CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

For conducting any piece of research study, review and survey of literature related to the study being conducted, is of paramount significance. Surveying of researches conducted in the field help the investigator in understanding the problem from different perspectives. Such a review also helps in defining the problem in researchable form. Besides, survey of the studies conducted by the other investigators in the field related to the problem in hand also helps the investigator in framing the objectives and the corresponding hypotheses of the study. However, the most significant contribution of such surveys is that they help the investigator in interpretation of the results of the study that the researcher investigates.

With the above objectives in the view, the investigator also surveyed the relevant literature which is presented in this chapter. For the sake of convenience of understanding the subject matter, the reviewed literature is divided into two parts viz., studies related to Academic Stress and studies related to Academic self-efficacy. However, it need to be mentioned that relatively fewer studies have been traced out by the investigator that cover the aspect related to problem under investigation and rather fewer studies have been conducted by Indian scholars on this aspect.

2.1. STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC STRESS

Tiwari and Balani (2013) studied the intervention program to stress reduction and reported that the working hours of school, workload, lack of resources to carry out their job, and the low level of reward were most frequently identified as stressors among students.

Abraham and Tyagi (2013) conducted a study to explore the relationship between academic stress and emotional intelligence of undergraduate students. The data was collected from 300 students studying in Degree colleges affiliated to M.D. University situated in Faridabad district of Haryana. The results revealed that (a) Significant relationship exists between academic stress and emotional intelligence of
undergraduate students (b) there is no significant contribution of emotional intelligence in predicting academic stress of undergraduate students.

Khan and Kausar (2013) explored the effect of academic stress on students’ performance and the impact of demographic variables like gender, age and educational level. The results showed significant effect of academic stress on student’s performance. There was a non-significant difference between male and female university students on scores on the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS). A significant difference between junior and senior students was found on the PSS. Academic stress was found to be higher in younger students than older students. There was a non-significant difference on PSS scores among students when stress was measured at the beginning and at the end of the semester.

Chabbra and Sodhi (2011) worked on the factors that lead to Psycho-Social Ill-Health among 500 male adolescents aged 12 to 18 years in Amritsar and found that middle adolescents were more affected by psychological problems. These adolescents with psychological problems were having significantly more school related issues, disturbed families, domestic violence and lesser number of close friends. Also, study reported that the stress was more in large extended families (> 8 members).

In a study by Bhasin et al. (2010) done on students belonging to classes from ninth to twelfth in Delhi and it was found that students appearing in board examinations i.e., 10th and 12th were more stressed as compared to students of non-board classes i.e. 9th and 11th.

Deb and Walsh (2010) conducted a cross sectional study on anxiety among high school students in Kolkata and revealed that adolescents from the middle socio-economic group were more anxious than adolescents from both high and low socio-economic groups and also adolescent children of working mothers were found to be more prone to anxiety.

Vamadevappa (2009) in a study revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between parental involvement and academic stress among the higher secondary students. Good parental involvement leads to higher academic stress. And the stress of girls is less than the boys among the higher parental involvement group.
Dhuria et al. (2009) studied the mental health status of senior secondary school students studying in classes XI and XII of Delhi and found that boys were more prone to psychological issues than girls.

Akbar Hussain et al. (2008) studied on Academic stress and adjustment among Public and Government high school students and found that the public school students were significantly stressed when compared to Government school students whereas the government school students were significantly better adjusted.

Aruna (2008) from a study concluded that stress of X class students had significant influence on their study habits. But, there was no significant difference between the study habits of boys and girls and their level of stress. The study behaviour of the students was significantly related to their academic stress and adjustment.

Moly Kuruvilla (2008) studied the influence of certain psycho-sociological variables on the influence of the academic stress, overall adjustment and scholastic achievement of college students and found that –(i) there is a significant positive correlation between the gender and the academic stress; boys had higher level stress compared to the girls (ii) Science students suffered with higher level of stress compared to the Arts and Commerce students. (iii) Academic Stress is significantly influencing the level of the scholastic achievement.

Ranamanikham and Vasanthal (2008) conducted a study on the relationship between students academic stress and adjustment in relation to their academic achievement. The findings are – (i) there was a significant positive correlation between academic stress and academic achievement. (ii) the scores of the students on their academic stress gradually increases the qualification of the parents decreased. (iii) the different sibling groups differed significantly on the level of stress. (iv) it was found that as the number of siblings increased, the level of stress score increased.

Latha et al. (2006) studied the “patterns of stress, coping styles and social support among adolescents”. In the study they found that the main sources of academic stress were rising up early in the morning for study, burden to study, lengthy concentration periods and long school hours.
Sapru (2006) found that majority of adolescents in the stressed and unstressed groups were in the age group of 14-16 years. Stressed adolescents perceived academics as burdensome. Studying, for them means, to secure the best possible marks, to maintain themselves in the competitive environment. Health related problems were more common in stressed.

Masih & Gulrez (2006). Academic stress arises when academic related demands exceeds to those available resources to an individual which he/she adapts.

Verma et al (2002) conducted a study on students from the north Indian city of Chandigarh and found that students had negative affect when they were doing school work, they were less happy, cheerful, and friendly than when they were doing other activities, and relaxed and excited. School Work was also a source of severe discomfort, and caused students to feel lonely, disappointed and worried. Girls were found to experience greater distress as a result of academic stress.

Panda (1998) found that the 9th and 10th class students coming from small families were better in their level of academic stress than the students living with the big families.

Singh et al. (1990) studied on role of stressful life events on adolescent girl's anxieties and found that adolescents belonging to nuclear families were more stressed.

Verma and Gupta (1990) explored some aspects of high academic stress on a sample of 254 students aged between 12 to 15 years. It was found that the stress of examination, homework and the expectations of teachers and parents resulted in a variety of somatic symptoms. Students suffered from headaches, stomach aches, nausea and fever in addition to behavior problems such as aggressiveness, temper tantrums and adjustment difficulties. They also experienced tension, withdrawal, irritability and sleeplessness. The symptoms were found to be greater in younger children rather than older students.

Raina (1983) studied on biochemical consequences of examination stress and found that when anxiety cause by stress reached clinical or sub clinical levels, it interfered with the ability of the student to perform at their potential. The inability to perform, in turn, led to a greater sense of distress.
Rangaswamy (1982) in a study on adolescents stated that effects of academic stress appear to be most severe in students who performed well in schools. The sample consisted of 20 high achieving students aged 15-18 from Chennai who had visited clinical psychologist with complaints of experiencing ‘tension headache’. Based on his examination, the researcher suggested that their headache were caused by constant worries, tension, over concerned attitudes… prolonged strain and disproportionate goal setting” (p-72). Regarding their academic work compared to a sample of ‘normal’ adolescents, the high achieving adolescents were found to experience greater adjustment difficulties and emotional disturbances.

Bisht (1980) studied the effect of school-climate and need for academic achievement on the academic stress of students and found that they did not affect academic stress independently, but their interaction was statistically significant among the four components of academic stress frustration, conflict, pressure and anxiety.

Talib and Zai-ur-Rehman (2012) Perceived stress was found to have significant negative correlation with academic performance of students. Moreover, the mean stress score among low academic achiever versus high academic achiever as well as low stress level and high stress level group were found to differ significantly. Majority of the students (53%) claimed that course load is the source of their stress which in turn affected their GPA.

Mani (2010) reported in his study that examinations are stressful as students have to master large content in short duration of time and also revealed that students do not find examination stressful instead the prospect of having to sit for examination induce stress in them. Mani explains that the chances of success in examination can mould the path of student’s academic and professional life.

Ollfors and Andersson’s (2007) conducted a study among Swedish youth showed that the perceived stress was higher in students who were more committed to studies. Those adolescents who were more stressed consider that demands placed on them were beyond their potential.

Blonna (2005) identified two dimensions of stress positive or negative. Stress works as a motivator when it is used positively and helps in the betterment of
life but if it is perceived and responded negatively it can cause havoc in student’s life.

Lumley & Provenzano (2003) conducted a study on academic stress and found that academic stress can cause various negative consequences on the well being and also on the academic performance of the students. Academic stress causes interference with the students’ way of life, cognitive functioning, and adaptive behaviors such as attendance in the school.

Misra, McKean, West, and Russo (2000) in their study “perceptions of academic stress among male and female college students in different academic years” and compared faculty and student perceptions of students academic stress and pointed out that students have found the requirement to meet assessment deadlines as a major source of stress.

Kaplan & Sadock (2000) found that an optimal level of stress can improve learning ability. Stress pervades the life of students, and has unfavorable impact on their mental and physical well being, and also on their ability to perform schoolwork effectively (Clark & Rieker, 1986; Felsten & Wilcox, 1992)

Pestonjee (1999) noted that it is natural and healthy to maintain optimal levels of stress. When stress is left unchecked and unmanaged, it creates problems in performance and affects the health, well-being and emotional intelligence of an organism.

Arthur (1998) and MacGeorge, Samter, & Gillikan (2005) conducted a study on Academic stress and found that if academic related demands exceeds the adaptive resources available to an individual it leads academic stress. If a student is not able to handle academic stress effectively, then severe psycho-social and emotional health related problems may arise.

Research has shown that academic workload has been one of the major sources of high school students’ stress. Chiang (1995) in his study on stress reactions among adolescents suggested that main sources of stress among adolescents are school. Too much homework, unsatisfactory academic performance, preparation for tests, lack of interest in a particular subject, and teacher’s punishment cause stress among adolescents.
Abouerie (1994) in a study stated that students are under stress every semester particularly before examinations and reported that the major sources of academic stress result from preparing for exams, grade competition, and the greater amount of content to master in a short duration of time.

Pukar, Lamb and Bartolovic (1993) surveyed 222 normal adolescents in a rural high school. The students reported experiencing stressful events related to school, family, friendship, health, and transportation. The study is important in view of the contribution towards understanding the stressor faced by rural adolescents; however, lack of standardized tools to measure it keeps the scope of the findings limited.

Wagner and Compas (1990) examined “the roles of gender, instrumentality and expressivities as moderators of the relation between stressful events and psychological symptoms in samples of junior high, senior high and college students”. Female adolescents in all the three samples reported more overall negative events than did men. Women in the junior and senior high samples reported more negative inter-personal stressors than did men. However, there was no indication in the samples of a stronger relation between negative events and psychological symptoms.

Gray and Rotttmann (1988) found that pressure over academic grades, lack of time to accomplish personal needs, concern over the future, the financial problems, the meaning and purpose of life, the physical appearance and the job opportunities after graduation were most often perceived as stressors among undergraduate college students.

Omizo et.al, (1988) investigates stressors and symptoms in students in the order of frequency, elementary students cited family problems and school problems; junior school students cited general adolescent problems, peer pressure and family problems; and high school students cited the future, school problems and peer pressure. Students identified psychological, physiological, behavioural and emotional symptoms of stress.

Thomas (1987) In a study on ‘Search for stress profiles of Adolescent students’, the principle stressors identified were school examinations, job aspirations, school work and home work. Fear of the unexpected, exhaustion and
lack of concentration were quoted to be the most severe stress symptoms. Science students appeared to be under greater stress than the Arts students.

In a survey of college students, Archer and Lamnin (1985) identified tests, grade competition and lack of time as primary causes of academic stressors, while intimate relationships, parent relationships and finances ranked as causes of highest personal stressor.

In a study carried out on college students at different educational levels Whiteman et.al, (1985) explained why students perform badly under stress, such as ‘hyper vigilance’ (i.e., over studying for an examination) and ‘premature closure’ (i.e. rushing through an examination). Situations that are stressful for undergraduates and for graduates, law and medical students and residents are cited.

Villanova and Bownas (1984) seven factors were identified as the causes of stress among the college students. They were: i) academic content, ii) interpersonal relationships, iii) financial security, iv) relocation and residence, v) recent death of a family member, vi) sexual relationships and vii) academic context (campus parking, dealing with the administrators and relations with instruction). The most intense stressors perceived were academic and monitory factors whereas relocation and present residence along with interpersonal relationships and health were less stressful.

Edmunds (1984) in a study on the need for assessment strategy for black students reported that stress was due to financial difficulties and lack of financial support. The factors of academic stress included writing term papers, test anxiety, fear of failure, competition for grades, answering essay questions, poor study skills and habits, excessive academic load and concentration and memory.

Sears and Milburn (1983) in their book ‘Stress in Children and Adolescents’ summarized typical stress among the school-age children. As the main developmental task of this stage concerns schooling, many of the stresses are school-related. School-related problems, in general are test taking, school fears, for example, homework and fear of failure or success including school phobia.

In a study of the early and mid adolescents in England and in the United States, West Charles et al., (1982) found that the extent of academic stress was the same in the two samples. The four factors of stress that emerged were parental
stress, place of studying, importance of school and fear of failure. These factors were common among students from both countries. In the peer stress factor the common variance for the US sample was 33 percent, whereas for the English sample it was 22 percent. The common variances for other factors were roughly equivalent. It was concluded that the variables, social and individual differences were the major contributing factors to academic stress.

Ippolitive (1980) studied on academic overloading of high school students. When a student spent much time and effort on homework without showing a corresponding level of academic performance, he/she was found to be suffering from academic overload. The causes of this condition were examined. It was suggested that the best remedy was to change the student’s study habits with a view to increasing the generality and applicability not only to one but also to a number of academic subjects.

Educational problems loom a large in the lives of adolescents. A study reported by Jackson and Gatzel (1963) found that the major sources of maladjustment in school were: (i) lack of intellectual ability to do the work required, (ii) failure in socialization, (iii) personal maladjustment, (iv) lack of parental or adult identification, (v) economic and cultural deprivation, (vi) minority status and (vii) unfavorable social conditions.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC STRESS AND STUDY HABITS

Singh (2011) explored the relationship of anxiety and achievement in relation to their study habits. The results indicated that those students who have average anxiety level showed better study habits than the students who have high and low anxiety levels.

Bhatnagar (2007) observed 600 tenth class students of Delhi and found a positive and significant correlation between the academic stress factors and the academic achievement. He also found a significant negative correlation between study habits and academic stress.

Sharma (2007) in a study on achievement of rural girls found that poor study habits were highly associated with higher stress. The level of stress also leads to the academic success.
Macan, Shahani, Dipboye, & Phillips (1990) conducted a study on the time management of college students and its relation with academic performance and stress and found that the poor study habits such as poor time management are responsible for academic related stress in most of the students.

Rhodes and Swedcow (1983) designed a tutorial program to reduce student stress, which focused on the comprehension of curriculum content, time management, and study skills, organisation of laboratory projects and study materials and manual skill development.

### 2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC STRESS AND PERSONALITY

Singh (2012) conducted a comparative study on rural and urban senior secondary school students and their emotional maturity and defined stress as “a physical or psychological stimulus that can produce mental or physiological reactions that may lead to illness”. Optimum level of stress may be helpful in cognitive tasks and performance while consistent high levels of stress may lead to anxiety and depression, which in turn increase in corticosteroid release. The response to stress may vary from individual to individual. Some individuals show persistent, high cortisol increases in response to stress while others show low or no such response. High versus low cortisol responders may actually represent two different groups, which may differ with respect to level of emotional intelligence, stress and personality traits.

Carver and Connor-Smith (2010) explored different coping mechanisms used by different personality types, which helps them to handle stress. Due to sociable, energetic and assertive nature of extraverts, they were likely to have stronger support systems in times of hardship. In contrast, neurotic individuals were more prone to anxiety, sadness, and distress in difficult times. Rather than facing the problems head on, neurotic individuals try to escape them. Since neurotics have the characteristics of introverts, they do not have as reliable support system.

Ebstrup, Eplov, Pisinger, and Jorgensen (2011) conducted a study using the “perceived stress scale and the NEO five-factor inventory to determine the relationship between different personality types and stress”. Neuroticism and stress were found to be highly and significantly correlated whereas extroversion and stress...
were found to have moderate significant negative correlation. Similarly, there was a moderate negative correlation between conscientiousness and stress.

Leith (1972) studied the relationship between personality and two conditions of stress. The stress tended to induce higher scores at all age levels than relaxed conditions. The interaction between treatments, introversion and anxiety has been verified in the two analyses so far carried out. Introverts and anxious subjects have been held to be more susceptible to arousal than extroverts and non-anxious. However, if these stresses become severe they may affect the psychic equilibrium and produce maladaptive patterns of behaviour. Stress has altered the way as to how human being led their emotional lives.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC STRESS AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Kumari and Garita (2012) conducted a study to find out the relationship between stress and academic achievement in senior secondary school students and found that stress and academic achievement were positively correlated. A significant difference was observed between high, moderate and low achiever on stress. Students with high and moderate stress performed better than the students having less stress.

Kumar (2008) investigated in a study on “the sources of academic stress and their influence on the scholastic achievement” and found that – (i) the urban students were higher in their level of stress as compared to the rural area students. (ii) the overall achievement is positively and significantly associated with the level of scholastic achievement.

Nagaraju (2004) conducted a study on 224 students of class X and reported that (i) the correlation between academic stress and anxiety is positive and significant. (ii) the correlation between intelligence and stress is negative and significant and (iii) the correlation between achievement and stress is positive and significant.

Bector (1995) conducted a comparative study of government and public school children of 9th grade in Chandigarh and reported significant negative correlation between stress and academic achievement.
Gustafsson et al. (2010) conducted a study to review the bidirectional inverse relationship between stress and academic achievement and found that mental health and academic achievement is negatively affected by intrinsic demands like stress, anxiety and depressive mood which in turn results in poor school performance.

Gelow, Brown, Dowling & Torres (2009) found that there is a significant positive correlation between reported school performance and emotional stress.

Zone Rassel (2006) investigated the effect of stress and anxiety on performance. He found that there was significant correlation between anxiety and academic performance even though it was negatively correlated. The academic stress and depression had seriously affected the ability to focus on the skill and performance.

Anice James and Marice (2004) investigated the influence of academic stress on the achievement of the XI standard students and found a significant difference between boys and girls. Girls performed better than boys in their level of achievement and lowered in the level of academic stress.

2.5 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC SELF-EFFICACY

Linenbrink and Pintrich (2003) conducted a study on the role played by self-efficacy beliefs in student learning and involvement in the classroom and had shown that academic self-efficacy is significantly associated with cognitive engagement, persistence, analytical thinking, academic commitment, achievement, strategy use, students' learning, and susceptibility to negative emotions.

Pajares and Miller (2001) investigated that students who have a developed sense of self-efficacy are well equipped to edify themselves when they have to rely on their own initiative. In nutshell, self-confident individuals perceive situations and extend solutions to any problem they may come across. Individuals who consider them efficacious will persist on hopeless tasks and consider their belief system as the source of their strength.

Silver, Smith, & Greene (2001) conducted a study on “strategies self-efficacy instrument on community college students” and suggested that achievement in community college students was significantly and positively related to Self-efficacy.
Zimmerman (2000) investigated on the link between self-efficacy and emotionality and reported that in the face of academic demands, students having strong sense of self-efficacy are less prone to stress and anxiety as compared to peers with weaker sense of perceived self-efficacy.

Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, (1996) conducted a study on multifaceted role played by self-efficacy beliefs on academic performance and it has been found that students who have a weak sense of self-regulatory and academic self-efficacy are more liable to involve in problematic behaviors such as delinquency, abandoning school, and school failure, endangering their chances at academic success and following employment prospects.

Mone et al (1995) conducted a study on self-efficacy, self-esteem, personal goals in the context of predictive validity and time dependency and contended that raising student’s perceived sense of academic self-efficacy can in turn increase their academic goal setting and academic performance.

Multon, Brown, & Lent (1991) conducted a study “meta-analytical relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and academic outcomes” and found that academic performance, self-efficacy and persistence were positively and significantly related for a number of disciplines.

Pintrich & Garcia (1991) studied the effect of students goal orientation and self-regulation in the college classroom and reported that the students who have faith in their capabilities in executing academic tasks employ more cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies and preserve longer than those who do not.

Bouffard-Bouchard et al. (1991) conducted a study on junior and senior high-school age students to find out “the influence of self-efficacy on self-regulation and performance” among them and found that regardless of the school grade and cognitive ability, performance and persistence of the students were significantly related with self-efficacy beliefs. As compared to students with weak sense of self-efficacy, the students with stronger sense of self efficacy were found to be better on performance and persisted longer on tasks.

Schunk (1985) found that motivation to attain knowledge and skills was found to be stronger in students with firmer self-efficacy beliefs regarding learning.
Further results of the study revealed that there is a significant relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and varied variables required for academic success.

**Lent et al. (1984)** studied “the relationship between self-efficacy expectations and academic achievement and persistence” and reported that when compared to students with lower academic self-efficacy, highly efficacious students achieved higher grades and persisted longer in their academic major.

**Collins (1982)** studied on self-efficacy and ability in achievement behavior and revealed that children who consider themselves high and low on mathematical self-efficacy were given mathematical problems to solve. Children who had robust self-efficacy beliefs were fast to reject defective strategies, cracked more problems, chose to amend problems they missed, and did so more precisely than children of equivalent ability who doubted their self-efficacy.

**Schunk (1984a, b)** studied the role of rewards and goals in enhancing self-efficacy and achievement and found that Student’s self-efficacy beliefs were raised by giving them with instructional strategies designed to raise their competence, such as strategy training, goal setting, modeling, attributional feedback, rewards for progress, and progress feedback. The increase in self-efficacy also resulted in improved better performance. Research also showed that self-efficacy for learning new skills predicts subsequent motivation and achievement during instruction.

### 2.6 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC SELF EFFICACY AND ACADEMIC STRESS

**Locke & Latham (2002)** conducted a study on goal setting have documented that self-efficacy and skill development are higher in students who set proximal goals than in those who set distal goals, in part because proximal accomplishments provide proof of growing proficiency. In addition, students who have been verbally persuaded to set their own goals experience increases in confidence, expertise, and commitment to achieve those goals.

**Chemers, Hu & Garcia (2001)** conducted a study on “mathematical problem solving ability among children” and reported that children with higher self-efficacy tried for longer periods on their task and used more effective problem solving strategies than students with lower self-efficacy.
Newby-Fraser & Schlebusch (1997) conducted a study on “mediating roles of Social support, self-efficacy and assertiveness on student stress”, self-efficacy has been found to have a significant inverse relationship with level of stress, advocating that high efficacious students reported to have less stress. Therefore it would suggest that higher self-efficacy has a moderating effect on stress for high school students.

Schunk (1983b) studied “the role of reward contingencies in the development of children’s skills and self-efficacy” and found that self-efficacy also is raised when students are given regular with frequent and immediate feedback while performing on a task. (Moreover, when students are taught to accredit this feedback to their own effort, they work harder, experience stronger motivation and report higher efficacy for further learning (Schunk, 1987).

Lent & Hackett (1987) conducted studies on college students pursuing science and engineering courses, high self-efficacy was found to influence the academic persistence required to sustain high academic achievement. Students who believe in their capabilities use more cognitive and meta-cognitive tactics and persisted longer.

Pajares and Kranzler (1995) conducted a study on the combined contribution of self-efficacy and mental ability (the variable typically recognized as the most powerful predictor of academic outcomes) to mathematics performance and found that, regardless the impact of mental ability, self-efficacy beliefs made a dominant and independent role in forecasting of performance.

Hackett et al. (1992) conducted a study on engineering students to study “the role of gender, ethnicity, and social cognitive factors in predicting the academic achievement” and suggested that both perceived stress and academic self-efficacy are predictors of cumulative grade-point average (GPA) for traditional students enrolled in engineering schools. Good grades were linked with less perceived stress and stronger self-efficacy.

Pintrich and De Groot (1990) studied classroom academic performance in terms of motivational and self-regulated learning, with even younger students, and revealed that performance in English was significantly and positively associated with both stress and self-efficacy but self-efficacy was found to be a stronger predictor of student performance. Also, revealed that self-efficacy facilitates
cognitive engagement such as raising self-efficacy is likely to lead to higher achievement by increasing use of cognitive strategies.

2.7 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC SELF-EFFICACY AND STUDY HABITS

It has been shown that student characteristics like learning styles, motivation, and learning strategies, study habit and gender played a very imperative role in academic self-efficacy achievement.

Chan, Fan, Jegede, Yum & Taplin, (1999) conducted a comparative study of the “Study Habits and Preferences of High Achieving and Low Achieving Open University Students” to compared high achiever and low achiever open university students according to their study habits, approaches to study, purpose for learning, use of support systems, other self-perceptions and commitments have shown that motivation is a factor influencing achievement and goal orientation.

2.8 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC SELF-EFFICACY AND PERSONALITY

Loo and Choy (2013) conducted a study on sources of Self-Efficacy effecting Academic Performance of Engineering Student and reported that self-efficacy had slight positive effect on academic performance.

In research that has studied the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement of students at different grade levels, with the exclusion of a few studies. Jeffreys (1998); Reynolds & Weigand (2010) reported a study on “Predicting non-traditional student retention and academic achievement”, documented that students with high academic self-efficacy performed better as compared to their counterparts.

Klassen, Krawchuk and Rajani (2008) in their study on “academic procrastination of undergraduates: low self-efficacy to self-regulate predicts higher levels of procrastination” and found that academic self-efficacy was a strong forecaster of academic performance.

Liu, Hsieh, Cho, & Schallert (2006) conducted a study on “Middle school student’s self efficacy, attitudes, and achievement in a computer-enhanced problem-
based learning environment” and found self-efficacy as a predictor of academic achievement in sciences.

**Downs (2005)** conducted a study to find out “the influence of self-efficacy on Native American high school student’s academic performance”. The finding revealed that there was a significant and positive relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance.

**Sanchez-Marin et al. (2001)** studied “the influence of personality and academic productivity on the university student Social Behavior” and found that extraverts were liable to fail their programmes more repeatedly than introverts, again signifying that they were distractible, sociable and impulsive.

**Amare (2001)** studied “the effects of student’s academic competence, self-determination, and motivation on school performance in Tana Haiq Secondary School” with a sample of 271 (143 females and 128 males) high school students and found that there was a significant and positive direct effect between academic competency and academic performance of the students.

**Pajares and Kranzler (1995)** conducted a study on “Self-efficacy beliefs and general mental ability in mathematical problem-solving” and found that students’ academic performance as significantly influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs.

**Junge & Dretzke (1995)** in their study on “Mathematical self-efficacy, gender differences in gifted/talented adolescents” and **Randhawa, Beamer & Lundberg (1993)** studied on “the role of mathematics self efficacy in the structural model of mathematics achievement” and reported that high school students have also revealed significant sex differences in self-efficacy beliefs, demonstrating that male students had significantly higher self-efficacy when compared females.

**Tuckman and Sexton, (1991)** studied “the effect of teacher encouragement on student self-efficacy and motivation for self-regulated performance” and found that motivational feedback enhanced self-efficacy on the task and following performance on the task. Statistical analyses suggested that when performance was held constant encouragement was seen to influence self-efficacy but encouragement did not affect performance. Hence, self-efficacy worked as a mediator of performance.
Schunk (1983) studied on “ability versus effort attributional feedback: Differential effects on self-efficacy and achievement”, and found that grade school children with high academic self-efficacy beliefs were also supposed to set more intricate learning goals than those with low self-efficacy beliefs.

2.9 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC SELF-EFFICACY AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Schunk & Zimmerman (2006) found that the Self-efficacy affects efforts and persistence, it consistently forecast academic achievement, because students who showed stronger senses of self-efficacy are more likely to put forth the required effort and preserve longer while facing academic demands.

Chemers et al. (2001) studied on the academic self-efficacy in relation to first-year college student performance and adjustment and found a high significant correlation between academic expectation and academic achievement.

Zimmerman, Bandura, and Martinez-Pons (1992) studied the role of self-efficacy beliefs and personal goal setting in self-motivation for academic attainment and suggested that academic achievement is directly as well as indirectly influenced by academic self-efficacy by raising student’s grade goals.