CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

"To be original, one must think much and read little and this is impossible, for one must have read before one has learnt to think".

Study of related studies is a crucial aspect in the planning of a new study. It helps to eliminate the duplication of what has been done and provides useful hypotheses and useful suggestions for significant investigation. Although the research for related studies is time consuming yet it proves to be a fruitful phase. It acts as a light-house to discover what is already known, what are the pit falls of the previous studies and also widens our outlook, knowledge, insight and experience with regard to subject. It helps us to know what methods of attack have been used successfully.

Best (1983) considered the survey of related literature as an important pre-requisite to actual planning and execution of any research project. According to him a familiarity with the literature in any problem area helps the students to discover what is already known, what others have attempted to find out, what method of attack have been promising and disappointing and what problems remain to be solved. A review of related literature not only helps to clearly understand the problem and the complexities involved, it also provides guidance about the sanctity of the problem, its nature and scope and uses in real life situations.
With such information available the investigator should proceed with new perspectives in the already established areas or add some new dimensions to the vast world of knowledge.

Research is considered very important to the progress in every field of life. Its constant addition to vast store of knowledge makes possible progress in all areas of human behaviour.

The study of related literature in research is of immense importance, because it stimulates and encourages the investigator to dive deep into the pros and cons of the problem and derive pleasure and satisfaction of its own. It helps us in paving the way for understanding the potentialities of the problem in hand.

In the above context it was thought appropriate to shift the relevant facts regarding the variables under consideration from the mass of research evidence in this chapter, so as to enable the researcher to formulate hypotheses in order to provide an outline for the successful execution of the investigator in respect of Family environment, Achievement Motivation and Self-esteem of senior secondary students under the following sub-headings:
Education

Education system functions for attainment of pre-decided set of goals. Educators have a dual role to play in any society, particularly; in a developing society intent on rapid social change. Educators must be concerned about the contribution of development goals. This includes the analysis of social problems and rethinking the basic values and structure of society. It includes the study of the critical issues involved in the character and direction of development like education and development of young people with the understanding, attitudes, critical abilities and skill required to make the most appropriate contribution to the rapid development of the country. Education is a sub-system in the community, it should not deny to satisfy the needs of the society. Moreover, society has got influence in shaping the education system and fruitfulness of education lies in the development of the community (Khirwadkar, 1995).

The Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE, 1935) continues to play a lead role in the evolution and monitoring of educational policies and programmes, the most notable of which are NPE (1986), POA (1986) and revised NPE and POA (1992).
According to World Survey of Education (1955), the secondary school comprises two stages, junior and senior. The former is called the middle school or lower secondary and later is senior or high school. After the introduction of the recognized pattern of secondary education in 1955, two types of senior secondary or high schools have been coming up viz the higher secondary and the multipurpose school. The higher secondary schools add one more year of study, which is expected to upgrade the standard of attainment of the school leavers. Besides the upgrading of high into higher secondary schools, efforts are being made to provide diversified courses of study in higher secondary schools, such as science, technology, commerce, agriculture and fine arts, to the varying aptitudes, interest and talents of pupils. Such higher secondary schools are multilateral and multipurpose schools.

The Fourth Indian Year Book of Education (1973) stated that it appears necessary to view second level education as consisting of two distinct types: continuing and terminal. In continuing courses, the curricula should be framed with reference to the requirement of higher education and it should be possible to limit the facilities to a restricted number of pupils. In the terminal courses would be included:
a) general courses which could, depending upon the choice of work, lead to employment-preparatory, non-institutional and non-formal training programmes.

b) Vocational and other special courses which could be on the basis of some agreed norms of man power requirement.

The programme that relates education to life and productivity is to give a strong vocational bias to higher secondary education. Hence at +2 stage the courses are diversified in two streams, academic and vocational (Shivarudrappa, 1988).

India 2000, mentions that before 1976, education was exclusively the responsibility of states, the Central Government was only concerned with certain areas like co-ordination and determination of standards in technical and higher education etc. In 1976, through a constitutional amendment, education became a joint responsibility. Decisions regarding the organisation and structure of education are largely the concern of the states. However, the Union Government has a clear responsibility regarding the quality and character of education. In addition to policy formulation, the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of Education shares with the states, the responsibility for educational planning.
Struck (1947) mentioned that general education focuses upon knowledge, skill and attitudes that are held to be useful for successful living without reference or application to particular occupations or calling and vocational education deals with knowledge, skill and attitudes that fit an individual for a definite occupation or vocation the pursuit of which equips him for successful living.

**General Higher Secondary Schools**

World survey of Education (1955) wrote that the Higher Secondary School provides.

a) Core curriculum common to all pupils, consisting of languages, general science including mathematics, social studies and a craft i.e. hand spinning or weaving, wood work, metal work, gardening, tailoring, sewing, needlework and embroidery, leather work, clay modelling and papermache, workshop practice and printing technology.

b) Diversified courses of study in one of seven groups namely humanities, science, technology, commerce, agriculture, fine arts and home science.

**Vocational Education**

According to India 2000, The National Policy of Education (NPE), 1986 accords high priority to vocationalisation of education at the secondary stage. The NPE as revised in 1992 aimed at diverting 10% of the students at the +2 level to the vocational stream in 1995 and 25% by 2000 AD. Accordingly, a
centrally-sponsored scheme of vocationalisation of Secondary Education was launched in February, 1998. Under the scheme, substantial financial assistance is provided to State (UT’s) for introduction of vocational courses in +1 and +2 in the school system.

18,719 vocational courses have been sanctioned in 6,486 schools all over the country except Lakshadweep thereby creating capacity for diversion of about 9.35 lakh students to the vocational stream which is 11% of the enrolment at the +2 stage.

About 150 vocational courses have been introduced in six major areas, 94 vocational courses have been notified under the Apprenticeship Act.

A centrally sponsored scheme of pre-vocational education was launched in 1993-94 with the objective of imparting simple marketable skills to the students of classes IX and X. So far, assistance has been provided to eleven states/UTs for introduction of pre-vocational courses in fifty two schools.

During the Ninth Plan, it is proposed to start a pilot project in collaboration with CBSE and FICCI/CII which is to be entirely industry driven. To start with, 100 schools across the country are to be covered in a phased manner.

India's first national craftsman training scheme-the “Wartime Technical Training Scheme” was launched by the Department of Labour in 1941.

Keller (1948) defined a number of conceptions of work, reviews the history of work, shows the relationship of work to democracy and then points
out that there are many needs of the individual in addition to the need for money which every person in a democracy hopes to have satisfied through his work. Included among these are the satisfaction which come from a job done well, the desire for mastery over others, status with one's peers and a desire to create something new.

Edward et al. (1962) mentioned one of the objectives of secondary education is that Vocational Education should equip the individual to secure a livelihood for himself and those dependent on him well through its vocation, to maintain right relationships towards his fellow workers and society and as far as possible to find in that vocation his own best development. An effective programme of Vocational Guidance in the secondary school is essential.

Rao (1965) concluded that it is however significant to note that students do not seem to have any interest in unskilled activities like skilled manual selling as compared to interests like Radio, Wireless, Engineering and Photography.

Naik (1964-66), Member secretary of the Education Commission concluded that its proposals for vocationalization at the secondary stage are not at all connected with the adoption of the new (10+2+3) pattern. Education Commission visualized the provision of vocational courses as an elective group of 1 to 3 years duration for those who had completed the elementary stage of education. The entire discussion of the programme of vocationalization at the secondary education was carried on as if it was equal
to the two year course of full-time vocational education that can be provided only outside the higher secondary schools.

However, vocational education courses at school stage should be predominantly terminal in character. It further envisaged that a concerted and sustained programme be designed to ensure that some 20% enrolment by 1996 at lower secondary level and some 50% beyond class X remained in part-time or full-time vocational and professional courses. Vocational education especially at the secondary level to meet the needs of industry, agriculture, trade etc. to the advancement of science and technology was thought to be integral part. As for work experience, it is designed to integrate education with work.

Page and Thomas (1977) mentioned that all education is vocational that aims to prepare on for the more efficient and satisfactory performance of the activities of life. All the various forms of higher or professional education is treated under a variety of captions, are included in vocational education. Thus, education for the law, medicine, the Christian ministry and for the various phases of engineering are forms of vocational education.

Case (1985) revealed that vocationalization stream did not get facilities, being a part of formal institutions like higher sector and colleges, although mostly were situated in urban localities. The course, except in few cases, did not match the local needs of employment as perceived by the principals and teachers. Practical experience could not be provided to the students
appropriately because of lack of funds, lack of transformation and lack of cooperation from teacher.

Kashyap (1990) mentioned that POA lays greater emphasis on vocationalization of education at primary, secondary and higher secondary stages. All the drop out beyond class eight need opportunities for training in some skill i.e. agriculture, industry, business and vocational education for certain special groups like tribes, the rural population etc. A beginning has been made in the areas of non-formal vocational education for drop-outs and other target groups. The JCVE has been provided in the POA as a national apex body for policy planning and co-ordination of education at national level. Organizations like NCERT, CIVE, RCE, SCERT, SIVE, TTTTs, etc. should be strengthened.

Glantz (1994) study indicated that:

(1) The mission of vocational education has not changed.

(2) Multiple environmental factors are influencing vocational education.

(3) The method and manner of schooling, learning, teaching and managing vocational educational programs have changed.

(4) Vocational education has been reactive rather than practice in setting its goals and training students for the workforce.

(5) Vocational education must address the environmental forces, communicate to its constituency and keep up with the changing environmental demands.
Rao (1996) mentioned that problems are being faced by the rural vocational centres. The relationship between vocational educational and the labour market is poor, authority over vocational centres are needed to be defined more clearly and various options are being examined. A project is also being developed to support village-based training in vocational centres. Vocational centres will also be encouraged to link with secondary schools and to become development centres for their surrounding communities.

**Vocational Interests**

The child upto 12 years of age does not bother much about his career but as he reaches 15-16 years of age, he starts thinking about his future career. The choice of future career by adolescent significantly affects his future social relationship in the society and indirectly on progress of the country. In our country, great revolution is taking place in socio-economic and vocational fields. These revolutionary changes make it imperative to provide guidance to adolescent to take decisions about their future career.

Interest is an activity that drives or motivates the individual for action. Interests are very important to understand the individual and to guide his future activities. Vocational interest influence Vocational maturity and vocational choices in later life which, in turn, affect job satisfaction and optimization of job performance.

As per Good (1959), vocational interests are measured patterns of likes and dislikes that have been found experimentally to differentiate successful adults in one occupation from those in other occupations.
Page and Thomas (1977), hold that vocational choice is decision made by a pupil on his/her future work, occupations or career.

Saheb (1980) examined that students of the vocational stream displayed interest in business and competition; they were better in social service, music, games and sports.

Bhatnagar (1983) discovered that vocational interest was the chief factor in determining occupational choice among adolescent girls.

Tomar (1985) discovered the sex, rural-urban residence and SES were determinant factors in the occupational interests of adolescents.

Zargar (1993) concluded that high and low creative students of secondary schools differ significantly in their vocational interests.

Jansari and Kumar (1999) revealed that sex significantly affect the business and persuasive areas of vocational interest, whereas the area of residence significantly affected only the business and persuasive areas of vocational interest.

**Vocational Aspirations**

In vocational aspiration, the individual expresses as to what he wants or wishes to do irrespective of the limitations imposed by the reality. Vocational aspiration means what the individual considers to be ideal vocation for him and refers to the point in the hierarchy of prestige of various vocational fields which an individual views as a goal. Defined in this way, aspiration is quite similar if not identical with a person's fantasy choice.
Crites (1969) said as elicited by interviews and open ended questions as “what would you do, if you could do, what really you wanted to do”. It is formulated solely in terms of wants and wishes of the individual irrespective of the limitations imposed by the reality.

Pendharkar (1977) discovered the home atmosphere as an important factor in occupational aspiration. Knowledge of occupation and monetary returns from them was highly associated with levels of aspiration.

Dabir (1986) found predominant relations between vocational aspiration and SES, need achievement, need deference and need nurturance.

**Family Environment**

Baldwin (1945) indicated how important it is for the school to understand home influences. Readiness for school and for intellectual development depend heavily on child’s treatment at home. Ratings show that children from democratic homes are consistently superior in originality, self direction and curiosity. It appears that children given emotional support at home gain intellectual power, while those who are criticized and dominated do not make rapid progress. A substantial relationship between democracy in the home and patterns of child behaviour was reported by Radke (1976).

Strang (1950) considered that because of their wide interests, gifted children sometimes have difficulty in choosing a vocation. Conflict between the parents ambition for the child and child’s own occupational interest sometimes have profound emotional reverberations.
Jenben Hill (1951) has considered the following influences on the Parental Family namely:

1) Family affect the individual first.
2) Family experiences are repetitive.
3) Family conditioning has a special emotional quality.
4) Family is a status giver.

Tasch (1952) found that fathers participated actively in routine daily care and considered child rearing part of their role.

Ahluwalia (1952) and Bhatnagar (1952) found more failures in large families with no secluded place to study. Poverty was the major cause of failure, together with bad treatment by parents and strenuous domestic work.

Father as role model influences the choice phenomenon significantly. Cater (1940), Bordin (1953) suggested that parental identification as a significant variable in the selection of an occupation may be true.

Chance (1955) found that fathers tend to be more preoccupied with family relationship than mothers and that mothers were more rejecting of their children than fathers.

Bromquist (1957) found that children from large families tend to fail more often than those from smaller ones. Non promoted children came generally from home characterized by nagging, censure, quarrels and punishment. Retarded students in secondary schools came mainly from home intellectually less stimulating.
Influence of family in the form of inter-personal relationship with parents have also been studied by certain investigations. The essence of Roe’s theory (1957) is that parental attitude of acceptance or avoidance leads to formation of choice of person oriented and non-person oriented jobs. The hypotheses put forth by Roe was tested and found to be correct (Roe and Siegelman, 1964).

The parents of the most successful men had encouraged initiative and independence (Coleman, 1961).

Crites (1969) in his results indicated that identification with both parents influence the formation of vocational interest patterns but identification with the father is more important than that of mother.

Jain (1965) revealed that the influence of home environment on achievement was positive and significant. The influence of emotional tone of the home on school achievement was positive in case of boys while it was negative in case of girls.

Usha and Sinha (1973) indicated that children exhibited less fear when their parents had shown acceptance rewarded more often and punished less frequently.

Reddy (1974) using a self-made questionnaire and other standard tests, studied the role of rural-urban and socio-economic factors in the development of vocational sense among 1103 IX, X, and XI grade boys. Middle level socio-economic groups displayed knowledge of a distinctively higher number of
occupations and self concept was high among urban students. Occupational choice increased from grade to grade.

Kulkarni (1975) discovered that a great majority of parents, teachers and pupils held favorable attitude towards work experience programs in IV to VII standards. Drawing was not preferred and spinning was least preferred by both boys and girls. While boys preferred gardening and girls preferred sewing.

Mahale (1975) found that parents exercised greater control over their daughters than over their sons, resulting in frustration among daughters. Majority of children derived that they had been influenced by parents or teachers or friends in selecting subjects who would motivate the children by explaining the value of higher education to them.

Sinha (1978) examined the role of the family in terms of parents child relations, parental values and SES in shaping the vocational interests of students. A healthy home (amicable parent-child relations) kindled love for scientific and executive fields. Parental avoidance coupled with high economic and social values led to interest in computational business and persuasive field. Absence of parental democratic values and non acceptance of children were associated with interest in artistic and musical fields.

Salunke (1979) conducted a study on the first year college students of MS University Baroda to see relationship between home environment, socio-economic status, economic management and academic achievement of the
students. In this study cohesion, one of the dimensions of home environment, was found to have correlation with academic achievement.

The same sex parent is more aware of the adolescents problem than the spouse of opposite sex. It was concluded that it would appear that parents are generally not aware of the problems confronting their adolescent sons and daughters. The opposite sex parent has very little knowledge of adolescent problems and mother-daughter correlations were highest (Collins, Cassel Harper, 1975).

Singh (1977) found that parental protection was positively related to dependence proneness in children.

Ojha and Singh (1979) reported that restrictive behavior leads to radicalism in children.

The parents of high achieving children were found to emphasize on independence and achievement efforts. Also their parents were reported to be more affectionate and permissive, less restrictive and hostile (King, 1974; Epstein and Radin, 1976, Prasad et al, 1979).

Children who were rejected, harshly treated, severely punished or regularly criticized by parents tend to develop authoritarian personality (Hassan, 1972; Khan, 1981; Rai, 1981).

It was reported that accepting and permissive parental behavior leads to the development of tolerant and liberal attitudes among children but rejecting and punitive parental behaviour cause prejudice (Epstein and Komorita, 1966; Hassan, 1983).
LuyeeWicz (1985) has proved mother’s influence on her daughters educational and occupational achievement and mother’s predictions of daughter’s perceived encouragement has an additional 20% of the variance in daughters educational achievement, specially on the variable of intellectual cultural orientation.

Eck (1986) showed no significant relationship between levels of achievement and patterns of cohesion and adaptability in the measured family system.

Boys belonging to high home environment group achieved significantly greater mean score than the boys belonging to low home environment group (Verma and Gupta, 1989).

Although parental involvement in the home had no direct effect on grades or achievement test scores in high school, but when individual component of parental involvement were analysed, consistent indirect effects on school grades were found from fathers and mothers (Curtis, 1992). This study suggested that if parents monitor school work, help with school plans (organization variable) and talk to their child about parental experience, (expressiveness) variable of family environment, their child’s time on task, general self-esteem and attitude about school will improve in a way that improves grades in school i.e. intellectual cultural orientation of the family environment.

Niiebuhr’s (1994) findings give relationship between parental strictness and motivation, home crowding and grade point average, school student-
academic orientation and intrinsic motivation and the school teacher-student relationship and grade point average.

Ameerjan (1994) found that when compared to boys, the girls perceive that their parents had shown more nurturance and instrumental companionship, expected more principled discipline and predictability of standards and rewarded more often for their achievement.

Gilbertson (1995) concluded that parents were in general agreement to certain perceptions towards vocational courses. Parents of students enrolled in vocational education courses had a significantly more positive attitude toward vocational education than parents of students who were not enrolled in vocational courses.

Badiozamani (1995) found that out of 87 families, eight home environment variables considered in this study, parents aspiration for the child, concern for the use of language, parents reinforcement of aspirations knowledge of child’s educational progress, family involvement in educational activities and independence given to children by allowing them to make a decision to be significantly related to children’s academic intrinsic motivation.

Results of the study did not lend support to earlier research which found differences in achievement between students from single parent home and those from two-parent homes, the results do support a trend in the research which suggests that the number of significant difference between two groups decreases as students progress through school (Davis, 1999).
Whitney (1999) found that Family environment appeared to contribute to well being in present and future.

Sears (1999) revealed meaningful relations between the quality of Family Environment and peer relationships, as well as significant differences between the contribution of family members (mother, father, sibling) to children’s social and emotional development.

Rose (1999) found that the background variables such as age, race, gender, church attendance and parental education do have a positive impact on children’s character and moral development in school, home and community.

Achievement Motivation

Nicholson (1948) analysed motivating factors influencing adults to attend school and point out the fact that adults, especially men, have a need for technical and specialized knowledge related to their present occupations or to prepare them for other occupations.

Atkinson and Reitman (1956) studied the performance level of high-achievements groups to be high.

According to Frankel (1960) achievers at Bronx High School of science come from better home backgrounds, with high SES and better educated fathers, than did underachievers.

McClelland (1961) claimed that the achievement motivation is fairly stable characteristic and is correlated with actual achievement in real life situations.
Lowell (1953), Mitchell (1961) and Caron (1963) found no relation between motivation and academic achievement neither did Hayashi et al (1962) and Cole, Jacobs, Zubob, Fagot and Hunde (1962) who, however, drew their samples widely divergent groups so that the absence of a relation is not surprising.

Curry (1964) reported that children with above average intellectual ability usually overcome the effects of a deprived home environment than students with lower intellectual ability, the deprived social and economic conditions of the home tend to reduce scholastic achievement.

Evans (1967) found that the college students with high achievement motivation performed a higher level regardless of the incentive conditions provided for them.

Desai (1971) observed that achievement motivation in High School Pupils gained significantly in their n-ach scores, average gain of seven percent marks in the examination subjects and gain in change of their behaviour was recorded in anecdotal records.

Chatterji and others (1972) found a high degree of correlation among achievement level, aptitude and biographical factors of technical stream students. Individuals differ in their strength of motive to achieve and various activities differ in their challenge they pose and opportunity they offer for the expression of this motive. Thus, both personality and environmental factor as such be considered in accounting for the strength of motivation to achieve in a particular situation. The strength of the need to achieve, varies markedly from...
children to children and in the circumstances. The performance of a child will improve with the identification of achievement and motivation.


Parikh (1976) observed that Achievement score of the Bombay city pupils was higher than that of Madras, Delhi, Baroda, Kaira, USA, Brazil and Germany. Pupils of high SES had higher n-ach than the pupils of middle or low SES. The eighth standard pupils had higher n-ach score than the ninth and tenth grade pupils.

Christian (1977) examined that Need Achievement (n-ach) had no relation with age and anxiety n-ach and students academic performance and negative correlation between n-ach and fear of failure.

Abrol (1977) showed that there was a significant positive relationship between academic achievement and motivation. He further found that motivation was greater in boys than in girls.

In terms of Specne and Helmereich (1983) it appeared that the structure of men's and women's achievement motives are more similar than they are different. Women tend to be slightly higher than men in work orientation, while men seem to be slightly higher in mastery and considerably higher in competitiveness.

Ahluwalia (1985) findings were that sex of child had no effect on achievement motivation. Age and academic performance was significantly and
positively related to Achievement Motivation. Achievement Motivation was not affected by birth order. Children of coeducational schools had more achievement motivation than children of boys school. Dependency and Achievement motivation were found to be negatively related.

Dabir (1986) resulted that positive and significant values of r's between vocational aspirations and achievement motivation was likely to generate the vocational aspiration to the subjects.

Men in traditional career of engineering were higher in achievement motivation than men in the traditional field of accountancy (Harvey, 1986). Achievement motivation and academic achievement are positive correlates (Shivappa, 1986). Joshi et al showed a positive relationship between motivation and school grades. Relationship between Achievement motivation and anxiety is quite negative (r= -0.26, p<0.05) (Srivastava, 1986).

Sowaid (1986) found that power assertive discipline correlated significantly and negatively with achievement motive, whereas induction was positively and significantly related to achievement motive. However, love withdraw is positively but non significantly related to Achievement Motivation.

According to Mehrotra (1986) both for the boys and the girls, there was a positive relationship between socio-economic status of the family of the students and academic achievement. There was a positive relationship between intelligence and academic achievement.
Verma (1988) concluded that academic achievement in certain subject areas is adversely affected by the higher level of prolonged deprivation.

Verma and Swain (1990) reported that sense of deprivation in home and school, independently and together, however, appeared to be inversely and significantly related with academic achievement of the students.

Shay (1994) found that vocational program and the judging/perception of learning style were found to be meaningful in their effect on English Achievement. Students, highest achievement mean scores were in their vocational programmes with grades slightly skewed to the high end of the distribution. The academic grades were skewed in the opposite direction. Results showed that there is neither refute nor support to consideration that there is a relationship between learning styles and achievement for high school students enrolled in auto mechanics and cosmetology.

According to Stone (1994), achievement motivation measured through academic performance in Officer Training School (OTS), candidates predict that relative predictive powers of the variables are uncertain and the model of predicting academic performance in OTS failed to predict correctly at a rate greater than or equal to 87.5 percent i.e. the overall rate of successful completion of OTS among all OTS candidates.

Results did not reveal any significant difference between girls and boys in achievement motivation. Achievement motivation was higher when adolescents perceived their parents as loving and demanding (Suman, 1997).
Self-esteem

According to Coleman (1961) school climates in which student choices and creative expression are encouraged, are associated with higher student self-esteem.

The strongest relation occurred between self concept and socio metric status for both sexes (Gurado, 1969).

Albott and Haney (1972) indicated that a person’s self-concept (personality) was only marginally related to both choice of study plan and performance.

Boshier (1972) reported that self-esteem in both experimental and control group of second year university students went up but there was no significance between group difference except on a self ideal discrepancy measure, which in the experimental group changed significantly but unexpectedly in a downward direction.

Richard (1972) indicated that high self-esteem Ss had a higher number of trials and no expectancy chance than low self-esteem Ss following initial failure while low self-esteem Ss had more of these no reaction cases than Ss with high self-esteem following initial success.

The centrality of self-esteem to individual well being and mental health has long been recognized. Horney (1937) and Rogers (1961) view self-esteem as essential for adequate personal functioning.

Considering self-esteem as a basic factor in human adjustment, Whittaker (1966) points out that self-esteem consists of the feelings one has
about himself and his ability to function effectively in the society. The well adjusted person does not deprecate himself, but feels adequate and equal to others in facing most of the situations.

Students who are good natured, easy going, emotionally expressive, ready to cooperate, attentive to people, warm hearted, kind, adaptable, generous in personal relation and less afraid of criticism possess high self-esteem.

This finding is supported by the studies of Bee (1939), Cohen (1959) and Fitch (1970) who pointed out that individuals with high self-esteem have more friends, get along better with people, competent in dealing with the world and have achieved identity status.

Wendi and Stephen (1978) stated that no difference in self-esteem were found between the groups however, nor were main effects found in the socioeconomic status, IQ and sibling positions. The factor sex did show significant difference. These findings indicate that skepticism is necessary regarding claims that the open school format fosters Self-Esteem.

Research indicated a persistent relationship between various aspects of self perception and a variety of school related variable in including perceived social status among peers, pro-social behaviour and overall school achievement (Wylie, 1979).

Tiwari and associates (1979) found that adolescent students belonging to high social class have greater self-esteem than low social class students.
It appeared that the custodial climate may have a debilitating impact on student self-esteem, whereas the humanistic climate may be a vehicle to facilitate more positive self-esteem (Estep, Willower and Licata, 1980; Licata and Wilder, 1980).

According to Darrel (1980) school mean self-esteem is significantly higher for blacks than white, schools mean black residual self-esteem is lower in racially balanced schools than in predominantly black schools but higher than expected in predominantly white schools.

Curtis and Shaver (1981) reported that a statistically significant difference in favour of experimental group was found between the adjusted mean post test scores of the experimental and control groups on the Self-Esteem Inventory. The difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores on this instrument was statistically significant for the students in the one group, pre-test post-test design.

Prasad (1982) mentioned that Anxiety, insecurity self-role incongruence and self satisfaction were the factors which influenced stability of the self-concept.

Nelson (1984) found that several teacher variable were positively associated with overall student self-esteem.

Crook et al (1984) suggested that self-esteem influences career attitudes directly. Raju and Sanandaraj (1984) found that there is significant difference between backward and forward class students in self-esteem, the difference being in favour of forward class students.
Upadhaya (1985) also reported that high sense of deprivation goes hand in hand with poor and negative self concept and low sense of deprivation with favourable self-concept.

Hebing (1985) has found vocationally immature students as having low confidence and self-esteem. They are also seen as lacking a strong sense of identity and as having problems, with self personal identity.

Ryan and Grolnick (1986) noted that the more a student perceives school climate as allowing student autonomy and initiative, the higher his or her self-esteem will be.

Both aggressive misbehaviour and shy withdrawal are viewed as symptoms of teacher reinforced low self-esteem (Bhasin, 1987).

Roosenberg (1989) in their study report the effect of school achievement on self-esteem to be more powerful than that of self-esteem on school achievement.

Masculinity was found to be the best predictor of self-esteem for male professionals and clients and the best predictor of self acceptance for clients. Femininity did not correlate with self-esteem or self acceptance in any group (Long, 1989).

Carr et al (1991) found self-esteem to be a significant predictor of reading awareness.

According to Bubb (1993), self-esteem level of the same sex in contrasting school showed no significant differences (except for girls).
Palmer (1994) found that no significant differences existed between the experimental group and the control group on self-esteem, vocational identity or career self-efficacy due to career planning instruction. However the change in self-esteem of students receiving career/world of work instruction was marginally successful at the 0.10 level. Instructional strategies other than those traditionally used in Introduction to Business classes maybe necessary to bring about significant gains in self-esteem, vocational identity and career self-efficacy.

Prasad (1996) stated that there was a significant difference between pretest and post test scores of the experimental group and no such difference was observed in the scores of control group indicating that counselling did have an effect on enhancing the self concept of learning in disabled adolescents.

Asha (1997) mentioned that urban and rural students with better self-concept, were homogeneous with respect to vocational maturity. Among students having self-concept, those from urban background seemed to be more vocationally mature than those from rural background.

Idstein (1998) indicated that three determinants of adolescent self-esteem, family support, peer support and achievement, were identified in high response category by all groups. Physical attractiveness, supportive adults and SES were additionally cited as self-esteem determinants by the participant groups, although not consistently in high frequency response category. Two determinants of adolescent self-esteem that were reported with regularity in
the literature, gender and race, were not cited by any of the groups who participated in the study.

Cohen (1999) revealed that there was no significant change in self-esteem of the youngsters undergoing treatment, over the youngsters in the weight list control.

Corsun (1999) finally indicated that self-esteem is significantly associated with normative commitment and that self-efficacy is related to performance.

According to Cohen (1999) there were no unique factors affecting self-esteem in students with learning disabilities, while there were some unique factors affecting self-esteem in students with learning disabilities.

Hair (1999) suggested that middle school personality, self-esteem and adjustment are related to high school adjustment and outcome.

Mu (1999) found very strong association between educational engagement and psychological achievement. Educational engagement predicts optimism, self-esteem and perceived competence. Educational engagement is measured by having educational goal and motivation. Educationally successful vocational students tend to perceive a great deal of utilities in their education.

High task-oriented children reported significantly higher self-esteem than low task-oriented children. Among high task-oriented boys, those with high perceived ability had higher self-esteem. In addition, high ego-oriented boys had high self-esteem when they perceived themselves as having high
ability in relation to their peers. Finally, among low task-oriented girls, those with high perceived ability reported higher self-esteem (Kavussam, 2000).

The concept of self-esteem has become one of the most commonly and widely used psychological terms of the present. Considering how important a variable of self-esteem is, it was also included in the present study.

Family Environment and Achievement Motivation

Drews and Teahan (1957) found that dominating mothers tend to foster high achievement in their children.

Jain (1965) revealed that the influence of home environment on achievement was positive and significant in students of age group thirteen plus to fifteen plus of both the sexes from ten higher secondary schools putting up with their families. The influence of emotional tone of the home on school achievement was positive in the case of boys while it was negative in case of girls.

Seth (1978) confirmed that those who have autocratic attitude are the product of an authoritarian culture as it prevails in the home and hence it is imperative that individuals who maintain an autocratic —democratic attitudes and achievement motivation suggests some amount of confirmity with the several studies regarding the nature of child rearing practices and children’s motivation.

Ahluwalia (1985) findings were that Father's education significantly affected achievement motivation while mother's education had no effect on
achievement motivation of children. Size of family did not show any significant relationship with achievement motivation.

Children who deal with disruptions in parental relations are much less likely to expand their energy on school achievement (Monks and Van Boxtel, 1985).

Family focuses and mobilizes the individual and the surroundings environment. Albert and Runco (1986), Bloom (1985), Feldman (1986) and Fowler (1981) have found that the family environment is an important influence on the eventual display of talent by a child.

Robinson (1992) found no significant difference in student reading achievement on the norm-referenced reading sub-test between students whose parents participated in computer classes and those parents who did not participate.

Niiibuhr (1994) suggested moderate support for the proposed hypothesis, including the relationship between parenting strictness and motivation, home crowding and grade point average, school student academic orientation and intrinsic motivation and the school's teacher student relationship and grade patient average.

The effect of home environment on children's mathematics test scores was large even when SES and maternal test scores were controlled. The effect of SES and maternal test scores were smaller, but by no means trivial (Crane, 1996).
Carlosa (1997) revealed that regarding academic achievement, for this inner city Puerto Rican sample, only perception of Family environment was a significant correlate. On the other hand, with regards to classroom behavioural problems, both personality style and perception of the Family environment were significant correlates.

Hudson (1999) indicated that school engagement was a better predictor of academic achievement than family environment and ethnic identity.

Stelios (1999) found that parents who believed that their own role was important for their child's achievement tended to be more controlling and to be keener in developing the child's interests. Also, the parental attribution of the child's achievement to the child's own efforts was positively related to the child's actual achievement results. Finally, it was found that the child's actual school achievement was directly related to the parental interest developing behaviour, but it was not significantly related to the parental controlling behaviour.

Parents working i.e. whether both father and mother are working or anyone of them is working does not have any affect on students achievement motivation (Pradhan and Khirwadkar, 2000)

**Achievement Motivation and Self-esteem**

Persons who have high estimates of their ability to handle academic tasks are more likely to have aspirations (Gottfredson, 1981; Sewell and Hauser; 1975). Academic self-esteem was found to be related to mastery motivation by Atkinson and Raynor (1978); Spence and Helmeric (1978).
Sharma (1978) reported that self-concept shared high positive and significant relationship with achievement.

Farmer (1980) found academic self-esteem positively and significantly related to long range career motivation.

The strength of achievement motivation increased significantly from 12 years to 16 years. At different age levels, different self-concept measures were found to be related with n-ach (Bharthi, 1984).

Pottebaum (1986) suggested that there may be a casual relation between self-concept and achievement but a third variable may be casually predominant over both self-concept and achievement.

Campo (1992) says that no significant differences were found between groups on the post treatment dependent variable of reading achievement, self-esteem, anxiety and depression at p<0.05 significance level even though adjusted mean increase were noted for all dependent variable favouring the experimental group.

Pharaon (1993) found that there was no expected differences on the variable of achievement motivation and self-esteem due to the possibility that the scales actually measure different experiences of success and self-worth for women in each culture. The findings may also have been influenced by common Arab cultural experiences, namely the anchoring of self-esteem in family relationships, various child rearing practices and certain cultural prohibitions against oneself in a negative light.
Edmondson (1993) finally indicated that the tutorial group and the tutorial/counselling group, comprised of younger students scored significantly higher than the tutorial groups on the measures for achievement of self-esteem and behaviour but not discipline.

Self-worth theory states that in certain situations students stand to gain by not trying by deliberately withholding efforts. Poor performance imposes a threat to self-esteem like experience of failure. If subsequent performance turns out to be poor, then doubts concerning ability are confirmed. Self-worth thereby states that one way to avoid threat to self-esteem is by withdrawing effort. Later allows failure to be attributed to lack of effort rather than to low ability. There by threat to self-esteem is reduced (Thompson, Davidson, Barber, 1994).

Lake (1997) indicated that cultural studies alone were not effective in raising the self-concept and achievement motivation of African, American students in this study. An analysis of the data revealed a negative response to each of the questions and the null hypothesis failed to reach the 0.05 level of statistical significance.

Herandez (1998) discriminant analysis revealed that self-concept of ability was the predictor of achievement group status. When the variables were taken together, they were able to classify 56.55 percent of cases correctly.

According to Franquiz (1998), Hispanic students who attend bilingual school have higher academic achievement in all academic areas of study and
Hispanic students who attend regular schools have higher mean scores in self-esteem than Hispanic students who attend bilingual schools.

Nisbett (1999) findings indicated a six week period of cross-age peer tutoring did not significantly increase mathematical achievement of concepts of place value, nor self-esteem for either third grade tutors or fifth and sixth grade tutors involved in the present study.

Accordino (2000) indicated that students personal standards and their feeling of not meeting such standards (high discrepancy) were significant predictors of academic achievement. Students personal standards also significantly predicted achievement motivation (work orientation). Gender was found to be a significant predictor of academic achievement and achievement motivation (competitiveness). Students with positive aspects of perfectionism differed significantly on measures of self-esteem and depression from students possessing negative aspects of perfectionism.

Family Environment and Self-esteem

According to Maslow (1943) all people have a need or desire for a stable firmly based, sense of self-regard or self-respect, and they need the esteem from themselves and from others.

Walsh (1969) found that teachers rating of classroom control tended to agree with isolation behaviour, but less so with home control. The results suggested that generalizability of self-control did occur, but individual differences were also present.
Kale (1982) obtained that self-concept did not remain static and showed gradual development up to the end of preadolescent period. Perception of family factors as well as school factors showed significant development in concept perception of parent-child relationship. Family factors and school factors jointly were significantly associated with self-concept.

Cornell and Grossberg (1987) combined the administration of the FES with personality measures and concluded that mutually supportive and open family relationships are more important to children's self-esteem and overall adjustment than specific family activities or value orientation.

Verma and Swain (1990) revealed that sense of deprivation in home and school were found to be negatively and significantly related with self-esteem.

Scott (1991) indicated that an internal academic locus of control, a high level of self-esteem and a perception that the distance from home was 'just right' were related to Personal, Academic, Social and attachment dimensions of college adjustment.

Robinson (1992) showed no significant differences in scores on self-esteem for students in two groups and no significant differences in scores concerning attitude towards school between the two groups.

There also existed significant predictive relationship among family environment, self-esteem and value orientation. Family environment closely correlated with white Americans and Chinese Americans self-esteem. American culture stressed the importance of independence, contributing to white Americans high self-esteem and high familial conflict (Hu, 1993).
Dessele (1993) found no significant differences between the four categories of parental attitude toward child rearing (protective, indulgent disciplinarian and rejecting) and the child's self-esteem.

Ameerjan (1994) revealed that the subjects who felt that their parents had shown more nurturance and instrumental companionship also have higher self confidence than others. Those subjects who experienced more parental protection and frequent punishment have lower self-confidence.

Marin (1994) showed no significant differences between ACAs (Alcoholic children of Alcoholics) and non ACAs (non Alcoholic children of Alcoholics) in esteem, self realization or motives for drinking.

Women from supportive homes had higher self-esteem, received more encouraging messages from parents, completed college in less time and tended to pursue more traditional female occupations. Women from both explicitly and tacit homes were conflicted about college achievement (Fraser, 1994).

Elliott (1995) showed that self-esteem changes modestly as women make the transition to work, marriage and parenthood in the twenties. Married women had high self-esteem, on average than non-married women, regardless of a history of divorce, separation or widowhood.

Mujis (1997) concluded that academic achievement was casually predominant over academic self-concept, that global self-esteem was not a significant predictor of achievement, and the significant contribution of parental SES to achievement, all suggest that self-esteem enhancement in itself cannot be a solution to the problem of academic failure.
Harshaw (1997) results indicated that homeless children in the study had lower self-esteem.

Hug (1999) showed that the existence and caliber of paternal support appeared to be a strong indicator of the subjects perceived self-concepts. There was also a strong correlation between high subjects perceived and self-concepts. 

Inspite of family environment the girls were able to overcome social pressures in order to excel in schools.

According to Barr (1999), On the FES the participants from the general population perceived more cohesion and independence in the families, while participants experiencing an emotional disability perceived more conflict. The self concept of the early adolescent females were also correlated with the three aspects of the family environment.

**Family Environment, Achievement Motivation and Self-Esteem**

Koutsoulis (1995) indicated that home is very important for the high school students. Family processes were found to influence home environment more than the socio-economic status, especially for the females. Home was found to influence students academic self concept and attitude toward school.

Caplan (1998) indicated that both overall student adjustment and academic achievement could be predicted by a combination of self-concept and Family environment factors. While family factors were related to student adjustment and achievement, self-concept appeared to be a more salient factor for both variables. Asian American students reported higher levels of
achievement orientation and family organization than both African-American and Mexican American and Caucasian Students.

Mohanty (1998) concluded that all the gifted groups scored high on self-concept. High Achievement motivation was observed only in case of gifted over achieving students. All the gifted groups scored high on control of Family Environment variables.

**Recent Trends**

The main trends which can be descended may be summed up as follows:-

Although family environment has no direct effect on achievement test score yet these effects school grade indirectly. If family environment supports child in one or the other way, it will contribute to well being, self-esteem and tend to develop authoritarian personality of the child.

Achievement Motivation is fairly stable characteristic and is correlated with actual achievement in real life situations. There is positive relationship between academic achievement and motivation. Boys excel girls in motivation. Achievement Motivation is higher when adolescents perceive their parents as loving and caring.

Self-esteem is essential for adequate personal functioning. Aggressive misbehaviour and shy withdrawal reinforced low self-esteem. Girls with high ability reported higher self-esteem.

Student adjustment and academic achievement can be predicted on the basis of self-concept and family environment factors.