Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This part is a detailed explanation of literature review related to four dependent variables and independent variables under the present study. These studies have been conducted in all the four areas namely, study methods, performance, adjustment and educational aspirations of the high school students. The present studies on Nepalese High School students are limited in number to the studies on high school students of whole Nepal. There are insufficient studies on study methods of Nepalese high school students. Educational awareness of Nepalese parents is growing, number of High School students’ enrolment is increasing every year. But the students are not properly trained how they should study. There is a serious need of proper study techniques for the high school students. The different studies on these areas are in favor of a positive relationship between study method and performance, adjustment and educational aspiration.

In this review of literature part dependent and independent variables have been classified under following sections.

I. Studies on performance of high school students

II. Studies on adjustment of high school students

III. Studies on educational aspiration of high school students

IV. Studies on study methods of high school students
I. STUDIES ON PERFORMANCE OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

The goal of education in every grade is performance. Students of every level are eager to perform high score in their studies and advance their studies toward higher level. An increasing number of experts argue that achievement expectations for youth are too low and that adolescents are not adequately challenged to achieve higher level performance (Stevenson, Hofer, & Randell, 2000). Growing new social and academic pressures compel adolescents toward different roles, which require more responsibility for them. Achievement has become a serious matter for high school students. They are able to perceive how the present success or failure affects their future life. They have to manage academic pressure and social pressure. Balance is possible by psychological, motivational and contextual factors (Pintrich, 2003; Theobold, 2005; Wigfield & Eccles, 2001; Wigfield & Others, 2006). The following is the resume of researches carried out on performance of high school students.

Benner and Mistry (2007) conducted one studies to examine the independent effects of a teacher and mothers expectations on youth achievement outcomes, the mediating factors that explain the relationship between adult expectations and student achievement, and the effects of congruent vs. dissonant adult expectations on achievement. Participants were an ethnically diverse sample of 522 low-income, urban youth (ages 9-16) youth’s mothers and teachers also participated. Findings show that adult expectations exert a significant influence on youth’s academic competency and performance. Moreover, adult expectations matter both independently and conjointly: Comparably mother and teacher expectations have a disruptive effect. Of particular
interest are findings demonstrating the buffering effects of high mother expectations in the face of low teacher expectations.

Finn, Gerber, and Boyd-Zaharias (2005) carried one investigation where 3 questions about the long-term effects of early school experiences: (a) related to high school graduation (b) Is academic achievement in K-3 related to high school graduation (c) If class size is related to graduation, is the relationship explained by the effect of participation in small classes on students’ academic achievement? The study included 4,948 participants in Tennessee’s class-size experiment, Project STAR. Analyses showed that graduating was related to k-3 achievement and that attending small classes for 3 or more years increased the likelihood of graduating from high school.

Senko and Harackiewicz (2005) carried out two studies to examine the degree to which pursuit of achievement goals is regulated in response to ongoing competence feedback. In study 1, conducted in a college classroom, goal pursuit remained largely stable throughout the semester; yet poor exam performance predicted a significant decrease in mastery goal and performance-approach goal pursuit and an increase in performance-avoidance goal pursuit. In study 2, conducted in a laboratory, negative feedback reduced participants’ master goal pursuit. In addition, both studies showed unique benefits of 2 goals: The performance-approach goal predicted success on exams (study 1) and a novel activity (study 2), and the mastery goal predicted higher interest in both studies.
Researchers Elliott, Shell, Henry, and Maier (2005) examined the effect of achievement goals on performance attainment and the moderating roles of performance contingencies. Results from 3 experiments strongly support the authors’ hypotheses. Performance-avoidance goals undermined performance relative to performance-approach and mastery goals, regardless of contingency condition. Performance-approach goals had a more positive effect on performance than did mastery goals in the presence, but not in the absence, of a contingency. Furthermore, the presence of a contingency accentuated the effects of performance-based goals on performance and had little impact on the effect of mastery goals on performance. These results speak directly to a current conundrum in the achievement goal literature and highlight the need for a rigorous, systematic examination of the link between achievement goals and performance that takes into consideration features of the achievement task, context, and situation.

Legault, Green-Demers, and Pelletier (2006) carried a series of studies sought to develop and conceptually validate a taxonomy of reasons that give rise to academic amotivation and to investigate its social antecedents and academic consequences. In Study 1 (N = 351), an exploratory factor analysis offered preliminary support for an academic amotivation taxonomy comprising four dimensions: ability beliefs, effort beliefs, characteristics of the task, and value placed on the task. In Study 2 (N = 349), the proposed taxonomy was further corroborated through 1st- and 2nd-order confirmatory factor analyses, and its discriminate validity and construct validity were documented. Study 3 (N = 741) offered evidence for a model of the relationships
among social support (from parents, teachers, and friends), amotivation, and academic outcomes (e.g., achievement, academic self-esteem, intention to drop out).

Ablard and Lipschultz (1998) carried out a research on the relation between achievement and self-regulated learning (SRL) is more complex than originally believed. In this study, 222 seventh-grade students (53% boys) described their use of SRL strategies and rated their achievement goals (mastery and performance). Students were high achievers, performing at or above the 97th percentile on an achievement test. However, they ranged widely in their use of SRL strategies, suggesting that SRL strategies are not necessary for high achievement. Reasons for variation in SRL were examined. Advanced reasoning was not related to SRL. Performance goal orientation was related to SRL only in conjunction with mastery goal orientation. Mastery goal orientation and gender were significantly related to SRL. As mastery goals increased, so did the use of SRL strategies. Girls reported greater use of SRL strategies (a) involving personal regulation or optimizing the environment and (b) when completing difficult homework or engaged in reading and writing.

A research carried out by Chen, Lee, and Stevenson (1996) where 729 American, Chinese, and Japanese First graders were given achievement and cognitive tests. Mothers were interviewed. Ten years later, 475 of the students participated in a follow-up study in which they were interviewed and given achievement tests. Results revealed high stability of achievement relationships within all 3 societies. Measures of early cognitive abilities were consistently related to the families’ socioeconomic status and
exerted their influence on later achievement either through first grade achievement scores or through evaluations made by their mothers. The percentage of variance in achievement scores accounted for by the path models was between 49% and 59% at first grade and between 38% and 51% at eleventh grade. Despite statistical differences in mean score on the achievement tests, the associations between early predictors and later achievement were similar in the 3 cultural groups, indicating that differences in mean scores may not be accompanied by differences in interrelationships.

In two experiments by Foos, Mora, and Tkacz (1994) the generation effect, which occurs when individuals remember materials they have generated (and, thus, targeted) better than materials generated (and targeted) by others, was investigated. The effect has not generally been found in natural settings when total test performance was examined. The examination of total performance rather than just targeted items may mask the effect because items not studied (non targets) are included. In Exp 1, groups that generated their own outlines or study questions were compared with groups that received experimenter-generated materials. Test scores showed generation effects for target items. In Exp 2, students who generated questions were compared with yoked students who used those student-generated questions. Results were again significant, indicating that the generation effect and not potential confounding variables produced the results. The effect does occur in a natural setting, but only for test items targeted by generating students.
Peterson and Janicki (1979) investigated aptitude-treatment interactions (ATI) in 100 fourth, fifth, and sixth-grade students learning in large-group and small-group teaching approaches. Each of 2 elementary teachers taught a 2-wk fractions unit to 2 classes of randomly assigned Ss. Each class received only 1 approach. Students completed aptitude measures (Raven Progressive Matrices and Sequential Test of Educational Progress, Series II) at the beginning of the study and achievement, attitude, and retention measures (including the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire, the Math Anxiety Scale, and a test of attitudes towards math) at the end. Regression analyses showed significant ATI for preference for approach and for ability. Students who initially preferred small groups actually did worse in that approach than in the large-group approach. High-ability Ss and low-ability Ss did better and had more positive attitudes in the small-group and large-group approaches, respectively. High-ability Ss benefited by “teaching” their peers in the small group.

Buriel (1983), Brophy, and Good (1969) conducted a research on teacher-student interactions and their relationship to student achievement. Teacher-child dyadic interaction system was used to record 5 teachers’ interactions with 40 Mexican-American (MA) and 59 Anglo-American (AA) 4th and 5th graders in 5 classrooms. 14 interaction variables were subjected to an Ethnicity × Sex × Classroom ANOVA. The correlation between these interaction variables and students’ achievement was computed separately for MAs and AAs. Results show that AAs received more teacher affirmation following correct responses than MAs. Teacher affirmation was also significantly related to achievement for MAs but not AAs. Overall, teacher interaction
variables showed a stronger relationship to achievement for MAs. A significant main
effect of sex revealed that girls initiated more work-related contacts with teachers. There were no Ethnicity × Sex interactions. Findings indicate that even after controlling
for potentially confounding variables, ethnicity still affects teacher-student interactions.

According to Dean and Denzler (1964) in two studies several indices of anxiety were
related to intellectual performances of high school students. Results of the first study
agreed with previous evidence that test anxiety is more consistently related to test
performance than are more general anxiety indices. Test anxiety was significantly and
negatively related to intellectual test performance and not significantly related to grade
point averages. In the second study, none of the measures of anxiety were significantly
related to grades or intellectual test performance of boys. For girls, however, test
anxiety was negatively related to both. Differences in results of the two studies were
discussed primarily in terms of contrasting socioeconomic levels of the two samples.

Lawrence (1962) conducted an investigation to see how anxiety and achievement
motivation affect performance on an intelligence test under 2 conditions of task
importance, 234 Ss completed the MA scale, a projective measure of achievement
motivation, and an intelligence test. 122 Ss were led to believe that performance on the
intelligence test was very important; the other 112 Ss were led to believe the test was
given only to collect norms. When the test was seen as important, anxious Ss scored
significantly lower than nonanxious Ss. In the other condition, anxiety was unrelated to
test performance. Ss high in internalized achievement motivation performed equally
well on the test regardless of its purported importance. Low achievement motivation Ss did less well when they thought the test was important, perhaps indicating an avoidance reaction to stress.

An investigation carried out by Thompson and Hunnicutt (1944) where a group of fifth-grade pupils (124) were classified by the Introversion-Extroversion section of a Personal Test by Pintner et al. Cancellation tests marked G (good) or P (poor) provided the basis for administering praise or blame. Repeated praise increased the work output of introverts significantly higher than that of introverts who were blamed or extroverts who were praised. Repeated blame increased the work output of extroverts more than that of extroverts who were praised or introverts who were blamed. Both praise and blame were more effective than the absence of either stimulation.

II. STUDIES ON ADJUSTMENT OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Adjustment is a life long process in which a person has harmony with environment. Psychological adjustment means a persons’ interacts on with his/her environment. An individual who is well adjusted is considered a happy person. We all face adjustment problems in all ages of our life. The adjustment problems start from the birth of the child and continue till his death. Adjustment problems are both internal as well external. Human needs are multidimensional and have to have adjustment in order to achieve them. Opposite of adjustment is maladjustment. Academic life of the student is not always smooth. School students face many adjustment problems like poor
socialization, home sickness, loneliness, study difficulties, feeling of inferiority, financial problem, and relational problems with friends, teachers and family members.

Home is the first school of a child. A child learns many things from parents. Parents have to train their child to adjust in different situations of life. If children or adolescent are not well trained to face various hard situations and adjust in the difficult situation they may face a lot of problems in school, family and occupational life. If this problem is not amended properly adjustment problem may arise seriously.

When adolescents are well adjusted in the home environment their academic achievement will be good. Adolescents from well adjusted family find their studies more meaningful and they are more motivated for higher achievement. In this modern age people are suffering from different types of adjustment problems. Major adjustment problems are: school adjustment, work adjustment, social adjustment, legal difficulties, family adjustment and physical adjustment problem.

Adjustment problem can create stress like ending of a relationship or a marriage, termination from a job, a serious illness of family member, forced to relocate a job, earth quake, living in a crime ridden area, becoming a crime victim, becoming a parent, getting married and so on. Such stress creates coping inability when adjustment disorder starts. Students who are from maladjusted family may lead to reduce attention and motivation to succeed academically. Some students who are from such background develop maladaptive coping pattern like, depressed mood, mixed emotional responses,
conduct disturbance, emotional problems, aggression, disobeying the leader and authorities and suicidal tendencies. The following is the resume of researches carried out on adjustment of high school students.

The authors Walls and Little (2005) examined relations among motivational styles and school adjustment in a sample of 786 7th and 8th grade U.S. students. Specifically, the authors tested the hypothesis that agency beliefs mediate relations between styles of motivational self-regulation (i.e., intrinsic, identified, introjected, and extrinsic) and school adjustment (school grades, school well-being, and positive and negative effect). A structural equation model testing this hypothesis indicated that agency beliefs about one's effort mediate the relations between the styles and positive school adjustment. By contrast, the extrinsic style was not mediated by agency beliefs but reflected adverse low-magnitude direct effects on all of the outcomes except positive affect. Overall, the model strongly predicted school adjustment, and adherence to the identified motivational style was particularly important.

Wentzel, Barry, and Caldwell (2004) conducted a 2-year longitudinal study (n=242), the authors examined relations of having a reciprocated friend and characteristics of a reciprocated friend to students' social and academic adjustment to middle school. With respect to having a friend, 6th-grade students without friends showed lower levels of prosocial behavior, academic achievement, and emotional distress than did students with reciprocated friendships. Not having a friend in 6th grade also was related to emotional distress 2 years later. Evidence that motivational processes mediate relations
between friends' and individuals' prosocial behavior was obtained. For students with reciprocated friendships (n=173). Friends' prosocial behavior predicted change in individuals' prosocial behavior in 8th grade by way of changes in goals to behave prosaically.

Amanda (2001) used survey questionnaires; the study accessed the racial and cultural identity and psychological adjustment of 51 adult tranracial adoptees (ages 19-36 years old) who were the biological offspring of at least done on-white individual and who were adopted by two white parents. The sample included African Americans and Latino Americans adopted by white American families as well as introductory adoptees from Asian and south American countries. Only those adopted by white couples were included in the study because the vast majority of the transracial adoptions that have taken place in the U.S have been white couples adopting non-white children.

The study found no benefit or harm in which culture transracial adoptees identify with and found there is no “best way” to identify as a transracial adoptee. “Perhaps the psychological adjustment of transracial adoptees may be influenced more by their parental and family relationships, peer relationships, achievement. Or host of other factors than by the racial and often cultural differences that exist in transracially adopting families.

Juvonen, Nishina, and Graham (2000) launched an investigation to find out the relations between peer harassment, psychological adjustment, and school functioning were investigated with an ethnically diverse sample of middle school students. A
conceptual model, which proposed that self perceived peer harassment predicts psychological adjustment (loneliness, depression, and self-worth), was tested using concurrent data (n= 244). Structural equation modeling supported the proposed model. Longitudinal analyses with a sub sample (n= 106) of students revealed that subjective self-views of victimization were moderately stable across a 1- year period. Comparisons across stable and unstable victim groups suggested that concurrent (rather than earlier or chronic) perceptions of victimization predicted loneliness and self-worth. Finally, changes in subjective perceptions of victimization, self-worth, and loneliness across the 1- year period predicted subsequent GPA, absenteeism, and teacher-rated social adjustment.

Gatta, McCabe, and Edgar ( 1997) conducted investigation described an advocacy program designed to help 9th grade high school students better adjust to high Scholl by creating a structure in which students are able to establish a significant relationship with a members of the faculty. The faculty member (student advocate) was assigned between 15 and 20 students; they met daily to discuss all aspects of the students’ life at school. Problems were discussed and suggested courses of action were considered. Approximately 800 students and 2 high schools were presented in this study. Results of a questionnaires administered to students (advocacy v/s non-advocacy) indicate success of the program.

Roeser, Midgley, & Urdan (1996) examined the role of personal achievement goals and feelings of school belonging in mediating the relation between perceptions of the school psychological environment and school-related beliefs, affect, and achievement.
Where 296 8th-grade middle school students took part. The author’s Sequential regression analyses indicated that perceiving a task goal structure in middle school was positively related to academic self-efficacy and that this relation was mediated through personal task goals. Perceiving an ability goal structure was related to academic self-consciousness and this relation was mediated through personal relative ability goals. Perceiving positive teacher-student relationships predicted positive school-related effect and this relation was mediated through feelings of school belonging. Feelings of academic efficacy and school belonging in turn were positively related to final-semester academic grades.

Hanis and Fouad (1994) studied problems solving skill training among 9th grade students in a large Midwestern high school aimed at reducing behavior problems. The study was planned for 94 students and 94 controls and anger expression was chosen as the training topic. The students were divided into 3 groups and received individual, small group, and classroom training problem solving effectiveness was tested before and after the program by the adolescent problem inventory for Boys (B.J. Freedman et al. 1978) and the problem inventory for adolescent Girls (L. Rosenthal, 1978 unpublished dissertation) Anger was assessed by the state of Trait Anger Expression Inventory (C, D. spielberger, 1988). None of the test variables changed significantly as a result of the program. Possible reasons for these results included noncompliant students, teacher antagonism, and nonrandom students’ assignments.
Steward et al. (1998) conducted a study on 208 African-American urban high school students. Grade point average (GPA) and specific strategies for coping with day-to-day stressors were found to be significantly related to psychological adjustment. Students who had higher GPAs tended to use family members as means of solving problems, minimized problems by use of humor, and relaxation activities less often were found to have the most positive psychological adjustment. (Author/MKA) remained.

Dunn, Putallaz, Sheppard, and Lindstrom (1987) investigated the role of perceived social support in facilitating adjustment to a residential high school for those who were gifted in science and Math. The relation between social support and adjustment appeared to depend on the sex of the student and the source of support, and the specific type of adjustment examined. Successful overall adjustment in the school environment was related to perceived support from family, whereas psychological adjustment showed a clear relation to perceived support in general. Perceived support from peers related to psychological adjustment only for male adolescents. Female adolescents appeared to seek other sources of support when they perceived support from a particular source to be low. Thus, adjustment problems for female adolescents appeared to result only when they were unable to locate other sources.

Schwarzwald, Moisseiev, and Hoffman (1986) evaluated the manner in which variations in goniometric formulations highlight differencing effects of academic status on social acceptance in the classroom in 2 parallel studies with 619 7th, 8th, and 9th graders. Ss completed alternately worded versions of interpersonal relationship assessment techniques. As expected, versions emphasizing personal desires or
willingness to interact led to findings indicating heightened acceptance for targets of higher academic status (social ambition). In contrast, versions leading Ss to consider realistic costs or limitations evoked higher acceptance for targets of similar rather than different social status (similarity). The contingency between goniometric formulation and outcome was consistent with level of aspiration and social exchange theories and points to the distinctive role of both desire and cost-benefit considerations in choice of social relations among adolescents.

Brodzinsky, Schechter, Braff, and Singer (1984) evaluated psychological and academic adjustment of 130 6-11 years old adopted children and 130 age-matched non-adopted children using the Hahnemann Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and a child behavior profile. Results show that adopted Ss were rated higher in psychological and school-related behavior problems and lower in social competence and school achievement than were non adopted Ss. It is suggested that although the results support the position that the risk is greater for adopted children to develop emotional and school-related problems, the data should not be over interpreted because the majority of adopted Ss were within the normal range of behavior.
III. STUDIES ON EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Educational aspiration is a strong desire to achieve higher education. The goal of education is achievement both earning a good degree with good marks and utilized learned skill in day to day life to serve others. The educational Goal of the high school students is affected by many factors like parental expectation, teachers’ motivation and their teaching techniques, school environment and educational plan of the country. The purpose of high school education is to prepare the students for higher education and make them capable for healthy competition in adulthood for education, job and family life. The goal of a teacher should be to help the students to overcome problems of learning and adjustment so they may obtain optimum achievement in academic performance and utilize their education for the betterment of the society. High school age is important and foundation period of life so teachers and parents should mold them effectively for future. Most studies in the area of guidance and counseling pertain to occupational aspirations, vocational attitudes, Choices and preference, subjects’ choices and educational aspirations of students at the school level. Only a few studies are carried out on educational aspirations. The following is the resume of researches carried out on educational aspiration of high school students.

O’ Brien, Friendman, Tipton, and Linn (2000) tested a proposed model investigating the relations among attachment to and separation from parents, career self-efficacy, and career aspiration over a 5-year period with a sample of 207 young women. Results suggested that being attached to parents may lead to the development of confidence in
pursuing career-related tasks, which in turn influences career aspiration. Separation from parents did not have direct effects on career self-efficacy. Results also indicated that a women’s career plans changed over a 5-year period with young women selecting more traditional and less prestigious careers than those to which they aspired in their senior year of high school,. In addition, these women chose careers that underutilized their abilities. Finally, this sample of young women intended to have both careers and families, and the majority of these women rated family as more important than career.

Researchers Holland, Gottfredson, and Baker (1990) found that classified vocational aspirations--singly or in combination--of Navy recruits (467 men and 250 women) were superior to the Vocational Preference Inventory. Predictions for persons with coherent vocational aspirations (aspirations all in the same occupational category) were very predictive over a short time interval, but the hypothesized links between the coherence of vocational aspirations and the Identity Scale (J. L. Holland et al; see record, NEO Personality Inventory scales, and scales of the Vocational Preference Inventory received only partial support. This study replicates much earlier work (e.g., F. H. Borgen and M. J. Seling, 1978).

O'Malley and Bachman (1979) did an investigation where the self-esteem of 3,183 male and female seniors in a nationwide sample of the high school class of 1977. Comparisons were drawn with 1,715 males from the class of 1969 thus providing a partial replication and extension of an earlier study (J. G. Bachman et al; see record which showed that educational accomplishments underwent a reduction in centrality--
became less important--for self-esteem during the late teens and early twenties. One major finding is that the self-esteem of seniors was correlated with educationally relevant measures almost equally for males in the classes of 1969 and 1977. This finding rules out a secular trend interpretation of the earlier study's results, providing further support for a developmental interpretation. A 2nd finding is that self-esteem correlated with educationally relevant measures was equally for males and females in the class of 1977, suggesting that the impact of educational factors was basically similar for the 2 sexes. A 3rd finding is that males and females were very similar in levels of self-esteem.

Korman (1971) reports five studies which support the general proposition that high expectancies of competence by others are positively related to performance. 2 of the studies involved laboratory research with 300 undergraduates where the expectancies were emanated from peers. The other 3 involved field research with 87 employees in different types of working situations where the expectancies were those of organizational leadership vis-a-vis subordinate performance. Intelligence and environmental variables were not moderators of the obtained relationship.

Rosenfeld (1964) launched an investigation in which hypotheses concerning antecedents of interpersonal choice were derived, by analogy, from theories of achievement motivation and level of aspiration. Results of a laboratory experiment on 6-person groups of male high school seniors confirmed hypotheses that (a) more competent persons are perceived by S to be less available to him as task partners, and
(b) the person $S$ prefers as a partner is more competent than the person he chooses. 2 sets of motive types of choosers (need for achievement versus fear of failure, and need for affiliation versus fear of rejection), each set conceived as an approach-avoidance dimension, were significantly related to competence of preferred partners. Only the 1st set of motive types was significantly related to competence of chosen partners. The relationships were linear, contrary to prediction. Need for affiliation, originally conceived as an approach motive, was interpreted as an approach-avoidance conflict.

According to Finger and Schlesser (1963) Public school students are reported to obtain higher college grades than private school students. Equating on scholastic aptitude is reported to leave a difference favoring the public school student. The Personal Values Inventory, a test measuring nonintellectual factors in school success, was administered to an entering college class. 216 had attended public school and 97 private schools. When grades were regressed for the Scholastic Aptitude Test, Verbal and Mathematical; the Ohio State Psychological Examination; and the Personal Values Inventory, the group means did not differ significantly. Regressing for these factors randomly distribute grades among private and public school students. A second sample showed similar results for the group means. The conclusion is that private school students do less well because as a group they are lower in scholastic aptitude and in motivation.

Rosenfeld and Zander (1961) conducted an investigation and the data were obtained from a questionnaire given to 400 boys in the 10th grade. Students tend to accept the
teacher's suggestions for aspirations when they are rewarded, but tend to ignore or oppose what teachers desire when indiscriminate coercion is perceived. These tendencies affect the degree to which students set their aspired grades congruent with their perceived capacities. Disapproval of inadequate performance appears to have no effect on aspiration, but disapproval of a good performance seems to have a negative effect. Tendencies to accept teacher influence are lowered under indiscriminate reward but increased by reward for adequate performance.

IV. STUDIES ON STUDY METHODS OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Education aspiration of high school students depends upon many factors among them study method is one. When students are properly instructed to develop effective study habits they will enjoy the academic life and that will proceed smoothly. Developing proper study habit is a long term job for that they need true guidance from the teachers and the expert.

Whatever tasks we do are performed by definite methods. All human activities or task should be done properly to get good results. To get good marks in the exam the students should know well how to use different study techniques according to the subject matter. School teachers have a great role to teach their students about different study techniques. The following is the resume of researches carried out on study methods of high school students.
Peverly, Brobst, Graham, and Shaw (2003) conducted an investigation to see how self-regulation supposedly plays a central role in memory and learning, especially for adults. Research using simple materials has found that adults are skilled self-regulators. Research using difficult materials has found the opposite. Using difficult materials, the authors attempted to improve college students’ self-regulation by allowing extended study time before taking a test. The authors also examined whether background knowledge and note-taking strategies would be positively related to self-regulation. Results indicated that college students were not good at self-regulation, background knowledge and note taking were not related to self-regulation, and note taking and background knowledge were generally better predictors of test performance than self-regulation. Results imply that test performance is more related to note taking and background knowledge than to self-regulation.

Gottfried, Fleming, and Gottfried (2001) conducted an investigation where two aspects of continuity, stability of individual differences and means, were examined in a longitudinal study from the middle elementary through the high school years. Two hypotheses regarding individual difference stability were supported with structural equation modeling in both the general-verbal and math domains: (a) Academic intrinsic motivation is a stable construct throughout these years, and (b) with advancement in age, academic intrinsic motivation becomes increasingly stable. A third hypothesis, that the mean level of academic intrinsic motivation declines over these ages, also was supported, and significant linear trends were obtained, but it was also found to be
modified by particular subject areas, with math showing the greatest decline and social studies showing no significant change. The combination of these 2 aspects of continuity places those with low motivation early in their schooling particularly at risk.

Graham (2000) conducted a study to investigate incidental and informal methods of learning to spell should replace more traditional and direct instructional procedures, according to advocates of the natural learning approach. This proposition is based on 2 assumptions: (a) Spelling competence can be acquired without instruction and (b) reading and writing are the primary vehicles for learning to spell. There is only partial support for these assumptions. First, very young children who receive little or no spelling instruction do as well as their counterparts in more traditional spelling programs, but the continued effects of no instruction beyond first grade are unknown. Second, reading and writing contribute to spelling development, but their overall impact is relatively modest. Consequently, there is little support for replacing traditional spelling instruction with the natural learning approach.

Fantuzzo, Riggio, Connelly, and Dimeff (1989) did a component analysis of the reciprocal peer tutoring (RPT) strategy was performed, which previous research had demonstrated to be effective in producing cognitive gains, lowering subjective distress, and enhancing course satisfaction. One hundred students were randomly assigned to one of four groups designed to systematically compare the RPT strategy with its hypothesized components: dyadic, mutual exchange, and structured-learning format. Pretest analyses revealed no significant group differences in demographic variables or
pretest scores on course examinations and self-report inventories of subjective distress. Further analyses supported past findings on the superiority of the RPT strategy. This superiority was attributed to the RPT group’s unique combination of elements: preparing to teach a peer teaching a peer, and accountability for this process.

Researchers Semb, Ellis, and Araujo (1993) did three experiments examined students’ long-term retention of knowledge learned in college courses. In Exp 1 retention was measured 4 and 11 month after the term ended. Students retained a great deal of what they originally learned, and there were no differential forgetting effects as a function of level of original learning. Exp 2 compared retention for recall test items and 3 types of multiple-choice test items: recognition, comprehension, and mental skills. Students performed poorly on recall items, but there were no differences among the multiple-choice items measuring the other types of tasks. Exp 3 analyzed retention for student tutors. Tutors retained more after 4 month than the students they tutored. This suggests that tutoring, a type of over learning has positive effects that are maintained over time.

Arlin and Webster (1983) conducted an experiment in which 88 7th grade students were randomly assigned to mastery or no mastery approaches to learning 4 hierarchical chapters about sailing. Results indicate that mastery Ss had significantly higher achievement, learning rate, and retention than no mastery Ss, but used significantly greater amounts of time. When a metric of items retained/hour spent learning was computed, it was found that no mastery Ss performed at a significantly higher rate than mastery Ss. Contrary to claims of mastery theorists, individual differences in time and
learning rate remained stable across the experiment, and faster Ss had to wait for slower Ss to catch up. The price of increased achievement benefits of group-based mastery learning seemed to be increased time costs of (a) extra remedial time and (b) wasted time of faster learners. It is suggested that the time aspects of mastery learning theories may need to be revised to take account of these findings.

Williams, Williams, and Blumberg (1973) conducted a research on visual and aural learning on urban children. Visual and aural learning in urban children gave 320 white children (Exp I) in Grades 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 and from 2 school settings (middle class and lower class) and 96 black children (Exp. II) in Grades 2, 4, and 6, from the same school settings, paired-associate noun lists. Visual presentation was superior to aural presentation. Overall, the middle-class Ss performance was superior, but there was a complex interaction indicating no social class differences in the 4th and 6th grades. Exp. III with 192 white 1st-4th graders (middle-class and lower-class settings) also included pictorial presentation and corroborated the findings.

Researchers Haslam and Brown (1968) conducted a research on the Brown-Holtzman Effective Study Course: High School Level was taught to 74 high school sophomores during the fall of 1965 at Highlands High School, San Antonio, Texas. 59 of the 74 students receiving the instruction were individually matched with a control group of 59 students not receiving such instruction. Matching of the 2 groups was done on the basis of age, sex, race, intelligence quotient, subjects being studied, and 1st 9 weeks' grade-point average. Administration of the Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes before and
after study-skills instruction indicated significant improvement in the measured study orientation of the experimental group. Following the course, students in the experimental and control groups were compared on 2 indexes of instructional results--9-weeks' course grades and scores on the Effective Study Test. The experimental group was found to be significantly higher on both indexes.

Holland (1961) conducted a research on creative and academic performance among talented adolescents. The relationships between three criteria of academic and creative performance and 72 personal, demographic, and parental variables were studied in a sample of talented adolescents. The results suggest that creative performance at the high school level occurs more frequently among students who are independent, intellectual, expressive, asocial, consciously original, and who have high aspirations for future achievement. Students who are persevering, sociable, responsible, and whose parents hold somewhat authoritarian attitudes and values, are more frequently academic achievers.

Summary
This chapter includes the theoretical perspective of performance, adjustment, educational aspirations, and study method on high school students. The third chapter describes the methodology of study. The forth chapter deals with analysis and interpretation of the data and the fifth chapter deals with results and discussion. The sixth chapter deals with conclusions. Finally, the bibliography and appendices are also included.