of control with some key demographic and familial factors that can affect both academic achievement and locus of control. The size of the effects of each of these
factors on both academic achievement and locus of control was investigated. The effect of academic achievement feedback on the locus of control was also considered.

The results of the study showed that girl's academic achievement was significantly higher than the boy's academic achievement. No significant difference was found between the locus of control means for boys and girls. The academic achievement significantly increased with SES from low to high levels. Also, the internal locus of control attitude increased with SES from low to high levels. The results showed that the locus of control of students receiving encouraging feedback for both tasks (reading comprehension and mathematics) shifted towards internality while, the locus of control of other groups didn't change significantly. Locus of control, SES, grade and sex had significant direct effects in determining academic achievement, while grade and SES had significant direct effects in determining locus of control.

Although the results showed that locus of control is the best predictor of academic achievement, it cannot be concluded that locus of control is the cause of academic achievement.

The relationships between locus of control and achievement are limited, although many people seem to expect nearly a one-to-one relationship between them. In children, internals show greater school achievement than do externals (Coleman, et. al. 1966; McGhee and Crandall, 1968). However, for college-age subjects, the relationship declines or proves to be inconsistent and elusive (Phares, 1976). Several reasons are possible. First, in the case of college students, school is a
highly structured and very familiar experience. Such things as study habits or other specific academic experiences may be much more important in college than locus of control, where as the reverse may be true in primary and secondary school, which are perhaps more ambiguous or uncertain situations for students (Rotter, 1975). Furthermore, college samples are much more homogeneous as regards to both ability and internality. This should significantly lessen the correlation between grades and I-E.

2.3 LOCUS OF CONTROL AND GENDER

Very few studies could be quoted in this field. Women who defined their life circumstances as constrained exhibited a tendency toward greater externality in their locus of control orientation (More and Susan, 1984). Bhattacharya and Hussain (1986) point out that girls are more externally controlled than the boys. Conservative attitudes toward women would be associated with unjust world and external locus of control (Furnsham and Karani, 1986).

2.4 THE CONCEPT OF ANXIETY:

The concept of anxiety enjoys central position in the theories of human behaviour and personality and is regarded as a basic condition of human existence by many thinkers.

Freud (1936) is undoubtedly the first thinker who brought the significance of anxiety to the foreground of psychological research.
For Freud, anxiety has three components: (1) "a specific unpleasurable character, (2) efferent or discharge phenomenon, and (3) a perception of these".

Freud (1949) stated in somewhat more general terms that anxiety is unpleasant and is associated with the emotion of fear, and it is consciously perceived by the individual. At a surface level, the distinction between fear and anxiety is easy to make but, in practice, some confusion may occur. It is almost impossible to observe either pure anxiety or pure fear. The difficulty in making a clear distinction between fear and anxiety is seen in the fact that, even when restricted to achievement related situations in school, various labels have been used. Sarason et. al. (1960) use the term "test anxiety", to describe the anxiety induced by the experience of having to take a test. Alpert and Haber (1960) speak of "achievement anxiety", anxiety aroused in situations where the individual must demonstrate some individual skill. Atkinson and Feather (1966) use the term "motive to avoid failure", Taylor (1953) talks of "manifest anxiety" and "fear of failure", is used by Birney et. al. (1969). Test anxiety is frequently used as a measure of general achievement anxiety, since it is in the test situation that a child's achievement is estimated in schools. Spielberger (1966) has emphasized a distinction between anxiety as a transitory state or condition of the organism (state anxiety) and anxiety as a relatively stable personality trait (Trait anxiety). A person with high trait anxiety would tend to be highly anxious in most situations and a person with low trait anxiety would tend to be low in anxiety, even in relatively threatening circumstances.
Another factor to be considered in a study of anxiety is presented by Alpert and Haber (1960). They have made a distinction between facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety. They claim that there are aspects of fear or anxiety that improve the performance of individuals in certain achievement related situations, while other aspects of anxiety are actually a hindrance. While most workers in the field have focused on the debilitating aspects of anxiety, there is some evidence that certain kinds or levels of anxiety may facilitate performance. If anxiety is considered to be one aspect of level of activation, then a minimal level of activation or anxiety is certainly helpful in stimulating performance.

2.5 ANXIETY AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT:

There have been conflicting findings on the relationship between anxiety and academic achievement. Although a majorities of studies in the literature report negative correlations between these two variables, there have been studies where anxious students performed better. On the one hand, McCandless and Castaneda (1956) found that, of 30 correlations they reviewed between measures of anxiety and academic performance, all but two were negative. They also suggested that performance in arithmetic was most susceptible to interference by anxiety. On the other hand, Lynn (1957) reported that anxiety was significantly and positively related to achievement in reading, but not in arithmetic.

Spielberger (1962) investigated the relationship between academic achievement and anxiety taking into account the intellectual
levels of the students. He found that anxious students in the middle ranges of ability obtained lower grades than non-anxious students of comparable ability. Students of low ability carried poor grades irrespective of their anxiety level. For very superior students it appeared that anxiety had actually facilitated academic achievement.

Robinson (1966) studied anxiety in relation to academic achievement. It was found, contrary to other studies, that academic achievement and anxiety were positively related.

Sinha (1967) investigated intelligence and some personality factors in relation to academic achievement of 400 tenth class male students. Findings of the study showed that high achievers differed from low achievers on manifest anxiety. Manifest anxiety was found to be negatively and significantly related to achievement.

Gaudry and Bradshaw (1970) found that high test anxious group performed worse than their low test anxious counterpart. Kanekar et. al. (1976) found that correlations between anxiety and scores on an examination in Civics and History were not significant for high and low intelligence secondary school students.

Chandra and Kundu (1981) studied the relationship between personality factors and academic achievement of 108 first and second year Home Science classes. Anxiety was found to have no effect on the performance of students. Jindal and Panda (1982) found that low achievers (irrespective of sex) were more anxious than high achievers. Girls were more anxious than boys.
Best and Stanford (1983) tried to assess the effect of gender on test anxiety and GPA among 40 college students. ANOVA indicated that women were more test anxious than men. Gender had no significant effect on grade point average. McCann and Meen (1984) conducted a study to test the hypothesis that high anxiety facilitates the academic achievement of more intelligent students and inhibits the academic achievement of less intelligent students. Final grades of students served as the criterion. Anxiety was found to be unrelated to achievement for the total sample (r = .09, N.S.), but when the sample was divided at the ability median, anxiety and achievement correlated, 0.20 for the more intelligent half and -.16 (P< .05) for the less intelligent half. This study provided weak support for the above hypothesis.

Altrairy (1985), while investigating the relationship of test anxiety and academic variables, found that test anxiety, academic level and academic load were significantly correlated to student's cumulative grade point averages. Moderate anxious and low anxious students had higher cumulative grade point averages than high anxious students.

Chapin (1985) studied the facilitative effects of anxiety on academic performance. The obtained scores yielded significant main effects for manifest anxiety and academic performance on both facilitative and debilitating anxiety. Results revealed that those students whose manifest anxiety was high, experienced more debilitating than facilitative anxiety and vice-versa was also true. Further, regarding academic performance, those students whose academic performance was high, experienced more facilitative than debilitating anxiety. Students
whose performance was medium, experienced similar amounts of facilitative and debilitating anxiety. Finally those students whose academic performance was low, experienced more debilitating than facilitative anxiety.

Seipp, Bettina (1991) reported that predicting academic performance from anxiety could be improved if anxiety was measured only in terms of test anxiety and test anxiety in terms of worry. Araki and Noriyuki (1992) reported that anxiety was negatively correlated with academic achievement for both elementary and junior high school students.

William J.E. (1996) explored test anxiety among 103 academically talented high school students. Two components of test anxiety was assessed: a cognitive component (worry) and a physiological component (emotionality). Results indicate that these students suffered from test anxiety, and that higher anxiety, was related to lower performance on a science achievement test. Additionally, worry was more strongly and negatively related to science performance than was emotionality. Females reported more test anxiety than did males. Where as females experienced higher worry than emotionality, males reported little difference between the two anxiety components. Thus the findings in this field by and large are inconsistent. There are several possible explanations that might account for the conflicting relationships that have been reported. It is reported earlier that certain kinds of anxiety facilitate performance, while other kinds of tasks are susceptible to interference by anxiety. A third possibility is that there is a curvilinear relationship
between anxiety and performance. Upto a certain point, anxiety serves to
arouse the individual and consequently leads to improved performance,
but if the level of anxiety increases beyond that point, the performance is
hindered.

The second explanation is related to the nature of the material. While anxiety may interfere with the performance of individual
on complex tasks, it may facilitate performance on less complex and
more familiar materials. Thus, for a task of a given level of complexity,
there is a level of anxiety that is optimal for performance at that task. This
principle was first presented as the Yerkes-Dodson law and is often
referred to as such in the technical literature (Young, 1936).

2.6 ANXIETY AND GENDER

Ruebush (1963) has observed that girls have higher anxiety
than boys. Joesting and Joesting (1975) found gender differences in
general anxiety. Higher anxiety in females have also been reported by
many Indian researchers. (Arora 1976; Chatterjee et. al. 1976). Some
researchers have even reported more anxiety in boys than girls (Ansari
and Krishna, 1974). Some researchers found no gender differences in the
anxiety scores (Sinha and Sinha, 1976; Singh, 1985), Chang H. and Page

Mwamwenda T. S. (1994) investigated whether there are
gender differences in test anxiety among 92 part time graduate students
and whether any differences in test anxiety have corresponding effects on
academic performance. Results showed a small but significant sex
difference in test anxiety. There was also a statistically significant
difference in academic achievement as reflected in performance on a
class test in educational psychology, between those who had a high level
of test anxiety and those with a low level of test anxiety. However,
further analysis showed an inconsistent pattern of results regarding the
effect of test anxiety on academic performance.

2.7 THE CONCEPT OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

The achievement motive is 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 or
friendship. Achievement motivation is not necessarily the same thing as
the search for observable accomplishments, such as obtaining high test
scores, socially approved positions, or a high salary. Though it involves
planning and striving for excellence, it is the attitude toward achievement
that is important, rather than the accomplishments per se. Achievement
motivation may thus include a wide variety of activities, and express
itself in jobs as widely different from each other, for example, as truck
driver or accountant.

According to Murray (1938), the desires and effects of
achievement needs are, "to accomplish something difficult, to master,
manipulate or organize physical objects, human beings or ideas. To do
this as rapidly and as independently as possible. To overcome obstacles
and attain a high standard. To excel one's self, to rival and surpass others.
To increase self-regard by the successful exercise of talent".
These desires, Murray (1938) states, are accompanied by the following actions -

"To make intense, prolonged and repeated efforts to accomplish something difficult. To work with singleness of purpose towards a high and distant goal. To have the determination to win. To try to do everything well. To be stimulated to excel by the presence of others, to enjoy competition, to exert will power, to overcome boredom and fatigue".

McClelland and his co-workers (1953) presented a projective measure of n-Ach, defined as "concern with success in competition with some standards of excellence". The strengths and differences in achievement motivation among individuals have been found as early as the age of five and the achievement motive remains quite stable from this age through adulthood (Kagan and Moss, 1959). This indicates that achievement motive is developed at an early age, and it appears to depend to a large extent on the child's training in independence. Winterbottom's (1958) research determined that the amount, timing and type of independence that a young child received, has a greater impact on his or her later drive for achievement. She found that mothers of boys with high need for achievement demanded more independence and mastery at an earlier age than the mothers of boys with low need for achievement. By setting high standards for them, the mothers expected the children to be self-reliant, make their own friends, do well in competition, entertain themselves, and earn their own money at a significantly younger age than mothers of low achievers. On the other
hand, mothers of sons with a low need for achievement tended to restrict their son's activities and discourage their decision making capability by making them dependent on parents.

Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) also found that mothers and fathers of the boys with high need for achievement established high standards of excellence and gave more responsibility to their children than parents of boys with low need for achievement. Therefore, the main psychological factor in the development of achievement motivation is the attitude of the parents. The role of the mother and the father in developing independence mastery and setting high standards is very important, however, this should, "occur neither too early for the child's abilities, nor too late for him or her to internalize these standards as his or her own" (McClelland et. al. 1953).

An over all conclusion based on forgoing research is that "The relatively demanding parent who clearly instigates self-reliance in the child and who then rewards independent behaviour is teaching the child a need for achievement" (Sanford and Wrightsman, 1970).

Heckhausen (1967) defined achievement motivation "as the striving to increase or keep as high as possible one's own capability in all activities in which standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can either succeed or fail". Both Heckhausen (1967) and Atkinson (1958) feel that success and failures are always incidents relevant to an achievement oriented person-environment relationship. Correspondingly, there is an approach and avoidance tendency in achievement motivation, which has been studied by
Atkinson (1966) as "hope of success" and "fear of failure". He concluded that persons in whom achievement motive is stronger, prefer intermediate risks while persons in whom the motive to avoid failure is stronger avoid intermediate risks and prefer instead either very easy and safe undertakings. McClelland (1961) too confirmed that individuals with high n-Ach tended to take moderate risks while subjects with low n-Ach preferred significantly more often either very safe or very speculative enterprises. An achievement oriented person as defined by his high n-Ach score is a model personality who shows self-actualizing tendency, excercises his talents fully and enthusiastically to achieve higher goals that are related to his further self-development. This orientation is highly desirable for any type of professional growth and higher education. The achievement oriented person is basically motivated by the need for doing something constructive but he does not depend much on others. (Mukherjee, 1969).

2.8 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Various studies have reported a relationship between n-Ach and academic performance. People who score high in n-Ach do extremely better in school and college and learn faster than those with low n-Ach score. (Atkinson and Reitman 1956, McClelland et. al. 1953, Clark and McClelland 1956, Lowell 1952). Furthermore, high achievers set moderate goals, perform better in schools and attain a higher level of education (Crockett, 1962). Littig and Yerciaris (1963), too, reported a
positive relationship between n-Ach and the academic grades. They, however, noted that this was true only in the case of male subjects.

Achievement motivation is also related to academic background and occupational choice. In general, adults (male and female) with a university education have a stronger achievement motive and also are more opt to occupy professional positions than low achieving adults (Veroff et. al. 1960).

This implies that individuals with high n-Ach prefer to engage in tasks which are interesting and challenging to them. Therefore, achievement motivated individuals are more often found in business careers, particularly in sales and marketing. These careers offer challenge and opportunity to take risks with explicit knowledge of results i.e. profits and losses (Tiwari, 1980). According to Bass and Barrett (1972), "The individuals with high achievement motivation work longer and probably harder than others, but only at tasks which will give them some feeling of accomplishment. If the task is too easy to routine, they will do better than those with a low need for achievement. Individuals with high need for achievement will work just as hard for a group goal as for an individual goal to the extent that the task is challenging and provides a feeling of accomplishiment". Various studies by French (1958), French and Thomas (1958), Mehrabain (1968) indicated that people with high n-Ach are more likely to work on a problem for a longer period of time, are more likely to reach a solution, however, they may not do well at tasks which are boring, routine and offer no challenge. Individuals with high n-Ach select achievement oriented task and take personal responsibility for the success
or failure of the task (Weiner and Kukla, 1970). High n-Ach individuals are strongly concerned with competition and might be described as task oriented (Tiwar, 1980).

Mehta et al. (1967) conducted a study on the level of n-Achievement in boys in higher secondary schools and its relationship with school performance, they also compared the n-Ach of the middle class and the working class boys. According to them, the n-Achievement scores showed a highly significant positive relationship with marks in English, Mathematics and the total marks; high positive relationship with marks in Science subjects and marks in Hindi and non-science subjects. The n-Achievement also showed a positive correlation with intelligence. The low SES schools which had an N of 20 or more showed no relationship between the n-Achievement and the academic achievement, where as some schools with a High SES showed a significant positive relationship. The combined group of boys studying in low SES schools showed a positive correlation between n-Ach and school performance. The high SES school boys showed no relationship either between n-Achievement and performance or between n-Achievement and intelligence, where as the low SES school boys showed a definite relationship between their performance and n-Achievement.

Mehta (1969) conducted an investigation on the levels of n-Achievement motive in high school boys and its relationship with school performance. He found that -

i) the rural and the urban high school boys showed no difference in their n-Achievement level,
ii) the n-Ach showed a positive correlation with the total performance at the school annual examination.

Chaudhari (1971) conducted a study on the relationship between Achievement Motivation and Anxiety, Intelligence, Sex, Social Class and Vocational Aspirations. Her findings were -

i) the correlation coefficients between n-Ach and intelligence scores for the combined samples, and for the boys were not significant, whereas the same was significant at .01 level for girls,

ii) partial correlation (First and Second order), multiple correlation and regression equations indicated an absence of correlation between these two variables,

iii) the correlation between n-Ach and test anxiety scores was negative and not significant,

iv) the correlation between n-Ach and Social class scores was positive and significant for the total group but it was not significant in the case of boys as well as girls (when computed seperately),

v) girls have higher n-Ach scores than boys.

vi) the hypothesis asserting that n-Ach and intelligence were significantly and positively related was rejected,

vii) students with high n-Ach and low test anxiety revealed moderate degree of discrepancy in realistic vocational
aspirations as compared to the students with low n-Ach and high test anxiety.

Gokulnathan (1972) conducted a study on achievement related motivation and educational achievement among secondary school pupils. His salient findings were -

i) the tribal pupils obtained significantly higher n-Ach scores than non-tribal pupils,

ii) girls have an overall significantly higher n-Ach than the boys,

iii) the tribal boys in rural and urban samples exhibit more or less the same level of n-Ach. The non-tribal in the rural sample show a significantly greater n-Ach level than their counterparts. The tribal and non-tribal boys in the rural sample do not show any significant difference in their n-Ach levels, but their urban counter-parts show a significant difference. The rural tribal boys show a tendency for greater n-Ach than the urban non-tribal boys although the difference is not significant,

iv) the n-Ach levels of the tribal boys with middle and low SES are comparatively higher and not significantly different from the n-Ach of non-tribal urban boys with a high SES. Moreover, the mean n-Ach of the tribal boys with middle and low SES is significantly greater than the mean score of non-tribal urban boys with Low SES,
v) tribal boys with fathers of low educational level do not differ from the non-tribal boys with fathers of high and middle educational levels. The three educational status groups (high, middle, low), within either the tribal or the non-tribal group, do not show any significant differences in their mean n-Ach; both the middle and the low educational status tribal boys have a greater mean achievement than the non-tribal boys with fathers of low educational level.

Zagar (1980) designed a study to find out personality correlates like expression, neuroticism and n-Ach in relation to intelligence, creativity and scholastic achievement. Sample consisted of 435 Bachelor of Arts students. The study revealed that a moderate degree of neuroticism to a specific level, did not impair the level of expression of subjects whereas an extreme degree of neuroticism impaired their performance on intelligence tests. The high and low neurotic groups did not show any significant difference in creativity. The level of expression (high and low) was not related to intelligence. There was no significant relationship between the level of expression and the scholastic achievement. The high need achievers had a high degree of non-verbal creativity and better scholastic achievement than the low need achievers.

Jegede J.O. et al. (1997) studied the effects of achievement motivation and study habits on Nigerian Secondary School student's academic performance. The two hypotheses tested were that each of the treatment groups would perform significantly better in English than the control group and the students treated for the combination of improved
study habits and higher achievement motivation would perform better in English than any of the other group (study habit, achievement motivation and control). Student's entry and exist achievement motivation, study habits and English language performance were examined. Analyses of covariance were used to test for the significance of the results and both hypotheses were supported.

2.9 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION AND GENDER

The very few studies dealing achievement motivation of females have not produced any consistent data. "Perhaps the most persistent unresolved problem in research on achievement concerns the observed sex difference". Atkinson, (1958). Crandall et. al. (1962) have offered some explanation as to what accounts for the difference in the achievement behaviour between boys and girls. Boys are conditioned to aspire because of the social acceptability attached to success. On the other hand, girls may be rewarded simply for trying or conversely may even be criticized for stating high expectations and standards as unfeminine boasting. In some cultures achievement is considered a part of the male role (Mead 1949). Kagan and Moss (1959) reported that criticism of girls by mothers in their early years was associated with high independence and high achievement later on. They also reported that girls are encouraged to be dependent and boys are trained to be aggressive.

In comparing the attitudes of parents of high achievers with low achievers, it was reported that mothers of under achieving girls "encouraged dependency, appeared to be more dominant and did not
tolerate the aggressive behaviour of their children", (Shaw and Dutton 1962). Similar results were found by Teahan (1963). The occupation and education of parents also have some bearing on the achievement motivation of females.

In one study, need for achievement among high school girls was found to be associated with the father's education and occupation (Bloom 1971), while another study reported that mother's make an important contribution in developing the achievement motive among girls. The mother's occupational status was also identified as one determinant of achievement motivation in girls (Frerking 1974). According to Vernon (1969), "the appearance and causes of achievement motivation in men and women vary considerably. Marked achievement in women may result in social disapproval and therefore, they may show achievement oriented behaviour only in a friendly social surrounding".

This suggests that the female pattern of achievement motivation is markedly different from that of men. Similar view point is expressed by Stein and Bailey (1973) "one of the most important areas for female achievement is social skills". Achievement striving and social activity are more closely linked for females than for males. This link has frequently been interpreted as indicating that female’s achievement striving is motivated by need for affiliation of external social approval rather than by an internalized desire to meet a standard of excellence. Instead, it appears that attainment of excellence is often a goal of female’s achievement efforts, but the areas in which attainment is sought are frequently social skills and other areas perceived as feminine.
Piedmont (1988) conducted a study on "achievement motivation and fear of success in males and females" and found that the results offered some support for the proposed model. Although the instructional manipulations did not have their intended effects, the presence of a male experimenter in the 3 competitive groups was found to produce performance related conflicts for females. The pattern of scores conformed to the proposed model: high fear of success - high achievement women exhibited performance deficits. No effects were found in the neutral condition. Consistent with the proposed theoretical framework, different patterns of results were found for females. Only high ability males in the competitive condition evidenced any performance deficits.

2.10 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AND GENDER

Interest in psychological research on the topic of sex differences has grown by leaps and bounds since 1900. Gender difference does not mean only differences in endocrine glands or in the physical structure. Sex differences play a crucial and significant role and create a different model of attitude, interest and other abilities of human being. Evidence has accumulated that it is in the relationship between variables that the most interesting and important sex differences appear. Development studies using the concept of sex role and identification are being used to explore these relationship. Sex differences in physical traits, intelligence, specific attitudes were noted as small and inconsistent.
Regarding school achievement, girls consistently make better school records than boys. Chaudhari N. (1971), Agarawal P.C. (1974). Parikh (1978) pointed out, on the basis of his study, that the high achieving girls are better than boys in social adjustment.

Tiwari's (1980) study reveals that females performing better in academic pursuits, have more aspiration than males. Dubey (1982) found low positive correlation between males and educational performance and very high positive correlation between females and educational performance.

Hassan M.M. and Khalifa A. (1999) investigated sex differences in science achievement at the final high school level and changes in these differences for students across ten academic years. 100 boys and 100 girls for each academic year were randomly drawn from the Ministry of Education's examination reports. The result, in general, indicates that girls scored higher in final examinations. Across years these differences favored girls.

2.11 SOME OTHER SIGNIFICANT CORRELATES OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Academic achievement is a phenomenon of multiple determination. Wentzel K. R. et. al. (1990), investigated the concurrent effects of motivational, affective and self-regulatory processes on academic achievement in 163 sixth graders. Measures included the Adjustment Inventory, a measure of social motivation and grade point average (GPA). Results suggest that motivational, affective and
self-regulatory factors plays an important role in the achievement of academic competence, both as interpersonal processes and as behavioural manifestations of student's efforts to achieve.

Gustafson Sigrid B. (1994) studied patterns of under-achievement and over-achievement in 485 female Ss from Sweden when they were 13, 16 and 26 years old. Underachievers (UAS) exhibited higher intelligence but lower achievement, self-perceived ability; and school adaptation than did the over-achievers (OAS). Parents of UAs characterized them as incapable of and unsuited to academic work, while parents of OAs believed their daughters were capable of pursuing advanced education. In mid adolescence, the OAs related to their parents more positively and felt more independent of them than did UAS. In adulthood, UAs had significantly lower levels of education and occupation than did OAs.

Mpofu, Elias (1997), examined children's social acceptance as measured by sociometric ratings in relation to their GPAs. The sample consisted of 376 upper middle class, 12-13 years old Zimbabwe Black and White school children and their teachers (N = 13). Multiple regression analysis indicated that taking into account ethnicity, sex, family size and number of language spoken, social acceptance measures accounted for a significant portion of the variance in the children's academic achievement. Within social acceptance measures, children's actual rather than perceived social acceptance explained a great proportion of the variance in their academic achievement. Stoyroff, Steve (1997) examined the factors associated with the academic achievement of
77 freshman international students. Language proficiency and selected learning and study strategies were found to correlate with student's academic performance (as measured by GPA). Highest achievers effectively integrated social assistance into their learning where as lower achievers did not. Higher achievers also spent more time studying, remained up-to-date in their courses, were better at test taking and were better able to select the main ideas from spoken and written discourse.

Hong, Eunsook and Lee, Kit. Hung, (2000) compared preferred home work styles of Chinese students who were characterised by -

a) high vs. low self-perceived home work achievement and attitude,

b) high vs. low teacher rated home work completion and quality,

c) high vs. low academic achievement in mathematics.

This study also examined gender differences of home work styles in these students. More distinguishing home work style elements were found with self-perceived home work achievement and attitude levels than in the teacher rated achievement levels. Neither gender differences nor gender achievement interaction effects were indicated. As expected, the motivational elements distinguished the high-low levels of all types of achievement and attitudes towards home work. While high teacher-rated achievement was more closely associated with high scores of the teacher motivated element, the self-perception of work accomplishment at home was more positive in those students who were
highly motivated by parents as well as teacher. A number of environmental and organizational elements also distinguished the high from low achievers.

Guay, Frederic et. al. (1999). The purpose of this study was to test a model of peer experiences and academic achievement among elementary school children. This model postulates that the quality of children's social relations (e.g. social preference) in the Peer group can foster or inhibit feelings of connectedness (e.g. loneliness), which in turn affect children's perceptions of academic competence. Finally, perceptions of academic competence are hypothesized to predict change in academic achievement. Results from structural equation modeling provided support for the proposed model.

Maassen G. H. and Landsheer J. A. (2000), studied the relationship between Peer rated social competence and academic success among teenagers of the lowest level of Dutch general secondary education. Societal expectations are limited particularly within the group of adolescents who receive education at the lowest level only, and academic success is valued less. At this educational level, an uninterested or even a mildly depreciative attitude toward academic achievement is anticipated. As a result, it is expected that the relationship between academic performance and peer-perceived social competence should be void or even negative. The correlations between peer-rated social competence and various measures of academic competence were void or even negative. The poorest school achievement are found among a small
category of children who have received mainly neutral peer judgments of social competence.

Maikhuri, R. and Pande, S.K. (1997) examined relationship between self-concept and academic achievement in a sample of 200 college students of both sexes between 16-18 years of age. Analysis of the scores revealed no significant correlation between academic achievement and self-concept. However, significant differences were observed in the academic achievement of the high and low self-concept groups.

Gyanani T. C. and Agrawal T. (1998), explored the effects of classroom climate, teacher’s leadership behaviour, and their expectations from the students on the student’s scholastic achievement. The sample comprised 200 B.Ed. students and 16 teachers. Scholastic achievement scores were the total aggregate marks obtained by the pupils in their examination. Analyses of variance revealed significant main effects of class room climate, teacher’s leadership behaviour, and their expectations on student's achievement. Interaction effects were not significant.

Jeynes, William H. (1999), investigated the academic achievement of 24,599 eighth graders whose parents got remarried after divorce. The results indicated that children of divorce from reconstituted families score no higher and often even lower in academic achievement than children of divorce from single parent families. Therefore, the assumption by many educators that children of divorce from reconstituted
families are better off academically than children of divorce from single parent families is not supported.

Bornholt L. J. and Goodnow J. J. (1999), examined the role of parents acting as a social influence on adolescent’s self-knowledge about competence in academic activities. The participants were 115 Australian students (aged 11-16 yrs.) and their mothers and fathers (aged 31 - 62 yrs.) A proposed model of parental perceptions as mediating influences of past performances on adolesecant's self perception was evaluated for variations in content and social context. Adolescent's self-disclosure to parents about academic achievements was also explored. Results indicated that parent-adolescent agreement was stronger with mothers than fathers and aspects of self-knowledge that make direct influences about abilities (performance, talent ), rather than direct inferences (effort, task difficulty) in both Mathematics and English. Adolescent self-disclosure to parents suggested an important addition to the model of family influence on the adolescent's sense of academic achievement.

Rodriguez et. al. (2000) showed that social problem solving (sps) ability significantly predicts academic performance in college students. Shin, Jongho et. al. (2000), examined student's achievement at the end of school year (final performance) which was predicted with two different variables:-

a) active responding during the school year and

b) achievement at the begining of school year (initial performance).
The results showed that active responding correlated highly with initial and final performance measures and that active responding contributed significantly for predicting final performance when initial performance was controlled. As expected, students with higher initial performance participated significantly more in classroom activities than did those with lower initial performance.

Synder, R. F. (2000) analyzed the relationship among learning style, multiple intelligence and academic achievement in 128 high school students. A positive correlation was found between GPA and visual learning style. A positive correlation was also found between achievement test scores and logical and linguistic multiple intelligence and visual learning style.

Roy G. S. et. al. (1994), assessed the effects of headship (managerial) style on socio emotional climate, academic achievement, and the campus activities of 200 students from 5 high schools under private and public management. Data were collected from interviews with subordinate teachers and senior students, objective tests and observations of students. Social emotional climate was better under nurturant headship than under democratic or authoritarian headship. Academic achievement was higher under nurturant headship and favourable social emotional climate.