Chapter - II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present section would contain findings from review of relevant literature divided into three subsections for convenience of thinking about the research issues. They are (i) Biological and (ii) Psychological and social facts contributing to underachievement.

2.1.(i) The Biological Factors:

The biological factor refers to the state of organism which is ready for learning. This includes the following factors:

a) **Maturation**: It is not wise to stimulate activities before the individual is physically prepared to do that beyond physical capability. There can be little mental activity without a proper attitude and appreciation based on physical capacity of the task.

b) **The integrity of the sense-organs (receptors)**: The sense organs take a main part in one’s learning. The relation between learning and defect of vision are directly related to the degree of handicap which the learner processes. If the visual defects are correctable they are corrected and then their retarding effects on learning are quite small. But if these handicaps are not discovered and not treated the school work, personality traits such as interests and confidence of the learner fail to emerge. Auditory defects constitute a serious handicap to the social and mental development of growing children and in this way affect learning.

c) **Activity level of the whole organism**: The activity level of the central nervous system determines the manner in which any situation is received and responded to. This depends upon the general health of
the whole organism.

d) **Condition of the effector organs:** The conditions of the muscles and glands also affect learning.

e) **Drugs:** Drugs produced such physiological changes which influence learning greatly. One should not take drug with the intention of increasing the efficiency of learning capacity, since the experimental evidences are against it.

f) **Fatigue:** Fatigue is also an important physiological factor which plays an important role on one’s capacity of learning. To avoid fatigue the rest period should be secured by as complete relaxation as possible.

g) **Sleep:** It is a common observation that the efficiency with which one learns during the day is dependent to some extent upon the amount of sleep.

2.1.(ii) **The Psychological Factors:**

Studies have examined the relationship between academic achievement and psychological variables like self-concept (Shivappa, 1969), emotional tension (Sabberwal, 1967) and sense of responsibility (Rao, 1964). A. K. Srivastava (1966) studied factors related to educational underachievement. He examined different criterion variables and their utility in identifying underachievers. Two such indices were study habits and reading ability (A. K. Srivastava, 1967). Study revealed that a positive relationship between study habit and academic achievement was there. (Siahi and Maiyo 2015). Results of another study showed a significant correlation between achievement motivation, study habits and performance of students. (Santhakumari, and Chamundeswari 2015).
In the 1970’s, the school was viewed as a social system and the classroom and pupils as subs systems. Researchers then focused on intra and inter-individual factors, as well as group factors that contributed to academic achievement (K. C. Panda, 1988). For instance, the interrelation between intelligence, creativity and school achievement was examined and it was found that each of these variables accounts for a reasonable degree of variance in school achievement. A study done by Meenu Dev (2016) revealed that mental ability, home environment, interest, and academic achievement are significantly and positively correlated.

The linkage between personality and academic achievement has also been probed. A significant study was that of Mathew (1976) who identified a group of personality factors that led to underachievement in science among secondary school students. The facilitating variables included self-reliance, sense of personal worth and freedom, feeling of belongingness and positive relations with the family, school and community. The inhibiting factors included general and test anxiety and maladjustment. He found that the facilitating and inhibiting personality variables significantly differentiated between groups of high, normal and underachievers who were identified on the basis of their achievement in science and scores on an intelligence test. More specifically the following contributing factors were noted:

a) Children’s self-concept: Academic self-concept is assumed to be directly associated with motivation, especially motivation for academic achievement (Eccles, Adler and Meece, 1984). Although the relationship between academic self-concept or perceived competence and actual achievement is bidirectional, considerable research substantiates the impact of self-perceptions on childrens’ later
achievement. A growing body of research indicate that both childrens’
and parents’ beliefs about childrens’ academic abilities are domain
specific. For instance, a child might view himself or herself as average
in reading the science, yet about average in mathematics.

Feedback that children receive from significant others (e.g. Parents,
Teachers and Peers) about their academic abilities may influence
children’s perception of their academic competence(Cole, 1991;
Parsons et. al. 1982). Parents in particular are believed to exert a
substantial influence on childrens’ perceptions of their academic
abilities (e.g. Jacobs and Eccles, 1992; Wagner and Philips, 1992). In
their study Hyde et al (2016 ) found that mother’s use of personal
connections predicted adolescents’ science and maths interest and
utility value . Parents can play an important role in motivating their
adolescent offsprings to take science. Although some have questioned
whether parents actually do influence their children (e.g., Harris,
1995, 1998; Robinson and Harris, 2014), the preponderance of
evidence indicates that parents do indeed have an influence (Briley et
al., 2014; Harackiewicz et al., 2012; Vandell, 2000). In particular,
expectancy-value theory highlights the importance of socializers such
as parents to children’s developing expectancies for success and task
values (Chhin, Bleeker, & Jacobs, 2008; Eccles, Jacobs, & Harold,
1990; Eccles et al., 1993), and, as noted earlier, the parent
socialization model impacts on the nature of these influences. A more
recent meta-analysis also examined the role of parental involvement in
students’ academic achievement in primary and secondary school
(Castro et al., 2015).
The two largest correlations between parental involvement and academic achievement were parental expectations \((z = 0.22)\) and communication with children about school issues \((z = 0.20)\). The first effect speaks to parental socialization on the expectancy side of the expectancy-value model. The latter effect concerns parents’ communications, broadly defined, and those communications are the topic of the current study.

b) State and Trait Anxiety:

State and the trait anxiety have been conceptualized as motivating or inhibiting academic achievement. Dubey (1976) found that students with high manifest anxiety had greater academic success but was unable to offer a plausible explanation for these findings. Seth (1978) in a study of academic achievement and emotionality found that emotionality in both boys and girls (girls were found to be more emotional than boys) led to low academic achievement. Emotionality includes a variety of subjective feeling states that predictably influence observable behaviour and physiological responses for functional purposes related to adaptation. (Decker and Cathrine, 2011). According to Atkinson, Berne and Woodworth (1996) emotionality is tendency or degree to which a person reacts emotionally.

Sharma (1978) undertook an exhaustive review of studies on relationship between anxiety and academic achievement. The conclusive finding was that the high anxiety led to low performance both at school and college level and indifferent curricular areas. A little bit anxiety (not of high magnitude) hence is essential for educational achievement.
Studies have demonstrated that anxiety and achievement are negatively related (e.g. Jindal and B. K. Panda, 1982), while Ganguli (1983) failed to find any difference in the mathematical achievement of high and low anxiety groups; these diverse findings were attributed to the presence of uncontrolled independent variables and the imperfect criterion measures used for achievement.

The motivational factors which influence academic achievement, have also been examined. These include level of aspiration, self-concept (e.g. Saraswat and Gaur, 1979) and attributional process. Shivarathnamma (1981) found a moderate relationship between academic achievement and academic motivation. Self-concept and achievement were found to be positively related (Garg, 1981). It was found that the adolescents’ underachievement frequently resulted from a distorted perception of the self as inferior, unwanted and unacceptable.

c) Parents’ Achievement Related Beliefs:

Parents’ expectation for their children’s eventual educational attainment (e.g. whether or not their child will attend college) have been shown to be related both to the child’s current achievement and to later achievement (Fuligni, 1995).

Kim’s (2002) research findings indicated that parental involvement makes a positive contribution to children’s educational achievement. Parenting behaviour that have been associated with children’s academic achievement include parenting styles, verbal interaction, book reading, helping with homework and school involvement.
(Dauber and Epstein, 1993; Feitelson and Goldstein, 1986; Muller and Kerbow, 1993; Scott-Jones, 1984). Also it was found that parents’ achievement beliefs, attitudes and values not only guide their behaviour with their children (Alexander and Entwisle, 1988; Entwisle and Heyduk, 1988) but appear to have an influence on their children’s own achievement beliefs (Eccles, 1983; Philips, 1987). For example, Philips (1987) reported that among a group of uniformly high achieving children, perceptions of academic competence were influenced more by parents’ perceptions than by the children’s record of achievement. A meta analysis of 36 studies examining the relations between parent autonomy support and child (PAS) and child that PAS was related together academic achievement and indicators of adaptive psychosocial functioning including autonomous motivation, psychological health, perceived competence, engagement and positive attitude toward school among other outcomes. The strongest relation emerged between PAS and psychological health. (Vasquez et al 2015).

Past research, based on meta-analytic syntheses, indicates that parents’ communications with their children about school issues are important and linked to students’ academic achievement (Castro et al., 2015; Hill and Tyson, 2009). However, there is a paucity of research examining the nature of parents’ communications and behavior with their children, particularly in regard to mathematics and science, and no studies have assessed parents’ communications about the utility value of mathematics and science.

Students’ beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning, epistemological studies have been investigated with the idea that they are part of underlying mechanism of metacognition (e.g. Ryan, 1984; Schoenfeld, 1983, 1985; Schomer, 1990).
d) Individual Difference:

Two major traditions may be discerned in the study of the determinants of individual differences in academic achievements. One emphasized the cognitive aspect of academic achievements. Because learning is so clearly a cognitive act designed to improve cognitive performance, it was natural to expect that it would depend on cognitive abilities for example, Verbal and Mathematical (Ackerman, 1989) abilities.

The other tradition is motivational emphasising the dependence of academic achievements on factors such as achievement motivation (Nicolls, 1984; Stipek, 1988), intrinsic and extrinsic attributions of success and failure (Weiner, 1984), self-esteem (Covington 1987), personality traits like extraversion, impulsivity and anxiety (Revelle, 1989), teacher student relations (DeCharms, 1984) or conative aptitudes and interests (Snow, 1989).

The common sense explanation for the under achievement is often in relation to the perception that mixed heritage people are more likely to have identity problems and low esteem because of their mixed backgrounds. In some cases, this view is further compounded by low teacher expectations associated with the socio-economic background and household structure of some mixed heritage pupils. The specific barriers to achievement identified for pupils derive from socio economic disadvantage, low teacher expectation linked to misunderstandings of mixed heritage identities and backgrounds and the behavioural issues and attitudes towards achievements linked to peergroup pressures (Haynes, Tikly and Caballero, 2006).
Vangaer, Pustjens, Damme and De Munter (2006) found that underachievement of boys was associated with boys’ less positive relationship with teacher, less positive wellbeing at school and less positive attitude towards school work. In the study of Sointu et al. (2016) behavioural and emotional strengths demonstrated a positive relationship with student – teacher relationships as well as academic achievement. There is considerable evidence that from primary age onwards misbehaviour amongst boys is a problem for teachers (Kniveton, 1994; Morgan and Dunn 1990). Underachievement therefore appears to be linked with emotional problems misbehaviour and an anti-learning culture.

e) Other Psychological Issues:

Considerable research documents report that underachievers lack internal locus of control (Lafoon, Jenkins – Freidman and Tollefson, 1989) and attribute success to luck or task ease, rather than effort (Weiner, 1985). If the child sees no relationship between efforts and outcome, he is unlikely to make effort (Rimm, 1986, 1995; Seligman, 1975). Bandura (1986) described self-efficacy as the belief in one’s capacities to carry through a designated performance. Academic self-efficacy is a good predictor of achievement and motivation.

There has been an increasing show of interest in the different ways in which individuals approach and respond to challenges in academic settings. On the other hand it has been assumed that student’s achievement motivation and related strategies influence their academic performance and related satisfaction (Jones and Berglas, 1978; Pintrich and DeGroot De, 1990; Snyder and Smith, 1982). Fear of failure and showing a low level of effort and high level of task
- avoidance are likely to lead to failure. Whereas, optimism, trying hard and concentrating on the task at hand increase the likelihood of success. Repeated failures and low achievement increase anxiety and lead to task avoidance, whereas academic success leads to active ways of dealing with future academic challenges.

**Aggression**

Aggression is an overt behavior of a person that intended to harm another person physically or psychologically or to damage or destroy or take that person’s property. Chen and his associate (2010) found their research that aggression had unique effects on social competence and academic achievement. Stipek and Miles (2008) found relationship between aggression and achievement is complex and reciprocal.

2.1.(iii) The Social Factors:

**A) School related problems:**

Studies rarely examined differences between under-achievements due to school stratification. This is partly a result of the absence of relevant stratification among schools in many advanced societies. The stratified schooling system is likely to be partly responsible for the creation of student underachievement. It’s effects may stem from the differential distribution of social and cultural capital, which appears to affect students, achievement (Colman and Hoffer, 1987; McNeal, 1997) In North American and some other cultural contexts private schools have more resources to help and develop students’ social capital which include social support, social integration and social control.
This social capital can stem primarily from resources and efforts available from the schools rather than from students’ own family backgrounds.

A number of studies have found that students who experience a large number of school moves are much more likely than non-mobile students to perform poorly in school (e.g. Jason, Danner and Kurasaki, 1993; Scarlata, 1993; Astone and McLanahan, 1994). When children change school they experience an ecological transition. School mobility is believed to be a risk factor for low-income children because it introduces discontinuity in learning environment that can adversely affect learning.

Even during the first half of the 20th Century, there was concern that some school practices, interfered with students learning at par with their potential. The school as social system has been wildly investigated and school environment and school climate have frequently been the variables of choice.

Deway also warned about the important role school plays in whether a student achieves or not:

If the pupil left the class instruction instead of taking it, if he engaged in physical truancy or mental truancy of mind wandering and finally build up an emotional revulsion against the subject, he was held to be at fault. No question was raised as to whether the trouble might not lie in the subject matter or in the way in which it was offered. The principle of interaction makes it clear that failure of adaptation of material to needs and capacities of individuals may cause an experience to be non-educative quite as much as failure of an
individual to adapt himself to the material (Dewey, 1938).

Now there continues to be evident that school practices (or lack of effective school practice) interfere with some students’ learning. For example, in a study of gifted African American achievers and underachiever (Ford, 1995), those under achievers reported (a) less positive teachers, (b) having too little time to understand material, (c) less supportive classroom climate, and (d) being unmotivated and distressed in school.

Rimm (1986) identifies structure, competition labelling, negative attention, boredom and conformity as school related causes of underachievement. In a study by Dr. Ch. Beda Devi (2015) revealed a low positive correlation between school adjustment and academic achievement in tribal students. Wheelock and Dorman (1988) reported that reasons for dropping out may grow from alienating practices in middle schools. Their factors include retention in grade, tracking ability grouping, discrimination based upon standardizing test, boredom with standardized curriculum and instruction, punitive practices, suspension and expulsion practices, school climate and rules and fragmented school organisation.

There are two specific ways schools contribute underachievement: practices that produces a downshifting in students and a focus on extrinsic motivation.

a) Downshifting:

Conditions within the classroom can produce sufficient stress to
cause students to shutdown learning. Downshifted pupils feel helpless; they don’t look at possibilities; they don’t feel safe to take risk or challenge old ideas.they have limited choices for behaviour.

Downshifting means that students slip almost into survival mode, going mechanically through actions, activities and routines but with very little cognitive energy. Downshifted students might appear to participate in classroom activities but optimal learning is effectively shutdown.

b) Impact of motivation:

Psychologists believe that motivation is a necessary ingredient for learning (Bichler and Snowman, 1986). Satisfactory school learning is unlikely to take place in absence of sufficient motivation to learn (Fontana 1981).

Intrinsic, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation

The Self-determination theory distinguishes between different types of motivation on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action (Ryan and Deci 2000). The Self-determination theory distinguishes between three types of motivation, which are intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation (Ryan and Deci 2000).

Intrinsic motivation, occurs when the activity is done out of the free choice of the individual (Ryan and Deci 2000).

According to Ryan and Deci (2000), extrinsic motivation is a construct that is relevant whenever an activity is done in order to attain some reward.
In the Self-determination Theory, the researchers proposed motivation as one of the classification of motivation. A person is amotivated, when his/her behavior lacks intentionality (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Amotivation exists in many high school students and such students are not motivated in anyway.

Hypothesized model for motivation influences performance given by Kusurkar et al. (2013).

A second school practice that contributes to underachievement pattern is a focus on extrinsic motivators. A student who perform “in order to obtainsome reward or avoid some punishment external to the activity itself” (Lepper, 1988), such as grades or teacher approval is extrinsically motivated.

Teachers may rely on extrinsic motivators with underachieving students precisely because they are challenged to find a way to help these students learn. When students perform for grades or other rewards, they no longer perceive that their learning has intrinsic value.

More recent researches on underachieving students focuses on the
identification of effective techniques for enhancing instructional
design, improving classroom management and meeting the needs
of diverse student population (WlodKowski, 1981).

Ford (1992) pointed out that underachievement is “Complex and
perplexing” and requires moving away from traditional theories,
including those where underachievement results only from a lack
of student motivation to achieve. Here work also suggests that
underachievement is influenced most by psychological variables
rather than by social and cultural variables. In the study of
Areepattamannil (2011), and Csikszentmihalyi, and Wong (2014)
showed the positive predictive effects of intrinsic motivation on
academic achievement for both the Indian immigrant and Indian
adolescents. Intrinsic motivation was related to difficulty level of
courses. Emannuel and others (2014) investigated the relationship
between achievement motivation, academic self-concept and
academic achievement of high school students. In addition, the
study investigated the students profile to ascertain the levels of
achievement motivation, self-concept, and their academic
achievement. A total of 120 students selected from four high
schools participated in the study. The results showed that, majority
of the high school students were highly motivated, have high self-
concept and performed well in the Mathematics Achievement test.
The study also revealed a significant correlation between self-
concept and academic achievement. Again, there was a positive
relationship between achievement motivation and academic
achievement but the correlation was not significant.
B) Social Adjustment:

Poor social adjustment leads to low academic achievement, behavioural problems discordant educational aspirations and even school dropout. Abdulllah et al (2009) defined school adjustment as a person’s interaction with his or her environment and covers academic achievement, personal growth and accomplishments.

Research on academic achievement and school adjustment is not conclusive. Niebrzydowski and Porcy (1991) looked at school adjustment of high ability students who started school one year earlier because they had demonstrated outstanding abilities while in nursery school. Majority of the students tested, displayed high or very high achievement and appropriate interpersonal relations with peers. However, one quarter displayed low achievement and low social acceptance, although they were of high ability. Adhiambo, Odwar and Mildred (2011) found in their study of school adjustment that differences in school adjustment were manifest between the high achievers and low achievers. Hence, it is very important to look at level of achievement when considering school adjustment. In a study Yellaiah (2012) concluded that adjustment and academic achievement cause significant difference between male and female students. It is found that there is a low positive relationship between adjustment and academic achievement. In the study of Sonal Shivagunde and V.V. Kulkarni (2012) and Dr. Ch. Beda Devi (2015) revealed that high academic achievers had better adaptability in school than that of low academic achievers. Achievement has also been explained in terms educational social and humanistic values and parental educational aspirations (S.K. Agarwal, 1977). Studies on socio-economic status
(SES) have, however produced equivocal results. Some studies have reported a positive relationship between SES and academic behaviour. But unfortunately Parikh’s studies (1976, 1977) failed to confirm these findings.

C) Socio-economic Status:

Many social factors are identified as contributing to students dropping out, underachieving and being at risk. Those social causes are social and class differences and expectations, conflicts with teachers, lack of academic readiness and preparation, poor home life, unsupportive parents, poverty etc. some of these are discussed below : Chief among them, perhaps is the socioeconomic status.

In the Telegraph paper dated 1st September, 2013 a research report was published linking poverty to IQ drop. The study at Princeton University, U.S. has suggested that poverty can overwhelm mental ability and lead to a drop in cognitive function/intellectual functioning that was equivalent to the effect of losing a full night’s sleep or chronic alcoholism or a 13 point dropping IQ. The same people may have 13 point dropping IQ. The same people may have more mental capacity and attention to apply when they have more money, e.g. Sugar cane farmers are immediately after the harvest.

The impacts of socio-economic disadvantage on academic achievement have been the focus of a large number of studies. Children from socially disadvantaged groups become victims of our social system twice (R.C Tripathy, 1988). First, they lack resources to do well in schools which are basically meant for
educating middle class children (D. Sinha, 1980). Second when they enter school they are the victims of unfavourable teacher expectations. Children from families with low socio-economic status are at a greater risk of hunger, homelessness, sickness, physical and mental disabilities, violence, teen parenthood, family stress and educational failure. Student from low socio economic background that encounter these environmental factors are four times more likely to have learning disabilities than students from high socio economic background while a combination of these environmental factors accelerate academic success. A student, who has not eaten for days and has clothes that do not fit, cannot maintain focus in a classroom. G.U.Anene (Anene, 2005) argues that students from high socio economics status compared to students from low social economic status families that students coming from low socio economic background are not provide the same tools as the students from wealthy families. They are entering schools already behind those not living in similar conditions. Similarly it is believed that factors such as malnutrition, lack of motivation in homes, spousal violence, and single parents as well as impoverished home environment affects the development of intellectual ability negatively (Mario, 2006). This means that students from low socio-economic backgrounds tend to be below or just an average in their intellectual development particularly when this phenomenon is accessed in terms of scores of tests.

In the more recent studies, two significant trends are evident. First, some studies have focused on the school environment as the key determinant of academic achievement.
The second trend discernible was the focus on identifying key correlates of academic achievement and underachievement. Among the cognitive correlates, it was found that achievers had higher mental and creative abilities (Subrahmayam and Ramadevi, 1991) and were more field independent (Kiranmayi and Vindhaya, 1996).

Some of the thinking on underachievement lays blame on factors outside the school influence, such as poverty, home life and students’ academic motivation. The implication is that since schools have little control over these factors, then schools have little control over improving achievement.

There is evidence however, that underachieving students can be positively impacted by school practice. Poverty, single parent households and even homelessness and tremendous hardships do not cause academic failure (Lucas Henze, Donato, 1990; Mehan and Villanueva, 1993, Moll 1992, Taylor and Dorsey Gaines, 1988)

D) Family Environment:

Family environment and parental attitudes have also been treated as significant contributors to academic achievement. And they have already been discussed to some extent. Representative studies include those of U. Srivastava and Chandiramani (1995) who found that students from structured and independent families showed better performance. The influence of home environment on students’ academic achievement at the individual level is still prevalent, but less strong in much of the literature. There is an awareness of the importance of the home environment or family structure on student’s academic achievement. The home has a great influence on the
students’ psychological, emotional, social and economic state. In the view of Ajila and Olutola (2000), the state of the home affects the individual since the parents are the first socializing agents in an individual’s life. This is because the family background and context of a child affect his reaction to life situations and his level of performance. Although, the school is responsible for the experiences that make up the individual’s life during school periods, yet parents and the individual’s experiences at home play tremendous roles in building the personality of the child and making the child what he is. Thus, Ichado (1998) concluded that the environment in which the student comes from can greatly influence his performance in school.

Padhi and A.S. Dash (1994) reported a significant correlation between parental attitudes and competence scores. Ramchandran (1993) identified three levels of achievement, normal, overnormal and underachievers and found that social and familial Variables discriminate between the three groups of achievement have been studied. These include innovation in instructional strategies, which positively impacted on achievement. Meena Siwach Daulta (2008) found that good quality of home environment had significant positive correlation with high level of scholastic achievement in boys than among girls.

Dr. K.C. Barmola (2013) found a significant relationship between family environment and mental health and academic performance.

**Influence of Caste System:**

Studies have shown that caste membership also influences the dropout rate especially in India. In addition, the caste system also
plays a role in the quality of teaching imported. In particular, in areas where children belong to castes lower down in the social hierarchy and teachers belong to dominant castes, the social attitudes towards the former are reproduced inside schools. This further demotivates students from education and compounds the problem of low attendance and dropping out of enrolled. Educational deprivation in India has two critical dimension lacks of school and low quality of teaching. Studies on socioeconomic status (SES) have however produced equivocal results.

2.2 Characteristics of Underachievers:

Underachieving students may sometimes be mistakenly assessed as being learning disabled (McCall et al. 1992, Ross 1995). This might explain why practitioners occasionally deny the existence of underachievement, and attribute decreasing achievement entirely to a lack of intelligence. There is no appropriate method for educational psychologist to identify them (Ross, 1995). While the population of underachievers is diverse, there seems to be a consensus nevertheless, that a lack of an optimal or accurate self-concept characterizes this group (Mandal and Marcus, 1988; MaCall et al 1992). It has been reported that underachievers are characterized by external locus of control which means that they lack a sense of control over factors that influence their lives and attribute success to focus outside of themselves (Nowicke and Srickland, 1973, Mandal and Marcus, 1989, Van Boxlel and Monks 1992).

Underachievers many also fail to implement adequate problem solving strategies (Muir Brodus 1995). This may be due to insufficient metacognitive skills (Carr, Borkowski and Maxwell 1991). It seems that underachievers lack characteristics such as alertness and being support seeking too, since these
two characteristic tend to contribute to better achievement, independent of intelligence (Milgram and Palti, 1993). They are known to suffer from emotional disturbance, such as lacking task persistence and reflectiveness and are often impulsive and anxious which of course could lead to negative school attitudes (McCall et al 1992).

Traditional notions of underachievement differentiate among several underachievement factors and correlate with in the personality of an underachiever. Those who underachieve at school but at the same time misbehave and show delinquent and hostile behaviour and irritability are categorized as “rebel underachievers” (Reis and McCoach, 2000, p 73). Being “non-ambitious and avoiding the stigma of being a ‘nerd’ (a foolish or contemptible person who lacks social skills or is boringly studious) also represents a psychological account of school underachievement. Finally some pupils are described as “Stressed underachievers”, because they are dependent conformists and perfectionists who fear being unsuccessful (Reis and McCoach, 2000). School Underachievement may be conceived as field of resistance to the physical, epistemological psychological and ethical shaping performed in an educational system. The body of the underachiever therefore represent a paint of encounter between the conflicting discourses and also opportunity for redistribution of power.

Notably underachievers tend to be lower on self-confidence goal orientation, hardworking, responsibility and emotional maturity (Mufson, Cooper and Hall, 1989). Many studies, in search of antecedents to underachievement, reveal that underachievers exhibit lower self-esteem, persistence internal attribution and poor mental health (McCall, Evahn and Kratzer, 1998).
The surface characteristics that parents and teachers typically report include disorganization. Uneven skills, lost cues, unfinished carelessly, rendered tasks incompletely, homework, missing assignments, a barrage of excess including forgetfulness, blame laid on teacher, parents, or peers, and most frequently the description of school as boring.

The defensive patterns are clustered around dependency dominance or sometimes, a combination of both (Rimm1986a, 1995). Thus dependent underachievers avoid effort by requesting more help than they should require. Dominant underachievers are more likely to argue with their teachers, blame school for their boredom, demand alternative assignments, or claim that school is irrelevant or a waste of time.

**Study Habit**

Studying is a skill. Being successful in school requires a high level of study skills. Students must first learn these skills, practice them and develop effective study habits in order to be successful. Good study habits include many different skills: time management, self-discipline, concentration, memorization, organization, and effort. Studies pertaining to study habits and academic achievement of students have been compiled and presented hereunder. Vanita (2011) observed that even a good student who has the potentiality to achieve better may not be able to achieve as per expectations without good study habits. The general purpose of the study was to measure study habits of the secondary and higher secondary school students of Amrawathi district of Maharashtra State. The sample of 160 male and female students was selected randomly. Study habits inventory developed by Palsane and Sharma was used as a tool for data collection. The study concluded that students from Secondary School have more favorable study habits than Higher Secondary school students. The study also revealed that there is a
positive relationship between study habits and academic achievement of secondary and higher secondary school students. Mashayekhi and others (2014) investigated 220 undergraduate students of Islamic Azad University Jiroft Branch, randomly selected and studied from both College of Humanities and Agriculture. The results showed that 89% of students have relatively desirable study habits and between the two variables, study habits and academic achievement, there was a correlation.

**Adolescence and Underachievement:**

Broadly speaking adolescence begins when the individual attain sexual maturity and ends when independence from adult authority is legally assured. Puberty when sexual maturing starts to develop is a part of adolescence but is not synonymous with it because adolescence include all phases of maturing not sexual maturing alone. The first two years of puberty are known as “preadolescence”. The individual is called a “preadolescent” or a “pubescent child”.

To be able to determine the age of puberty, one must have reasonably accurate criteria to indicate when the transformation of the body begins and when the child becomes sexually mature. Among girls, the menarche or first menstruation, has been used for centuries as the best single criterion of sexual criterion.

The first major physical change that takes place at puberty is growth in body size. Height is regulated by the growth hormone from the anterior lobe of the pituitary gland. Increase in weight during adolescence is due to growth in the bones and muscles.
One of the most common dreads of adolescence is its alleged stormy nature. A label which received the scientific stamp of approval from G. Stanley Hall when he called adolescence a “period of storm and stress.” The word ‘Storm’ suggests the anger with its accompanying temper outbursts, is a prominent if not dominant, emotion at this age. “Stress” suggests the existence of emotional and physical reasons which disrupt normal functioning.

Teenagers are concerned with themselves, their personalities and satisfying their own needs. They also experience constant tension between contradictory desires, the wish to be alone, to look inward into themselves and at the same time, to be in the presence of others, to be surrounded by people and friends. Adolescents are very eager to have others notice. Paying attention to, and showing interest in them are appreciated much by them. At the same time, they ask not to be disturbed to have privacy and be left alone. Adolescents are inordinately absorbed with themselves: their own rapidly developing bodies, their suddenly heightened and fluctuating emotions, their new thoughts, and their newly awakened awareness of their appearance. They look at the world anew as if examining it for the first time, and by assessing their strengths and weaknesses, they measure themselves against it. Their needs for independence and for the freedom to make their own decisions seem to conflict with their strong need for guidance, relationship, and not infrequently dependence. Sadness changes as if by magic into gladness, melancholy in exuberance, self-imposed demands to give of themselves to other people and to worthy causes mingled with highly selfish behaviour. For the better part of the twentieth century, professionals have taken their fluctuations as evidence that adolescence is a time of “Storm and Stress.” Professionals view of adolescence has changed little from Hall’s 1904 view of this period as a time of exceptional turbulence. Hall emphasized the adolescent turmoil as the extremes of mood swings and behaviours –
brought about by the process of physical and emotional maturation (Coleman and Hendry, 1990, Rapaport and Lomsky-Feder 1988).

For Anna Freud (1958) too, adolescence is a period of “upheaval” between the calm of childhood and the calm of adulthood. In her view the upheaval is the external manifestation of adolescents efforts to cope with their intensified drives and to their libido from the prepubescent love object – the mother and father – to a love object outside the family.

Blos (1967) and later Rabichow and Sklansky (1980) continued to view adolescence as a time of inevitable and perhaps even essential, inner disruption as the personality reorganizes itself for adulthood while the biological changes of puberty make it especially vulnerable. Erikson saw it, all young people have an identity crisis. It is a period of confusion before they make critical life choices.

Beginning in the 1980s, however psychologists began to question the harsh inevitability of adolescent crisis and the depiction of adolescence as a time of solely turbulent processes (Offer, Ostrov, Howard and Atkinson, 1989). But it should be noted that Hall’s (1904) storm and stress model was based on clinical populations and to correct the distortion attention was turned to studying ordinary tanagers in their day to day interactions with their families friends and people at school. This trend was considered by psychologists with increased interest in human development throughout the lifespan, which led to experimental investigation of all life stages and provided more information on adolescence.

The vast majority of adolescents in these later studies reported feeling generally relaxed and incontrol, exhibiting no more than mildly unpredictable or rebellious behaviour. They were described as facing the acquisition of
adult roles with confidence, demonstrating good coping skills, affirming the value of work and forming positive relation with peers while maintaining good relations with their parents. There is recognition that despite adolescents’ unique vulnerability to stress, they are capable of coping with the challenges they face actively and productively and of seeking solutions that use the resources available to them (Gibson Cine et. al, 1996). Other suggested that the process of identity formation need not be tumultuous.

Flum (1993, 1994) proposed a style of identity formation that entails neither crisis on the hand, nor a premature foreclosure of identity or identity Confusion, on the other hand. Flum called it an evolutive style of identity formation, in which those who undergo it emphasize their individuality against the backdrop of strong positive connections with their parents and peers and cope with identity issues in a gradual sequential and manageable fashion. To be sure, a notable minority of essentially normal adolescent in countries all over the world do portray themselves as depressed, anxious, angry or confused. Moreover, the incidence of behavioural and psychological difficulties has been shown to increase during adolescence especially in girls (of Ruther and Germezy, 1983).

Research findings over the years have suggested that most parents have a good relationship with their adolescent children (Newman, 1989, Pardeck and Pardec, 1990, Steinbarg, 1990). Gross cultural data have shown that teenagers continue to feel love and admiration for their parents and to expect parental approval and pride, even as they develop positive relations with their friends (Offer et. al. 1988). These youngsters reported accepting and esteeming their parents and were confident that their feelings were reciprocated.
The literature on normal adolescents confirms the need to reconceptualise adolescence, and to recognize not only it’s a particular problem but also its richness, variety and validity.

A conceptual framework of probable psychological reasons of ‘ACADEMIC UNDER ACHIEVEMENT’ inspite of being intellectually average or above average.
Objectives:

To find out the roles of the following psychological variables as they supposed to exert influence upon the female students (mid adolescence) and render them underachieving in spite of being intelligent enough to score average or above average:

i) Achievement motivation
ii) Aggression
iii) Family pathology
iv) Study habit
v) Poor satisfaction from communication with a) father and b) mother
vi) School adjustment

Hypotheses

$H_{0a}$: The under achievers differ from the normal achievers with respect to the achievement motivation.

$H_{0b}$: The underachievers differ from the normal achievers in respect of their study habit.

$H_{0c}$: Underachievers report experiencing lesser satisfaction from communication with their fathers than the normal achievers.
\textbf{H}_{1a}: Underachievers report experiencing lesser satisfaction from communication with their mother than the normal achievers.

\textbf{H}_{1b}: Underachievers report experiencing different magnitude of adjustment with school than the normal achievers.

\textbf{H}_{1c}: Underachievers report experiencing more state anger than normal achievers.

\textbf{H}_{1d}: Underachievers report experiencing more trait anger than normal achievers.

\textbf{H}_{1e}: The underachievers and normal achievers differ from each other in respect of their anger expression.

\textbf{H}_{1f}: Underachievers’ family pathology, manifested by their mother’s perception of her way of relating to the child differ from that of the normal achievers.

\textbf{Section II:}

\textbf{H}_{2a}: The independent variables contribute differentially in making up scholastic underachievement.