The story has been mentioned earlier in regard to the idea that the readiness of the student to accept, follow, and carry out the suggestions of the school and school community, and the achievement of the objectives, and to find the relation

only to the quiet habits, to the success of the teacher, and to the relationship of the areas of the

school has been of equal share to obtain better learning.

The material involved new form. The other materials are presented under hypotheses below.

CHAPTER II
SURVEY OF RELATED LITERATURE

The study as has been mentioned earlier is concerned with the measurement of masculinity-femininity, adjustment at home, school and community, and academic achievement of adolescents, and to find the relationship between these variables. A review of related literature and studies relating to these areas of the study has been attempted here to obtain better insight into the problem. The materials available have been classified and are presented under appropriate heads, in this chapter.

Section A
Masculinity-Femininity and its Components

A review of literature and previous research studies on masculinity-femininity of both sexes, with special emphasis on the adolescent period is attempted here. The findings have been classified under broad categories, on the basis of the variables related to masculinity-femininity. The variables identified are: (1) Age (2) Presence of Siblings (3) Parental identification (4) Sex-role preference of boys and girls
(5) Friendship patterns of boys and girls (6) Vocational interests and social service deeds of both sexes. (7) Athletic interests of boys and girls (8) Empathic ability and sensitivity to emotions (9) Persuasibility (10) Clothing, dress and appearance (11) Mechanical mindedness (12) Literary interests (13) Aesthetic sense (14) Collecting interests of both sexes (15) Fear vs. courage patterns of boys and girls (16) Sex differences in language development (17) Inferiority vs. Superiority feelings of boys and girls (18) Shyness vs. Sociability of boys and girls (19) Values (2) Environmental influences.

(1) Age: Terman and Miles\(^1\) reported from the data, based on cross-sectional comparisons of groups at different ages and with various amounts of schooling, that the peak of masculinity in males is reached during the high school period, and that of the females during the college period, after which time both show a trend toward more feminine scores, the trend being more pronounced for men than for women. Strong\(^2\) found that the sixteen year old girls are more masculine than nineteen year olds.


Kuhlen\(^3\) asserts that sex differences will develop at an early age. A recent study\(^4\) suggests that early maturing boys obtained more masculine interest scores, and early maturing girls, more feminine interest scores than their later-maturing peers. Lynn\(^5\) concluded that with increasing age, males become relatively more family identified with the masculine role, the females being relatively less identified with the feminine role.

(2) Presence of Siblings: Brown\(^6\) found that boys with only sisters tended to be more feminine in their preferences and activities than are boys with only brothers or with both brothers and sisters. Studies\(^7,8\) have shown that all-male-dyads consistently resulted in the most 'masculine' youth. Similarly, girls in all-girl-


\(^5\) David B. Lynn, 'A Note on Sex Differences in the Development of Masculine and Feminine Identification'. *Psychological Review*, 1959, 66, 126-135.


dyads score highest on vocational interest patterns associated with traditionally feminine occupations, vocational values and goals are also seen to be influenced by the adolescents ordinal position in the family, by his or her siblings sex status and by combinations of the two. Younger girls with older brothers were found to have more masculine vocational interest patterns than girls in other ordinal position-sibling sex-status dyads. Opposite sex siblings have been found to affect the masculinity-femininity scores of the subject in the direction of the sibling's sex. The most expressively creative occupations of artist, music performer and author were preferred most by subjects with opposite sex siblings. Also,

11. B.G. Rosenberg and B. Sutton-Smith, ibid.
presence of siblings and achievement level of boys and girls are found to be related. Schoonouer\textsuperscript{17} found that siblings of both sexes, who had brothers exhibited higher performance on an achievement test, than siblings who had sisters.

(3) Parental Identification: Jerome Kegan\textsuperscript{18} has hypothesized that for identification to occur, the individual must perceive that the model 'possesses or commands goals and satisfactions' that the individual himself desires. Dixit\textsuperscript{19} asserts that, identification with the same sex parent results in normal adult sex role behaviour, while identification with the opposite sex parent leads to inverted sex role behavior. Heilburn and Fromme\textsuperscript{20} noticed that identification with the more masculine father for the boys or with a more masculine mother for the girls were associated with good

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{17}S.M. Schoonouer, 'The Relationship of Intelligence and Achievement to Birth Order, Sex of Siblings, and Age Interval'. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1959, 501, 143-146.
  \item \textsuperscript{19}C.R. Dixit, 'The Measurement of Sex-Role Identification in Children'. Psychological Studies, 1964, 9, 133-138.
\end{itemize}
adolescent adjustment. Studies\textsuperscript{21,22} in family dynamics have focussed on the importance of father's role. Kagan\textsuperscript{23} observed that the boys who were identified with the father possessed more sex-typed masculine behaviour and attitudes, than did the boys with minimal identification with their fathers. Payne and Mussen\textsuperscript{24} also found that the boys' masculinity scores were highly correlated with father identification scores, indicating that boys who were closely identified with their fathers tend to have more characteristically masculine attitudes than their peers, who were less highly identified with their fathers. Also, mother's masculinity scores were significantly and negatively correlated with their sons' identification scores. The more masculine the mother, the less strongly the boy tends


to identify with his father. Peter Blos\textsuperscript{25} asserts that identification with the father - an essential step in the development of masculinity is unavoidably accompanied by love for and rivalry with him. The study of Sears\textsuperscript{26} showed that five-year-old boys with warm and affectionate fathers showed stronger father identifications than did boys with 'cold' fathers. Payne and Mussen\textsuperscript{27} reported that adolescent boys who perceive their fathers as nurturant, are more likely to identify strongly with this parent than are boys who do not perceive their fathers as rewarding. Andry's\textsuperscript{28} investigations seem to imply that a child's failure to identify with his father and inadequate communication with his father are central elements in the etiology of delinquency. Henderson\textsuperscript{29}


\textsuperscript{26} P. Sears, 'Child Rearing factors Related to Playing in Sex-Typed Roles'. American Psychologist, 1953, 8, 431 (abstract).


and Steimel\(^{30}\) reported that some relationships exist between identification and (i) father-son interest similarity and (ii) masculinity-femininity of interests. Stewart\(^{31}\) found that boys who perceive themselves as their mothers perceive them, both actually and ideally, have more masculine interests. With the same methodology, but using college female subjects, White\(^{32}\) concluded that girls who describe themselves as both their parents see them, have more feminine interests. The results of Jones\(^{33,34,35,36}\) longitudinal Adolescent Growth Study indicated that a high degree of masculine identification during adolescence

\(^{30}\) R.J. Steimel, 'Childhood experiences and Masculinity-Femininity Scores'. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 1960, 7, 212.

\(^{31}\) L.H. Stewart, 'Mother-Son Identification and Vocational Interests'. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 1959, 60, 31-63.

\(^{32}\) B.J. White, 'The Relationship of Self-Concept and Parental Identification to Women's Vocational Interests'. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 1959, 6, 202-206.


is generally associated with concurrent emotional security. Thus, compared with boys with relatively feminine interests, the highly masculine subjects gave more evidence of positive, self-conceptions and self-confidence on their TAT stories and scores higher in overall adjustment on the adjustment inventory. Komarovsky\(^{37}\) found that girls were more often extremely attached to their parents, more often made major life decisions, 'very much' in accordance with the wishes of their parents, and were more often homesick than were boys. Hetherington's\(^{38}\) findings also indicated that boys and girls do imitate the dominant parent. When the mother appeared to be the most dominant of the two partners, there was some disruption in the ability of the boy to fulfill an adequate sex-role. Also, there appeared to be a greatly increased similarity between a father and a daughter, when the father was the dominant figure in the family. According to Miller\(^{39}\)


the absence of an adequate male model within the family, forces the male child to identify with the available male models in the external environment. Mathew found that the absence of mother or mother surrogate and friends of the same sex may give added strength and intensity to the masculine component in women. Kegan found that boys with father-absent had greater difficulty in establishing peer relations than boys from intact families. In another study, kindergarten age boys from father absent homes are reported to be less masculine in a projective test of sex-role orientation but not in overt behaviour than boys from father present homes. Lynn and Sawrey noticed that the father-absent boys tended to be more infantile and dependent, had poorer relations with their peers, and were less secure in their masculinity than the other boys. Another study by Hetherington showed

that those boys whose fathers had left before they were five had difficulty in developing behaviour that was appropriately masculine. Doby\textsuperscript{45} asserts that successful adjustment to the sex-role occurs when the child's parental identification is reinforced by the sex-role standards or norms of the peer group and larger society.

(4) \textbf{Sex-Role-Preferences:} Males tend to identify with a culturally defined masculine role, whereas females tend to identify with their mothers.\textsuperscript{46} Dinitz, et.al.\textsuperscript{47} findings confirms the general notion in the society, that masculine role is the most preferred, since 91 per cent of the men and 66 per cent of the women would prefer a male child. Lansky and McKay\textsuperscript{48} have presented findings which suggest that boys are becoming more variable in their choices and that today's parents are perhaps less likely than were their elders to apply pressures in keeping with traditional views.


\textsuperscript{46} D.B. Lynn, 'A Note on Sex Differences in the Development of Masculine and Feminine Identification'. \textit{Psychological Review}, 1959, 66, 2, 126-135.


regarding sex roles. Girls express more negative attitudes toward their own sex as they grow older. Rabban asserts that boys seem to manifest clear-cut patterns, presumed to be appropriate for their sex, earlier than girls. Jersild et al., and Hartup and Zook found that girls are likely to express more feminine sex-role preferences at the pre-school level, than they will at any later stage of childhood. But even at this early level, the boys' preference for the masculine role was stronger than girls' preference for the female role. Lazar's study showed that more girls participate in boys' activities than boys in girls'. With the support provided by the studies Lynn


53. M. Lizar, 'Reading Interests, Activities and Opportunities of Bright, Average and Dull Children'. Teachers College Contributions to Education 1937, No. 707, Teachers College, Columbia University.

54. David B. Lynn, ibid.
believes that (i) with increasing age, males become relatively more firmly identified with the masculine role. (ii) A larger proportion of females than males show preference for the role of the opposite sex. (iii) A higher proportion of females than males adopt aspects of the role of the opposite sex. Since masculinity is defined in terms of activity and achievement, boys are encouraged to develop assertiveness and independence...Another ingredient of masculine identity is the establishment of personal controls and standards. Douvan and Adelson\(^{55}\) found boys with well internalized standards to be high in achievement striving, independence of judgement, energy level in work and play, self-confidence, self-criticism, organisation of thought and capacity to bind present and future time. Boys with externalized standards were low in these types of ego-strength, Douvan and Adelson\(^{56}\) found development of sex identity in girls to be very different from that of boys. Autonomy, assertion and occupational goals had no significance for the feminine identity.


\(^{56}\) E. Douvan and J. Adelson, ibid.
Interpersonal competence is critical for girls, and is in a framework of interpersonal relations that they come to understand their sexuality. Girls are trained to cultivate sensitivity, warmth and sympathy. Girls who measured high on a femininity test, measured high on ego-strength. Sistrunk and McDavid\(^57\) found that females are more conforming than males, when confronted with typical issues of masculine interest, but that males are more conforming than females when confronted with issues of feminine interest. Similarly, French and Lesser\(^58\) showed that women who valued their feminine identity did not respond much to the usual achievement situations involving men and intellectual competition, but that they did not become achievement oriented in response to situations involving women and female problems.

(5) Friendship Patterns of Boys and Girls: Friendship patterns of boys and girls show marked differences.


Jones\(^59\) found that boys expect their boy friends to be good sports, to enjoy practical jokes, work at their own, to be interested in the same activities they enjoy whether it be sports, social functions or academic achievements; to be neat in appearance and grown up in their behaviour. The socio-economic status of their friends is of less importance than it is to girls. To a girl, the social standing of her friend in the community is very important. Winslow and Frankel\(^60\) found that boys rate high in importance intelligence, cheerfulness, friendliness and congeniality of interests, while girls put major emphasis on intelligence, helpfulness, loyalty and generosity. \(^{1}\) Anastasi et al., assert that girls expect their friends to be cooperative with a group assured with an adult and serious minded. Vinacke\(^62\) found the females performed better than males, when a situation required

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\(^{59}\) M.C. Jones, Adolescent Friendships, American Psychologist, 1948, 3, 352.

\(^{60}\) C.N. Winslow and M.N. Frankel, 'A questionnaire study of the Traits that Adults consider to be Important in the formation of Friendships with Members of their own Sex'. Journal of Social Psychology, 1941, 13, 37-49.


co-operation, but less well than males, when a situation required competitiveness. According to Jones friends of boys between the ages of 11 and 18 years last longer than do friendships of girls. Girls are not as loyal to their friends, as boys are to theirs, says Lucina. She adds that a girl frequently divulges secrets told to her in confidence. Boys, by contrast, have more confidence in their friends, they feel they can count on the loyalty of their friends, and they are sure their friends will support them, if this support is needed. However, they are less willing to entrust their personal secrets to their friends than girls are. These sex differences are in line with the traditional concept of a masculine boy and a feminine girl.

(6) Vocational Interests and Social Service Activities of both Sexes

Vocational interests refer to the likes and preferences for particular jobs or vocations. Interest in

63. M.C. Jones, *ibid.*

64. M. Lucina, 'Sex Differences in Adolescent Attitudes Toward Best Friends', *School Review*, 1940, 46, 512-516.
social service activities is a feminine characteristic. Blum\(^{65}\) found college men with tendencies toward feminine interests are more attracted to education and journalism as careers, while the men with more masculine interests show preferences for law, medicine, and engineering. Cawley\(^{66}\) noted that high school and college girls, who scored high in femininity were found to show greater interest in occupations involving personal relations, while those who scored high in masculinity showed greater interest in the scientific occupations. According to Douvan and Adelson,\(^{67}\) the range of vocational choices among girls is considerably more restricted than boys and is less influenced by socioeconomic status. Girls are more influenced by a desire to help others than are boys. For that reason they are more likely to be influenced in their vocational selection by this motive than boys are.\(^{68}\) Norton\(^{69}\) points


\(^{67}\) E.A. Douvan and J. Adelson, op.cit.

\(^{68}\) U.H. Fleege and H.J. Malone, 'Motivation in Occupational choices among Junior High School Students'. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1946, 37, 77-86.

out that girls are more influenced in their vocational selections by their teachers than are boys. The young adolescent is strongly motivated by the desire to be in an occupation that has glamour stemming from excitement and adventure. He selects a career offering him thrills to be packed in his daily life. That is why boys of today want to be aviators, actors, explorers, or radio announcers, while girls want to be married, go on the stage or into the movies, or be nurses. The vocational choice of girls between the ages 14 and 18 tend to cluster in a few highly visible and traditionally feminine occupations (e.g., Secretary, Nurse, Teacher...). Girls are also apt to name 'glamorous' (Singer, Model, Dancer...) occupations. Terman and Miles found that the females preferred more sedentary and indoor occupations and those more directly administrative, particularly to the young, the helpless

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and the distressed. In another investigation of job values and desires of male and female high school seniors, boys were shown to be significantly more interested in such job attributes as independence, power and financial success, girls significantly more often stressed such attributes as interesting experience and social service. Peterson found that females score significantly higher on Aesthetic-Cultural-Occupational Scales, than did males. Girls choosing traditionally masculine careers can often be differentiated from their peers during the early high school years. Girls with 'career orientations are characterized psychologically by more 'masculine' orientations than non-career oriented girls. Results of another interesting study show that male students score relatively higher


75. Robert A. Peterson, 'Vocational Interest Patterns of Male and Female Medical Students over a four-year period'. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1972, 19, 1, 21-25.


on Masculine-Interest Scales (sports, technical responsibility, mechanical) and lower on Feminine Interest Scales (art, music). Terman and Miles\textsuperscript{78} observed that among the most masculine men were engineers, and architects, among the least masculine were journalists, artists and clergymen, policemen and firemen were also close to the lower end of the range of scores for masculinity. Among women, domestic servants obtained the highest feminine scores and high school and college teachers, the lowest. Female students score significantly higher on the Academic Achievement Scale, and this can be interpreted as a measure of academic perseverance.\textsuperscript{79} Girls are interested in less-active, less-dangerous and less-adventurous occupations than boys are. They prefer work that is social in nature and that offers them an opportunity to help others and to meet eligible young men, teaching, nursing, social service and office work appeals to them; while for boys, jobs of this sort hold little interest. Girls on the whole want 'clean, white-collar work'.\textsuperscript{80}

\textsuperscript{78} L.M. Terman and C.C. Miles, \textit{op.cit.}


Brown \textsuperscript{81} compared the activity patterns of males and females in pre-literate societies and concluded that females were more person-centred in that the welfare of children took precedence over other activities. Males generally freed from child rearing responsibilities, were able to concentrate more on task-proficiency without being hindered by an immediate concern for others, who were immature, helpless, sick, or otherwise in need of personal attention.

(7) Athletic Interests of Boys and Girls

Sex differences are prominent in the play and other activities of adolescents. Hammond's \textsuperscript{82} study showed that boys were higher on the factor representing athletic activities, girls on the factor covering artistic activities, dancing etc. Lund's \textsuperscript{83} study indicate that interest in athletic activity decreases in girls throughout the high school period. Studies \textsuperscript{84},

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conducted on adolescent boys and girls show that sports are more popular with boys than girls, even in the junior and senior high school ages. A larger percentage of boys than girls participate in sports at every age during the early years of adolescence. Also, it was found that boys on the whole attend sports contests as spectators more than girls do. ⁸⁶, ⁸⁷ Parkham ⁸⁸ asserts that boys prefer competitive games requiring skill and muscular dexterity, while girls show a preference for the more sedentary forms in which less vigorous activity is needed. Coleman ⁸⁹, ⁹⁰ has reported that the majority of high school boys would like to be remembered as athletic stars, rather than brilliant students, whereas girls would rather be remembered as popular with classmates of both sexes. Rehberg ⁹¹ and Hurlock found that for boys, success in

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⁸⁶. F.G. Bible, ibid.


sports is a visible achievement. Also, it brings prestige to the school or college, while success in scholarship brings prestige mainly to the student himself. Parents, teachers and members of the community and the mass-media reinforce the prestige of boys' sports, and to a large extent, immunize the prestige of scholastic achievements. Since girls' sports carry little prestige and bring little acclaim, girls' interest is minimal. Terman pointed out that children's interest in various games and amusements as measured by the degree of preference for them, and by the amount of time devoted to them, depends upon age and sex, and not upon intelligence.

(8) **Empathic Ability and Sensitivity to emotions**

Mead described empathy as 'the capacity to take the role of the other and to adopt alternative perspectives vis-a-vis oneself, considered this ability to be the very essence of social intelligence'.


The ability to judge correctly the feelings, moods and the inclinations of others has been referred to as empathy by Wedet. The concept of empathy, which refers to a sensitivity to the needs and values of others, is a major element in role-theoretical accounts of inter-personal behaviour. Empathic persons are characterized by a patient and fore-bearing nature, by affilative, but socially ascendant tendencies and by liberal and humanistic, political and religious attitudes. Conversely, non-empathic persons tend to be intolerant and withdrawn.

96. G.M. Mead, ibid.
with ethnocentric and authoritarian values. Koffka proposed that women are superior to men in empathic judgement. According to Guilford and Zimmerman, some of the more common indicators of femininity as shown by factor analysis of inventory scores are, sympathetic (e.g., being sorry for a helpless bird), easily disgusted (e.g., by odours of perspiration) and like social limelight (e.g., does not mind being the centre of attention). Teachers empathy has been shown to be positively related to effectiveness in eliciting positive feelings in pupils. Also Izard's research finding shows that positive affect is related to increase in learning. While


104. J.P. Guilford and W.S. Zimmerman, 'Fourteen Dimensions of Temperament'. Psychological Monographs, 1956, 70, 417 cited in,


studying the superior achievers, Hogan et al., found that they were not particularly tolerant or empathic. Empathy and the ability to 'sympathize' are related. The development of the ability to express sympathy is the result of maturation and experience. In a study on adolescent boys, Loran found that those from low socio-economic status were less sensitive to the feelings of others, than were boys from higher socio-economic conditions. This may be because of the struggle they have to encounter for money, forcing them to suppress any show of sympathy for others. But, no significant differences were found among adolescent girls. In a study by Murphy, of pre-school children, sympathetic responses were classified under headings such as helping, comforting, removing the causes of distress, protecting, defending and warning. A number of experimental situations were utilized, that provided an opportunity for the display of sympathy and Murphy observed children during their free play.

107. Robert Hogan and Daniel S. Weiss, 'Personality Correlates of Superior Academic Achievement'. Journal of Counselling Psychology, 1974, 21, 2, 144-149.


(9) **Persuasibility**: Persuasibility is related to empathy. By persuasibility factor is meant, any variable attribute within a population that is correlated with consistent individual differences in responsiveness to one or more classes of influential communication.\(^{110}\) Investigators\(^{111}\) have observed significant sex differences in persuasibility. Two findings consistently reported are of interest (i) females are found to be more persuasible than males (ii) the correlations between personality measures and persuasibility are higher among males than among females. Janis and Field\(^{112}\) found from high school students that the mean persuasibility of females to be significantly higher (at the .01 level of confidence) than that of males. Carment\(^{113}\) et.al., showed that high intelligent introverts are more likely to be persuaded than are intelligent extraverts. Franks\(^{114}\) and Willett's\(^{115}\)

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findings support this view. But this is directly opposed to Eysenck’s contention that extraverts are more susceptible to social influence than are introverts.

(10) Clothing, Dress and Appearance: Boys are interested in clothes as girls. But, girls put slightly more emphasis on clothes as a symbol of social status, while boys use clothes as symbols of individuality and autonomy. While selecting clothes, boys and girls show preferences for certain colours. For boys, blues of different shades generally stand in first place, while girls prefer the different tints of red. This may be explained by the fact that, traditionally, blue is the colour for boys and pink for girls. Also, girls like the colours in fashion at the time, such as aqua and different shades of red, and they show more and more liking for gray, brown and

black as they grow older. A masculine looking boy has a better chance of acceptance by members of both sexes than an effeminate looking boy who is a better student and better groomed. Similarly, a girl who creates the impression of being 'masculine' will not be so acceptable to members of either sex as a 'feminine' girl. An attractive appearance is especially important to girls' social acceptance. Popular girls spend more time on their clothes and grooming than do less well accepted girls. Cannon et.al. asserts that an unattractive appearance not

120. E. Macaulay, 'Some Notes on the Attitude of Children to Dress'. British Journal of Medical Psychology, 1929, 9, 150-158.
122. M.S. Ryan, ibid.
only makes a poor impression on others, but, of equal seriousness, it gives rise to feelings of inadequacy, which influence the individual's behaviour unfavourably. This is especially important in the case of girls. In Silverman's study, of the effects of grooming and clothing on social acceptability of girls, it was found that girls who made a poor appearance were more self-effacing, more negativistic in their attitudes, more withdrawn, and less interested in people and social activities than were the girls who made a better appearance and were better accepted by their contemporaries. Also, to a large extent young girls' concept of femininity is associated with being pretty, well-dressed, socially attractive and complementary to the male.

(11) Mechanical Mindedness: A slight superiority of boys over girls has been found in studies of mechanical ability, while girls seem to be better in language facility, beginning to talk earlier than boys and surpassing them later on in most verbal activities.

127. S.S. Silverman, 'Clothing and Appearance: Their Psychological Implications for Teen-Age Girls'. Teachers College Contributions to Education, 1945, 912.


Klineberg\textsuperscript{130} noticed that, men are superior in motor and mechanical activities and on the average, obtain much higher scores on spatial tests, mazes, construction tests, mechanical aptitude tests and others.

(12) \textbf{Literary Interests:} During adolescent period, both boys and girls enjoy reading. Hurlock\textsuperscript{131} noticed, that boys prefer newspapers to magazines, while the reverse is true for girls. As he approaches puberty, the boy often spends more time reading newspapers than books. She\textsuperscript{132} also found that unlike boys, girls enjoy poetry, and the mature girls prefer emotional fiction and stories of mature type. Also, the older girls prefer romance to adventure, Crow and Crow\textsuperscript{133} found that adolescent boys prefer magazines that deal with science and mechanics, adventure and lives of heroic men, while girls prefer magazines containing romantic stories and adult fiction, and in some cases, home-interest magazines. They also noticed that while reading


newspapers, boys prefer to read the sports pages, and girls, the woman's page and reviews of motion pictures. Studies\(^{134,135,136}\) have consistently shown that girls prefer fiction and unlike boys, they enjoy poetry. Girls become increasingly interested in romance as they grow older. Witty\(^{137}\) found that boys read many more comics than girls do. Girls show greater interest in the society page, advertisements, women's page, personals, fashions, general news items and editorials than do boys. Boys on the other hand, prefer the sections that deal with sports, comics, crime, radio, pictures, theatre and school news.\(^{138,139,140,141}\)


Butterworth and Thompson\(^{142}\) write that, from the 6th grade on boys prefer stories 'written from a masculine standpoint whose central characters find adventure through the mastery of danger' and which feature a good deal of crime and violence, sports and athletics and humor. Results of other studies\(^{143,144,145,146}\) have shown that, girls not only like to read more than boys do and devote more of their leisure time to reading than do boys, but they prefer very different types of material in their reading. Russell\(^{147}\) studied library choices among ninth and tenth graders and found that girls tend to prefer milder adventure and romance, whereas boys choose more active fiction.

\(^{142}\) R.F. Butterworth and G.G. Thompson, 'Factors Related to Age-Grade Trends and Sex Differences in Children's Preferences for Comic Books'. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 1951, 78, 71-96.


\(^{144}\) P.A. Witty and H.C. Lehman, 'Study of the Reading and Reading Interests of Gifted Children'. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 1934, 45, 466-481.

\(^{145}\) C. McCullough, 'What is a Good Book To a Ninth Grader?'. *English Journal*, 1936, 25, 361-381.

\(^{146}\) R.L. Thorndike and F. Henry, 'Differences in Reading Interest Related to Differences in Sex and Intelligent Level'. *Elementary School Journal*, 1940, 40, 751-763.

Aesthetic Sense: Significant sex differences have been noted by eminent researches in aesthetic sense. Battorf\textsuperscript{148} found that college girls develop an appreciation of art more through the execution method than through the history of art approach. Boys in the older adolescent ages, show less aesthetic appreciation than do girls. Adorno\textsuperscript{149} noticed that 'interest and liking for art, music, literature and philosophy are more often found in the low scorer. It may be considered that such interests contribute substantially to the greater resourcefulness and to the comparative diversion from power and status, that is characteristic of the low scorer. Radio programmes preferred by boys and girls show marked differences. Girls prefer drama, classical and semi-classical music, movie stars, popular dance music, dialogue, crooners and song hits, while boys show a greater preference for comedy and variety, detective, crime, violence, and mystery, news and sports programmes and political speeches.\textsuperscript{150,151,152} 

\textsuperscript{148} E.A. Battorf, 'A Study Comparing Two Methods of Developing Art Appreciation with College Students'. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1947, 38, 17-44. 
\textsuperscript{150} W.R. Clark, 'Radio Listening Habits of Children'. Journal of Social Psychology, 1940, 12, 131-149. 
\textsuperscript{151} H. Gaudet, 'High School Students Judge Radio Programmes'. Education, 1940, 60, 639-646. 
preferences of boys and girls show differences as boys prefer adventure mystery, comedy, war, historical, western, newsreel and cartoon films, while girls prefer romance, tragedy and society themes. Terman et al., noticed that the subjects rated reliably higher by girls than boys are drawing, modelling, music (especially singing), dramatics, grammar, folk dancing and penmanship.

(14) Collecting Interests of both Sexes: Collecting is play in the strictest sense because the enjoyment comes more from the activity itself than from any practical value it might have. Girls at every age, are more interested in collecting than boys. According to Lehman and Witty, the peak of interest in collecting has been found to occur between the ages of 9 and 13 years, when the average number of collections per child is from six to ten. The collecting mania begins to


155. J.E. Garai and A. Scheinfeld, 'Sex Differences in Mental and Behavioural Traits'. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1968, 77, 169-299.

after the age of fourteen years, as is shown by the fact that the average number of collections for fifteen and sixteen year olds is four to six and for seventeen to eighteen year-olds, four. Garai, et.al., noticed that as girls approach adolescence, less prestige is associated with competition in games and sports and as a result, competition in collecting provides a substitute source of satisfaction. In another study, a list was made of the most popular items collected by boys and girls at three age levels in adolescence. Boys at thirteen years collect coupons, coins, rubber-bands, marbles and stamps, while girls at the same age collect beads letters received, old magazines, small pictures, and funny papers. At fourteen years, boys collect coupons, coins, samples of school work, photographs and letters received, and girls collect small pictures, magazines, letters received, photographs, and samples of school work. At eighteen years, boys collect theatre programmes, badges, letters received, photographs and old magazines; while girls collect letters

157. J.E. Garai and A. Scheinfeld, ibid.

received, old magazines, samples of school work, small pictures etc. Studies by Terman,159 Lehman and Witty,160 and Witty and Lehman 161 have identified a strong tendency for boys and girls to collect different things.

(15) Fear Vs. Courage Patterns of Boys and Girls:

Fear is regarded as the manifestation of weakness, of lack of courage or of immorality. Dictionary of Psychology162 defines fear as 'emotional behaviour characterized by a feeling tone of unpleasantness, and accompanied by activity of the sympathetic nervous system together with various types of postural and motor reactions, e.g., trembling, prostration, flight, convulsive seizures. The fear responses of boys and girls are often dissimilar. Garai 163 also asserts that girls' fears, on the whole are different from those of boys of the same age. Jersild, et.al.164

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159. L.M. Terman, et.al., ibid.
noticed that boys fear bodily injury more often and also more frequently reported they had no fears. Girls reported a greater number of fears of darkness and being alone. In another study, Jersild\textsuperscript{165} found that in almost every experimental situation, the number and percentage of girls who showed fear was found to be higher than the number and percentage of boys. Means\textsuperscript{166} in a study of college women, revealed that, freshmen and sophomores have a comparable number of fears, but that after the sophomore year, there is an average decline of approximately twenty fears. The younger students fear buffaloes, foxes, being poisoned death by starvation, while the seniors fear as being dependent, performing publicly, public opinion and reckless driving. Hurlock\textsuperscript{167} also noticed that, as children grow older, there are sex differences in fears. She noticed that boys are more afraid of wild animals, while girls are more afraid of insects and spiders. Boys are more troubled about school work, while girls are more


afraid of insects and spiders. Boys are more troubled about diseases, illness, darkness and night. On the whole girls show more fears than boys. Tryon found that in some instances, such as fear of going down a dark street, or singing alone in a music class, there was an increase with age for girls while for boys there was a decrease. Baden, under the guidance of Kuhlen, in his study of personal problems of ninth-graders found that, girls more preferably than boys, have 'problems' or 'concerns about almost any activity where 'fear' was implied, 'afraid to speak up in class', 'afraid of the dark', 'afraid of examinations', 'afraid to be alone' and 'afraid of a physical examination. Zachariah identified the fears of adolescent girls - they fear more of 'being raped, 'getting fat', 'thoughts over the death of parents, 'punishment of God', followed by, 'fear of thieves', 'snakes', punishment of parents', going alone through a burial place', being seen while


changing dress, and fear of 'lightning and thunder'. Thomas\textsuperscript{171} found that adolescent boys fear most, 'travelling alone in trains and buses', 'police men', 'marriage', 'study in mixed colleges', 'posing self-control', 'losing self-respect', 'temptation to drink', 'temptation to smoke', 'punishment of God', 'punishment of parents', 'thoughts over the death of parents', 'loss of prestige' followed narrowly by fear of wild animals and snakes. The study further showed that the temptation to drink and smoke increases with the increase of age; while the fear of parental punishment decreases with increase of age. James Hemmings\textsuperscript{172} study on adolescent girls revealed that they were afraid of the dark, thunderstorms, being left alone in the house, illness, the death of relatives or pets, visiting the doctor, strangers, water, dogs, insects, old-wives tales, sudden noises, heights and war. Garai\textsuperscript{173} concludes that these sex differences seem to be determined largely by sex differences in values; girls put higher value on personal safety than boys, and so they have more fears

\textsuperscript{171} Alex Thomas, 'A Developmental Study of Fear in College Students (Boys)'. Unpublished Masters Thesis, Trivandrum: University of Kerala, 1974.


\textsuperscript{173} J.E. Garai, \textit{ibid.}
of animals and strangers than boys. Girls also talk more about their fears than boys.

(16) Sex Differences in Language Development: Sex differences in language skills have often been noticed. Watson and Lindgren\textsuperscript{174} noticed that girls show superiority over boys in nearly all aspects of speech development. Garrison\textsuperscript{175} and McCarthy\textsuperscript{176} showed that girls are superior to boys in their sentence usage at every age. Terman and Tyler\textsuperscript{177} showed that girls are superior in all kinds of language material and boys in science and mathematics. They also observed that girls tend to excel on verbal types of problems and boys on quantitative and spatial. Havighurst and Breese\textsuperscript{178} and Hobson\textsuperscript{179} do also report that girls are superior on specific traits like linguistic ability and memory, while boys are superior on traits like spatial orientations.

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{175} K.C. Garrison, Growth and Development. New York: Longmans, 1952.
\item \textsuperscript{177} L.M.Terman and L.E.Tyler, 'Psychological Sex Differences' In L.Carmichael, ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{178} R.J.Havighurst and F.J. Breese, 'Relation Between Ability and Social Status in a Mid-Western Community: III Primary Mental Abilities. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1947, 38, 241-247.
\item \textsuperscript{179} J.R. Hobson, 'Sex Differences in Primary Mental Abilities'. Journal of Educational Research, 1947, 41, 126-132.
\end{itemize}
\end{footnotesize}
(17) Inferiority Vs. Superiority Feelings of Boys and Girls

Feelings of inferiority involve an unfavourable comparison of the self with the ego-ideal. When feelings of inferiority are projected, the individual will perceive others, rather than himself, as inferior to the ego-ideal. The self-criticism involved in feelings of inferiority will then become criticism of others. This perception of inferiority in others will defend the ego against the wounding self-perception of inferiority. Harriman points out that inferiority feelings denote the loss of feelings of superiority which follows defeat, organ inferiority or low social status. Adler observes that lack of confidence, under-valuation, timidity, hostile attitude towards the environment, envy, fantasy, irritability, perfectionist behaviour, compensatory activity, love of flattery, bad temper and emotional explosion, withdrawal behaviour, feeling of anger, performing the dominant roles, being jealous of the classmates, being terribly afraid of the competitive situations, unsure of success, bashfulness,

aiming end results, inability for praising others... etc. are the manifestations of inferiority feelings. Adler\textsuperscript{183} adds that the sense of inferiority and the striving for superiority are the two phases of the same fundamental fact in human life and thus inseparable. Superiority has been listed and defined by Murray\textsuperscript{184} among useful psychogenic motives. Sex differences were noted in the superiority feelings. Emotionally girls remain oppressed, overshadowed by a certain feeling of incompleteness. Women feel more inferior than men.\textsuperscript{185} Sudhir Kumar\textsuperscript{186} in his study of inferiority feelings of adolescents, noted that, girls score significantly (0.01 level) higher than boys, in the inferiority scale. The results of Fenlason and Hertz's\textsuperscript{187} study show that the percentage of women who

\textsuperscript{183} A. Adler, ibid.


\textsuperscript{187} A.F. Feulason and Ruth Hertz, 'The College Student and Feelings of Inferiority'. Mental Hygiene, 1938, 22, 389-399.
expressed themselves as feeling inferior was much higher than that of men (women 45.1% and men 34.5%).

(18) Sociability Vs. Shyness of Boys and Girls

Extroversion-Introversion and Sociability-shyness are related. Sociability, seeking social contacts, and mingling with people without disgust are termed extroversion and the tendency to withdraw from social groupings, contacts and to evade situations are referred to as introversion. Introversion is the feminine trait, while extroversion is masculine in character. Maddy \(^{188}\) reported that girls from the professional families were higher than those from the semi-skilled families in dominance, extroversion and emotional stability. The boys from the two groups differed only in extroversion. Beach \(^{189}\) found sociability to be positively related to achievement in the leaderless groups. Gawronski and Mathis \(^{190}\) found underachievers

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189. L.R. Beach, 'Sociability and Academic Achievement in various Types of Learning Situations'. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1960, 51, 208-212.

to be less sociable. Wang\textsuperscript{191} noticed that introversion in women was associated with lax discipline by the mother and with the lack of religious training, but neither of these relationships was found for men. Introversion in men was associated with a history of irregular money allowance, extroversion with regular allowance or regular earnings.

(19) \textbf{Values:} Values are formulations of the human beings' hopes and fears, threat avoidances and need projections.\textsuperscript{192} The values of boys and girls show significant differences. In the Allport-Vernon\textsuperscript{193} Study of Values, girls more frequently obtained high scores in aesthetic, social and religious values and men in economic and theoretical values. Pope\textsuperscript{194} reported that the pattern of values must be accepted by the child and must be conformed to if he is to be accepted by the members of the group.

\textsuperscript{191} C.K.A. Wang, 'The Significance of Early Personal History for Certain Personality Traits'. \textit{American Journal of Psychology}, 1932, 44, 768-774.


Environmental Influences: Studies contrast- ing the activities of boys and girls typically show more girls to participate in boys' activities than boys in girls'. Also, the less a boy leans toward his own sex, the more will a boy feel himself a woman, and may behave so toward other boys with whom he is intimately associated. The less a girl leans toward her own sex, the more she will act like a boy and avoid things feminine. When their development stops here, some youths may drift into homo-sexuality with the grave unhappiness that this grossly immature disorder so commonly produces. Britt asserts that when we examine instances of very masculine behaviour in women or very feminine behaviour in men, there are many indications that these types of behaviour are not in most cases caused by differences in sex hormones or chemicals alone, but that they are also caused by environmental factors particularly in the early years of the family.

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195. M. Lazar, 'Reading Interests, Activities and Opportunities of Bright, Average and Dull Children'. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No.707. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937.


But, Brown\textsuperscript{198} asserts that masculine and feminine roles have become more similar in America. Kelley\textsuperscript{199} feels that the entire culture is becoming more mechanized all the time, and while both men and women react favourably to these changes, men respond a little more than women. Kelley\textsuperscript{200} adds that though the human personality is formed early in life and by late adolescence is quite resistant to change; by the skilful application of special techniques it is possible, though admittedly difficult, to effect significant changes in behaviour.

Conclusions

On the basis of the findings of research studies, it has thus been seen that the peak of masculinity for both sexes is reached at the adolescent age. Sex of siblings is an affecting factor, since opposite sex siblings have been found to affect the masculinity-femininity


\textsuperscript{200} Lowell E. Kelly, \textit{ibid}. 
of the individual. Also, identification with the same sex parent results in normal sex-role behaviour. Clear-cut differences are seen in the friendship patterns of adolescent boys and girls. Vocational interests of boys and girls are seriously influenced by their masculinity-femininity. Masculinity-femininity is positively and significantly related to athletic interests. The ability to empathize is shown as a feminine characteristic, as women are superior to men in empathy. Persuasibility is related to empathy. Marked sex differences are noted in the selection of clothes, dressing manners and preference for masculine appearances. Masculinity is positively related to mechanical mindedness of boys and girls. Marked sex differences are noted in the literary interests of adolescents, as boys prefer adventures and mechanics, girls prefer to read romantic fiction and on beauty care. Interest in fine arts such as, painting, music, dance etc. are related to the femininity of the individual. The interest in collecting curios, also differ for boys and girls. The things collected by boys and girls show sharp differences. The fear patterns of boys and girls are often dissimilar. Girls show great fear for small animals such as spider, cockroach...etc., darkness and being alone. Boys fear wild animals, diseases, being poisoned, travelling alone, policemen,
marriage etc. Sex differences in language development and skills have been noticed. Girls are superior in language abilities and they are also superior with memory power. But, the feelings of inferiority are felt more by females. Also, emotionally girls are more oppressed. Shyness and sociability are referred to as introversion and extroversion. Girls are found to be more shy, in their behaviours with others. Sociability has been found to be a masculine characteristic. Due to environmental changes, such as mechanisation, marked differences are noted in the masculinity-femininity trait of men and women. Hence, it is possible to identify marked differences in the masculinity-femininity of adolescent boys and girls.

ADJUSTMENT AT HOME, SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

The word 'adjustment' was coined by Herbert Spencer in his 'Principles of Biology' in 1864. Here he defines life as the 'continuous adjustment of the internal to the external relations'. 'Adjustment' refers both to 'a process' and to 'a state'.

a continuous process. A person feels adjusted, when his needs - mainly physical, psychological and social are satisfied. For an adolescent, these basic needs may be fulfilled in the fields of home, school and society in which the adolescent moves about. According to Abraham,\(^2\) the effective adaptation to environment, both internal and external including conformity to group norms, mores, ideals and values, is adjustment. Whiting and Whiting\(^3\) point out that the composition of the household may have important implications for personality development. According to Hall and Miller,\(^4\) 'the family provides a model experience that influences the nature of all relationships and in so doing, fulfills certain functions for the society of which it is a part. There is a constant flow of interchange between individual family culture and the collection of ideas, values and practices that make up the wider culture. Although every family is unique, its members internalize

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and conform to values that are widely held'. Entorf emphasized the importance of the family group in establishing patterns and attitudes affecting the individual's relations as 'personally satisfying and socially constructive family relationships seem to depend very largely upon the capacity for genuine and sustained affection and the possession, especially on the part of the parents, of a certain sense of personal adequacy which renders domination, dependence, or emotional exploitation unnecessary within the family circle'. The personality development of children, as they reach adolescence is directly or indirectly affected by the attitudes of their family members. Larson and Myerhoff emphasized the role of both parents in the adolescent's socialisation process. The mother is seen as the more personal expressive and emotional parent, and the father, whose authority is more positional and rational tends to interact in a consistently more formal manner. They also point out that adolescent socialisation is more complex and less definitive in a one-parent family. While commenting on the role of parents, McKinney stresses that


when an affectional family relationship exists, parents show an understanding of their children's needs and play the role of companions to their children. Ferber et al.\textsuperscript{203} asserted that one factor usually found is the degree of agreement between the father and the mother and its direct bearing on the child's personal adjustment. According to Higgins,\textsuperscript{209} Hurley\textsuperscript{210} and Preston,\textsuperscript{211} the higher the degree of parental agreement, as to how the family should operate, the better the social, emotional and academic functioning of the child. This view is supported by Van der Veen.\textsuperscript{212}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{209} J.W. Higgins, 'Marital Health and Family Planning', Insight: Quarterly Review of Religion and Mental Health, 1967, 5, 12-14 cited in ibid.
  \item \textsuperscript{211} G.A. Preston, 'Parental Role Perceptions and Identification in Adolescent Girls', Dissertation Abstracts, 1966, 27, 612-613 cited in ibid.
  \item \textsuperscript{212} F. Van der Veen, 'The Parents' concept of the Family Unit and Child Adjustment'. Journal of Counselling Psychology, 1965, 12, 196-200.
\end{itemize}
Frye, Rebhun, and Stacey points out that, 'a young person's adjustment to life in general, his attitude toward work, or his independence in solving his personal problems, are largely determined by the family situation in which he develops, by the wisdom of his parents in letting him do, and assume the responsibility for his appropriate share of the household work, and by the extent to which he is allowed and encouraged, without blame for mistakes, to choose for himself and make his own decisions. But they are also conditioned and modified by the culturally determined attitudes and mores of the community or the degree of social integration which characterizes the neighbourhood. According to McKinney and Beaven


217. F. McKinney, ibid.

poorly adjusted adolescents have had poor family relationships, not only in adolescence, but also in childhood... Clearly, the home setting, as well as the quality of the home environment as such, is a factor of importance in the development of personality.\textsuperscript{219}

After the home, the school plays a leading role in developing the personality of the individual. It is through school experiences that the individual first learns the social behaviours and roles that he has to play. With the entrance to the school, the individual is exposed to a wider environment, where he must learn to co-operate with other children of his age. The well-adjusted child or adolescent competes with his classmates, in competitive situations at the school. The desire to gain the approval of classmates, teachers and parents is high. Related to this, is the desire to master subjects and skills at the classroom, laboratory and playgrounds. The role of the teacher is an important factor in the adjustment of the pupil, at the school. The importance of teacher adjustment was stressed by Gladstone\textsuperscript{220} and Laycock.\textsuperscript{221} 'The well-adjusted

\textsuperscript{219} M.L.Entorf, \textit{ibid.}
\textsuperscript{220} R. Gladstone, \textit{op.cit.}
\textsuperscript{221} S.R. Laycock, \textit{op.cit.}
teacher can help his children to adjust... The emo-
tionally healthy teacher, who has an appreciation
of the psychological principles governing behaviour
will regard each child as a unique individual whose
personal characteristics must be considered in rela-
tion to the total learning situation'. The teacher-
pupil relationship is an important factor in the ad-
justments of the pupils, and in the achievement syn-
drome. Other studies have proved that students' favo-
rable attitude towards teachers and towards achieve-
ment results in better relations with student and
teacher. Lum also noticed that under-achieving co-

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225. K.M. Lum, op.cit.
226. Elizabeth B. Hurlock, op.cit.
importance in the formation of his patterns of social behaviour and attitudes'. A child's social horizon broadens, apart from his family and school, with neighbours, peers, people met at the library, clubs, bus-stops, theatre...and in social functions. Social interaction is satisfying, when it meets some of the needs of the individuals involved.

Apart from home and school, the social environment of the adolescent widens into the neighbourhood. Play and recreational activities dominate adolescents' social contacts. These group activities call for cooperation and understanding among group members. Adolescents show increased interest in cultural programmes, social service activities...as part of their recreations. In the study by Jersild and Tasch,\(^{227}\) there was relatively little emphasis on general cultural activities, such as going to an art exhibit or a concert. The impact of the culture of the society on the interests and social activities of children and adolescents is evident. The adolescent learns the accepted behaviour patterns of his society, becomes self-confident and engages in

suitable activities, so as to make himself known to others. This makes him popular among his peers and community members. The socially accepted adolescent possess self-confidence, and associates himself with the activities of community members. Washburne, Smith, Kidd and Feinberg noticed that the accepted adolescents play a much more active role in extra-curricular activities of all sorts. Also studies have consistently shown that socially adjusted adolescents are more in number among achievers.

Levels of Achievement and Adjustment Patterns at Home, School and Community

While comparing the family relations of bright high-achieving and under-achieving high school boys, equated for grade in school, socio-economic status, and intelligence, Morrow and Wilson concluded that the

229. H.P. Smith, 'The Relationship Between Scores on the Bell Adjustment Inventory and Participation in Extra Curricular Activities'. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1947, 38, 11-16.
families of high-achievers were significantly more likely to do things together, to share ideas, and to involve their children in family decision-making. They were also more likely to display parental approval, confidence and trust, and less likely to engage in over-restrictive controls and overly severe discipline. Overall morale in these families was far higher than in the families of under-achieving boys. Kakkar\textsuperscript{233} points out that a feeling of insecurity in the home of the adolescents was mirrored in their attitude towards school situations. Jones\textsuperscript{234} found the parents of under-achievers to be more domineering. Rickard\textsuperscript{235} noticed that the parents of under-achieving students were over-restrictive. Conklin\textsuperscript{236} and Kimball\textsuperscript{237} noticed that the parents of low-achieving students more likely engaged in severe arbitrary punishment. Drews and Teahan\textsuperscript{238} noticed that the level of achievement was affected by the authoritarian and res-
trictive treatment of the mother. In most investigations, family tensions and parental disagreement regarding standards of behaviour expected of their children were greater in the families of under-achieving children and adolescents. Kurtz and Swenson noticed that among under-achieving students, there is little exchange of affection between parent and child, and parents show little pride of them. In a more recent study, Nair has shown that there is a positive and significant correlation of 0.3 between parents' attitude towards academic work and children's achievement in school. Gilmore showed that high-achievers have happier and more secure relation with their fathers. A recent study showed that fathers directly and or in-

239. E.S. Jones, ibid.
directly encourage their sons to develop specific skills which the father himself has acquired, in turn perhaps he also discourages those skills which he himself has not developed. Also, the general life, circumstances of children of affluent, educated parents appear to facilitate achievements in the literary, scientific and artistic areas... Daughters' achievements did appear to be influenced by their fathers' occupational skills. Ahluvalia and Gupta 246 observed that academic performance is significantly related to fathers' education and occupation and to provisions for study facilities available at home. Bernstein 247 found that, family size is inversely related to academic performance, that is, the larger the number of siblings, the lower the level of school achievement. While analysing the reasons for under-achievement, Pillai 248 found that the high percentage of failure in some schools in Kerala was due to increased percentage of pupils drawn from poor socio-economic strata. Jain 249 noticed the positive and

246. S.P. Ahluvalia and H.C. Gupta, op.cit.
247. B. Bernstein, op.cit.
249. S.K. Jain, op.cit.
significant influence of home environment on scholastic achievement. Dhaliwal,\textsuperscript{250} Kumar,\textsuperscript{251} and Patel and Joshi\textsuperscript{252} observed positive relationship between home adjustment and academic achievement. Woolf\textsuperscript{253} has concluded that poor home adjustment is accompanied by unsatisfactory behaviour in college.

Passow and Goldberg\textsuperscript{254} showed that the home and school environment may promote emotional and personality problems leading to hostility in children, which in turn affect their academic performance. According to Jackson and Lahaderna\textsuperscript{255} students who are doing well in school might be expected to express contentment when asked to describe their school experiences. Those who are doing poorly might be expected to express discontent. Gerberich\textsuperscript{256} found that over-achievers liked

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{251} V. Kumar, \textit{op.cit.}
\item \textsuperscript{252} A.S. Patel and R.J. Joshi, \textit{op.cit.}
\item \textsuperscript{255} P.W. Jackson and H.M. Lahaderna, 'Scholastic Success and Attitude Towards School in a Population of Sixth-Graders', \textit{Journal of Educational Psychology}, 1961, 52, 1-11.
\item \textsuperscript{256} J.R. Gerberich, 'Factors Related to the College Achievement of High Aptitude students who fail of Expectation and Low Aptitude', \textit{Journal of Educational Psychology}, 1941, 43, 253-265.
\end{itemize}
their teachers and classes. Berdie\textsuperscript{257} found that the high-achievers had better relations with teachers and peer group. Klein\textsuperscript{258} observed that likeness for school subjects has been related to academic success. Studies by Norman and Darley\textsuperscript{259} and Sember\textsuperscript{260} show significant differences in the degree of academic achievement between groups of well-adjusted and poorly-adjusted elementary school children. Recent Indian studies have shown that good school adjustment corresponded with over-achievement, while poor school adjustment is associated with academic under-achievement. Lunn\textsuperscript{264} found the high-achievers to have positive attitude to school

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{257} R.F. Berdie, \textit{op.cit.}
\item \textsuperscript{258} A. Klein, \textit{op.cit.}
\item \textsuperscript{259} R.D. Norman and N.F. Darley, 'The Comparative Personality Adjustment of Superior and Inferior Readers', \textit{Journal of Educational Psychology}, 1955, 50, 32-36.
\item \textsuperscript{260} T.J. Sember, 'Relationship Among Several Measures of Pupil Adjustment'. \textit{Journal of Educational Psychology}, 1960, 51, 60-64.
\item \textsuperscript{263} A.S. Dhaliwal, \textit{ibid.}
\item \textsuperscript{264} Joan C. Barker Lunn, 'The Influence of Sex, Achievement Level and Social Class on Junior High School Children's Attitudes'. \textit{British Journal of Educational Psychology}, 1972, 42, 70-74.
\end{itemize}
and school related objects and in conforming anxious and socially adjusted.

Studies\textsuperscript{265,266,267,268,269,270,271} have shown that the degree to which a person has internalized the rules and values of his society has been a consistent correlate of academic accomplishment. Muna\textsuperscript{272} has

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{265} A.W. Astin, 'The Use of Tests in Research on Students of High Ability', \textit{Journal of Counseling Psychology}, 1964, 11, 400-404.
\item \textsuperscript{266} G.D. Demas and M.J. Weijola, 'Achievement-Personality Criteria as selectors of Participants and Predictors of Success in special programs in Higher Education', \textit{California Journal of Educational Research}, 1966, 17, 188-192.
\item \textsuperscript{268} M.L. Griffin and M.R. Flaherty, 'Correlations of CPI Traits with Academic Ability', \textit{Educational and Psychological Measurement}, 1964, 24, 369-372.
\item \textsuperscript{269} J.L. Holland, 'The Prediction of College Grades from the California Psychological Inventory and the Scholastic Aptitude Test', \textit{Journal of Educational Psychology}, 1959, 50, 135-142.
\item \textsuperscript{270} M.R. Flaherty and E. Reutzel, 'Personality Traits of High and Low-Achievers in College', \textit{Journal of Educational Research,} 1965, 58, 409-411.
\end{itemize}
shown that, academic achievement is a concomitant of peer group acceptance. Taba\textsuperscript{273} and Tannenbaum\textsuperscript{274} have shown that peer affiliations and pressures can either reward or punish academic motivation and performance, depending on attitudes and values of peer groups. D'Heurle et al.\textsuperscript{275} found in a group of gifted children that students exhibiting high level of general achievement are found to be sensitive to and accept adult standards and are found to be better adjusted. Fraser\textsuperscript{276} showed that adolescents' culture and social acceptance has been related to academic achievement. Gough\textsuperscript{277} related social orientation to academic success. Morrow and Wilson\textsuperscript{278} report that their results with bright high-achieving and under-achieving boys clearly substantiate the importance of socialisation. Horrall\textsuperscript{279}

\textsuperscript{275} A. D'Heurle, J.C. Melinger and E.A. Haggard, 'Personality, Intellectual and Achievement Patterns in Gifted Children', Psychological Monograph, 1969, 73.
\textsuperscript{277} H.G. Gough, 'Factors Relating to the Academic Achievement of High School Students', Journal of Educational Psychology, 1949, 40, 65-78.
\textsuperscript{278} W.R. Morrow and R.C. Wilson, ibid.
\textsuperscript{279} B.M. Horrall, 'Academic Performance and Personality Adjustment of Highly Intelligent College Students', Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1957, 83.
noticed that the better adjusted students are achieving high in the examinations. Centi\textsuperscript{280} also reports that high ranking students tended to be better adjusted than are low ranking students. Maltin and Mendelsohn,\textsuperscript{281} Young,\textsuperscript{282} Gates,\textsuperscript{283} Steinzor,\textsuperscript{284} Kurtz and Swanson,\textsuperscript{285} and Owens and Johnson\textsuperscript{286} noticed that social adjustment is positively related to academic performance. Miller\textsuperscript{287} after studying eighty three exceptionally bright students, reports them to be better adjusted socially than the average and poor students. Gawronski and Mathis\textsuperscript{288} noticed that the over-achievers

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{280} Paul Centi, op.cit.
  \item \textsuperscript{282} C.W. Young, 'Scholarship and Social Adjustment', \textit{School and Society}, 1936, 43, 607-608.
  \item \textsuperscript{283} A.I. Gates, 'Failure in Reading and Social Maladjustment', \textit{Journal of National Education Association}, 1936, 25, 205-206.
  \item \textsuperscript{284} B. Steinzor, 'Rorschach Responses of Achieving and Non-Achieving Students of High Ability', \textit{American Journal of Orthopsychiatry}, 1944, 14, 494-504.
  \item \textsuperscript{285} J.J. Kurtz and E.J. Swanson, ibid.
  \item \textsuperscript{286} W.A. Owens and W.C. Johnson, 'Some Measured Personality Traits of Collegiate Under-Achievers', \textit{Journal of Educational Psychology}, 1949, 40, 41-46.
  \item \textsuperscript{287} A.J. Miller, 'Is the Exceptionally Able College Student Socially Maladjusted?' \textit{School and Society}, 1937, 45, 862-864.
\end{itemize}
tended to be better adjusted to externally oriented regulations, tended to cooperate more effectively with others and had a higher regard for the rights and feelings of others. Also, they had greater capacity for leadership. Whereas the under-achievers appeared to be less cooperative, less sociable and less diligent in their efforts to attain socially acceptable goals. Pal and Saxena\textsuperscript{289} noticed that over-achievers expressed numerically more problems in areas of social activity. In another study Sinha\textsuperscript{290} observed that high-achievers were significantly more adjusted than the low achievers. Pierce and Bowman,\textsuperscript{291} and Taylor\textsuperscript{292} also found the same results. Recent research studies by Adval,\textsuperscript{293} Kumar,\textsuperscript{294} Rao,\textsuperscript{295} Prakash,\textsuperscript{296} 


\textsuperscript{292} K.G. Taylor, \textit{op.cit.}


Sinha, Bhagia, and Rai show the positive relationship between adjustment and scholastic achievement.

Conclusions

On the basis of research findings, it can be concluded that some of the essential factors promoting better home adjustment - such as economic conditions of family, facilities at home, emotional satisfaction, parental education and vocation, parental attitudes and values, sibling relationships, democratic climate in the family are some of the many factors related to academic achievement of adolescents.

Satisfactory school relations - contentment with school experiences, better student-teacher relations, positive attitude towards school situations, are some of the many factors identified as related to high achievement.

Satisfactory relationships with the community, peer group affiliations are seen to be positively related to academic achievement.

Hence, the studies establish the positive relationship existing between home adjustment, school adjustment and community adjustment to high achievement.

**MASCULINITY-FEMININITY**

**AND**

**ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT**

Aspects of personality traits have been related to academic achievement of boys and girls of all ages. Centi\(^{300}\) pointed out that academic achievement can be considered as a function of one's personality. Horrall,\(^{301}\) Hoyt and Gebhart,\(^{302}\) Krug,\(^{303}\) Middleton and Guthrie,\(^{304}\) Holland,\(^{305}\) and Carter\(^{306}\) noticed significant personality differences between achievers and

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300. Paul Centi, op.cit.
301. B.M. Horrall, op.cit.
non-achievers. In another study, Holland using the California Psychological Inventory, with a sample of students of high ability considers that the best predictions of academic success are, for males sociability and masculinity, and for females responsibility and femininity. Milton reports that irrespective of the sex of the person, the more masculine he or she rates on conventional tests of masculinity-femininity the better he or she tends to be at problem-solving skills. Thomas Mathew found that over-achievers are more masculine than normal-achievers. Morgan noticed that high achievers show maturity and seriousness, a sense of responsibility, self-confidence, awareness of and concern for others and the motivation to achieve. Taylor reported that under-achievers feel inadequate, inferior, and self-derogatory in their attitudes towards self. According to Terman gifted girls appear to be

309. Thomas Mathew, op.cit.
somewhat more masculine. Mohan Mathew\textsuperscript{313} found that intelligence is highly correlated with masculinity in women. According to Gowan,\textsuperscript{314} variables like permisiveness, intraception and persuasiveness are associated with over-achievers. Morgan\textsuperscript{315} also pointed out that, persuasiveness, self-confidence and dominance are related positively to academic achievement. Lewis\textsuperscript{316} observed that, educationally accelerated superior children possess self-reliance; a component of masculinity. Diner\textsuperscript{317} found that the degree of artistic interest is negatively related to school performance. In a study on the personality characteristics of achieving and under-achieving students, Bachtold\textsuperscript{318} found that, credibility, self-confidence, and self-control, the components of masculinity, are the components in successful female

\textsuperscript{313} Mohan Mathew, Psychology for Emerging Problems, Trivandrum: New Educational Publishers.

\textsuperscript{314} J.C. Gowan, & Dynamics of Under-Achievement and Gifted Students', Exceptional Children, 1957, 24, 98-101.

\textsuperscript{315} H.H. Morgan, \textit{ibid}.


\textsuperscript{317} C.G. Diner, 'A Comparison of Over-Achievers and Under-Achieving Students at the University of Arkansas', Dissertation Abstracts, 1957.

achievement; and emotional stability, seriousness, and sensitivity are the components in successful male achievement. Self-confidence, self-control, seriousness, emotional stability are referred to as masculine characteristics. Gough asserts that traits such as seriousness of purpose, and persistence are directly associated with academic performance. Savage noticed that extraversion is related to higher academic attainment in children. Eysenck and Cookson also pointed out that the extraverted boys and girls are scholastically superior to introverted ones. Results of other studies have shown that dominance, a dimension of masculinity is positively correlated with grades. Kurtz and Swenson, Gough and Lum

323. H.H. Morgan, ibid.
pointed out that over-achievers were more self-confident, compared to under-achievers. Self-confidence is referred as a component of masculinity. Using the MMPI, Altus found trends of immaturity, femininity, and a tendency towards social extraversion among academic failures. Gawronski and Mathis found the under-achievers to be less cooperative and less sociable. Beach identified the positive relationship between sociability and academic success. The findings of Menon's study show that over-achieving groups of boys and girls of superior ability as well as the general group are less extraverted and maladjusted, while over-achieving boys of the general group are found to be less socially active and masculine. Over-achieving groups of boys in the general group are more tolerant. Over-achieving girls of the general group show stronger interest than under-achievers in aesthetic, social and mechanical activities and less interested in out-door persuasive and clerical activities. Over-achieving boys

328. Daniel A. Gawronski and Claude Mathis, ibid.
329. L.R. Beach, op.cit.
of the general group have more interest in aesthetic activity and less interest in outdoor work, while high ability over-achievers among boys have an interest in mechanical activities'. Walsh,\textsuperscript{331} studying bright elementary school children, observed that, over-achievers make choices on their own, initiate, activities and show adequacy in their emotional expression. They present feelings of belongingness and engage in constructive, purposive and resourceful activities. But, underachievers feel helpless, express exaggerated and free floating emotion or repress all emotions when some emotional responses seem appropriate. They feel rejected or isolated, they act defensively either through compliance, evasion, escape or blind rebellion and negativism. In a recent study,\textsuperscript{332} it was noticed that among sportsmen, girls who participate in sports are significantly better achievers than boys. However, sex difference is not significant in the case of non-sportsmen. Over-achievers seemed more responsible and possess greater capacity for leadership.\textsuperscript{333}


\textsuperscript{333} Daniel A. Gawronski and Claude Mathis, \textit{ibid}. 
Conclusions

On the basis of the research findings, it is seen that masculinity and the related masculine traits are associated with academic success, while femininity and feminine traits are related to low achievement.