Chapter 2

Review of the Related Literature

2.1. Studies related to Family climate

2.2. Studies related to Mental health

2.3. Studies related to Study habits

2.4. Studies related to Self confidence

2.5. Studies related to Academic achievement

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II- REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

An essential part of the research is the review of related literature, which serves to place the current study in a chronological as well as a theoretical context. The review of related studies involves locating, studying and evaluating reports of relevant researches and articles, published research abstracts, journals, encyclopaedias etc. The investigator needs to acquire up-to-date information about what has been thought and done in a particular area. The researcher draws maximum benefits from the previous investigations, utilises the previous findings, takes many hints from designs and procedures of previous researches and formulates an outline for future research. The review of related studies provides the insight into the methods, measures etc., employed by others in the particular area. It provides ideas, theories, explanations, hypotheses of research, valuable in formulating and studying the problem at hand. It also furnishes indispensable suggestions related to the problem and already employed techniques to the researcher. Unless it is learnt what others have done and still remains to be done in the area, one can’t develop a research project and could contribute to furthering knowledge in the field. In fact, the review of related literature serves multiple purposes and is essential to well designed research study. In the process of reviewing the literature, the investigator is alert for finding out research approaches in the area that have proved to be sterile. However, for reviewing the related literature in an objective and scientific manner, the present investigator has followed a flowchart of related activities in the review of related literature presented by Weirsma (1991), the flowchart is as under.
Fig. 2.1 Flowchart of related activities in the review of related literature presented by (Wiersma, 1991)

1. Identify descriptors relevant to the problem
2. Identify sources such as appropriate index or retrieval system
3. Identify titles of potentially relevant reports
4. Locate copies of reports to be reviewed
5. Delete non-relevant reports
6. Separate the reports in order or into categories of relevance or importance (optional)
7. Prepare abstracts or summaries for the reports containing relevant information
8. Write the reviews of the related Literature
9. Prepare a complete Bibliography
The investigator has quoted the studies in this chapter that have direct or indirect relevance with the present study. The studies quoted in this chapter have been classified as follows:-

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO FAMILY CLIMATE:

**Jain (1965)** conducted an experimental study of relationship between home environment and scholastic achievement. The study was designed to investigate experimentally into the influence of home environment as a correlate of scholastic achievement with reference to particular school subjects. 504 students of age-group thirteen plus to fifteen plus of both sexes were taken from higher secondary schools of Allahabad. The home environment questionnaire with three sections physical, and topographical, emotional and socio-economic was prepared. Some of the important findings were-

1) The influence of home environment on achievement is positive and significant.
2) Out of three factors of home environment, the influence of physical and topographical factor was greatest on school achievement followed by emotional tone when no control was applied, but when controls were applied, the effect of emotional tone of the home environment became the greatest, followed by physical conditions.
3) Socio-economic conditions seem to have no relationship with school achievement.

**Ojha (1973)** explored the relationship of achievement motivation with parental behaviour and certain socio economic variables viz. social class, father’s occupation, family size, parental separation etc. Chi-square, correlation, t-test and analysis of variance technique were employed. Some of the major findings were that paternal permissiveness, mother’s love were positively related to n-ach, whereas mother’s rejection, paternal restriction were negatively related. Relationship of n-ach with family size and social class was inverse and
curvilinear respectively and separation from parents had an adverse effect on son’s performance.

*Khan (1976)* conducted this study on a sample of 670 children (255 deprived and 415 undeprived). Of the 255 deprived children, 200 were males on the other hand, among the undeprived children, 300 were males. Their age ranged from 13 to 16 years. The sample was selected through the stratified cluster sampling method. Data was collected with the help of standardised tests, and academic achievement was recorded from the school records. Data was analysed with the help of the t-test.

The findings were:

1. There was a significant differential effect of parental deprivation on the level of adjustment.
2. Deprivation was affected by a variety of factors, viz., age at the time of separation, quality of maternal relationship during and after separation and other personality factors. Adjustment involved relating the individual most effectively to society; at the same time, society provided the means of realising the individual’s potential for perceiving, feeling, thinking and creative activity including the changing of society itself. The majority of the deprived children were emotionally well adjusted.
3. There was no significant difference in respect of levels of adjustment between the partially and fully deprived children.
4. Parental deprivation had a differential effect on the achievement of students.
5. There was a significant difference in respect of adjustment and general mental ability scores between partially deprived and undeprived children.
6. Children who belonged to the rural community were less adjusted in comparison to the children who were located in urban areas.
7. There was a significant difference between the adjustment scores of the rural non-deprived children and that of the urban deprived group children.

8. Female students had superior adjustment as compared to males.

9. There was a significant difference in respect of total adjustment scores amongst orphan and tribal, and orphan and parental group children.

**Pyari (1980)** attempted to study the feeling of security, family attachment and values of adolescent girls in relation to their educational achievement. The survey method was used on a sample drawn from the city of Agra in the age group of 16 to 21 years. The sample was drawn in accordance with the purposive non-probability technique.

The study yielded the following findings-

(i) The relationship between the security-insecurity scores and educational achievement scores was negative.

(ii) The relationship between the family attachment scores and the educational achievement scores was negative.

(iii) The relationship between the security-insecurity scores and the family attachment scores was positive.

(iv) As regards the relationship between the achievement scores and different values, the theoretical, aesthetic, social and religious values were positively related to educational achievement while the economic and political values were negatively related with the educational-achievement.

(v) The relationship between the security-insecurity scores and different values was very low.

(vi) The relationship between family attachment scores and different value scores was insignificant.
(vii) There was a definite pattern of values among adolescent girls. They gave first preference to social, second to political and thereafter to theoretical, economic, aesthetic and religious values.

*Kulshreshta (1981)* tried to study the factors related to differential patterns of achievement among bright students. One of the objectives of the study was to find out how parental attitudes, family background and basic skills influenced academic achievement of bright students. Among other things it was found that under achievement was directly related with the parent’s care concerning collecting fees and other facilities for these children and secondly, under achievers lived in more noisy houses.

*Chopra (1982)* designed a study related to this area in order to identify the variables having positive relationship with academic achievement and to find out the relative importance of intelligence and various non-intelligence variables in determining academic achievement.

A random stratified sample consisting of 309 girls and 598 boys (age around 15 to 16 years) studying in class X of twelve boys’ and five girls’ school was selected. Marks of high school examination were taken as the criterion of academic-achievement. Results indicate that home adjustment was more clearly related to academic-achievement, than emotional health and social adjustment.

*Agarwal (1986)* designed this study to understand the effect of parental encouragement upon educational development of secondary school students. The sample consisted of 1000 students studying in 24 higher secondary schools in the Garhwal region. Marks obtained by the students in four previous examinations were taken as the criterion of academic development. For measurement of parental development the investigator developed a Parental Encouragement Scale.
The main findings of the study were:

1. The high achieving group had been getting higher parental encouragement.
2. The high achieving girls got greater parental encouragement in the urban areas but in the rural areas the middle achieving group received more parental encouragement.
3. The urban boys received greater parental encouragement than the rural ones.
4. The urban girls got greater parental encouragement than the rural ones.
5. The girls in general received greater parental encouragement than the boys.
6. There were differences in the amount of parental achievement received by the students in different regions.
7. The high achieving groups of boys and girls with the mother as well as the father absent received more encouragement than the other boys and girls. Sex differences in the encouragement of either parental absence could not be identified.

Coleman (1988) examined the impact of changes in family status on the relations between family processes and academic achievement. He uses, as one example, family structure as a means of strengthening social capital in the family. Family structure deals with the number of parents present in the family. His work focuses on the absence of a family member that creates a structural deficit that leads to less social capital for children to draw on and use to support their development. In this framework, in comparison to two-parent families, one-parent households are seen as having less time available to invest in parent-child interactions. Indeed, there is considerable evidence that indicates children in single-parent households receive less encouragement and less assistance with homework than children in two-parent homes (e.g., Amato, 1987; Astone & McLanahan, 1991; Dombusch et al., 1985; Nock, 1988).
Zahir (1988) designed this investigation to study the relationship between perceived maternal behaviour and personality as well as scholastic achievement of adolescents. The sample for the study consisted of 624 adolescents randomly selected from government approved higher secondary schools in Lucknow.

The main findings of the study were:

1. Maternal acceptance helped in the development of dominance, self-confidence and tendency of extraversion.
2. Neuroticism was developed by the mother’s detachment.
3. Child-centredness made adolescents more sociable and introvert.
4. Enforcement did not develop independence.
5. Maternal acceptance promoted scholastic achievement.
6. The mother’s negative attitude towards the child had an adverse effect on the child’s academic performance.

Demo and Acock (1996) used the National Survey of Family and Households in the United States to examine the differences between intact first married families, divorced single-parent families, step families, and continuously single mother-headed families regarding young adolescents socio-emotional adjustment, academic performance, and global well-being. The first marriage intact homes had children who performed the best across all indicators of well being and school success. The continuously single mother headed families had the lowest income and slightly less academically successful children. The divorced and step families tended to report more conflict and disagreement.

Fuligni (1997) examined the impact of family background, parental attitudes, peer support, and adolescents’ own attitudes and behaviours on the academic achievement of students from immigrant families with Latino, East Asian, Filipino, and European backgrounds. Results indicated that first and second generation students received higher grades in mathematics and English than their peers from native families. Only a small portion of their success could be attributed to their socio-economic background; a more significant correlate of
their achievement was a strong emphasis on education that was shared by the students, their parents, and their peers.

*Portes et al. (1998)* examined the influence of parents’ assistance on middle-school students’ problem solving ability and academic achievement. The researchers found that a cooperative problem solving style of interaction between parent and child was significantly correlated with children’s intellectual performance in school.

*Holmbeck et al. (2001)* aims to study coping socialization longitudinally by examining reported and observed family environment and parenting variables in relation to children's problem-focused coping in a sample of 68 families of preadolescents with spina bifida and 68 matched able-bodied comparison families. Family environment and parenting variables were assessed with mother and father reports and observational measures. Children’s problem-focused coping was self-reported.

Prospective analyses revealed that maternal responsiveness, paternal responsiveness, and family cohesion predicted an increase in children's use of problem-focused coping strategies, while change in paternal responsiveness and maternal responsiveness and demandingness was related concurrently to change in coping. Few group (spina bifida vs. able-bodied) or gender differences with respect to parenting and family influences on children’s coping behaviours were found.

*Bootcheck et al. (2003)* conducted this study, based on 1073 respondents from six high schools, examines correlates of school achievement, operationalized by self-reported grades. The independent variables include background variables--such as race/ethnicity, gender, social class, and family structure as well as current school engagement variables--such as study habits, extra-curricular participation, holding a job, perceptions of parental pressure for good grades, and student ratings of their schools. The independent variables that
predict grade outcomes differ by racial/ethnic category. The predictive power of the model is strongest for Euro-Americans and Asian-Americans, intermediate for Hispanics, and weak for African-Americans.

Devi and Mayuri (2003) conducted this investigation to study family and school factors that affect the academic achievement of Residential school children studying in IX and X classes. The sample consisted of 120 children (60 from IX and 60 from X), and 40 teachers from 15 Residential schools of Hyderabad city. An interview schedule was developed by the investigator to study the family factors. The questionnaire administered to the teachers was developed by the second author to study school factors. I-IV rank holding children were the criteria of sample selection from previous final year examinations and present quarterly examinations. The result indicated that girls were superior to boys. Family factors like Parental Aspirations and Socio Economic Status significantly contributed to Academic Achievement. Among school factors Teachers Qualification, Physical Setup, Curriculum and Subject Matter, Class Room Organization, Method of Teaching, Teacher Student Interaction were found to be having effect on the academic achievement of the school children.

Fatima (2003) studied the relationship between the family climate and educational achievement. She tried to find out whether favourable home-climate result in high academic achievement and whether the unfavourable climate leads to poor academic achievement. She found out that there is no relationship between the type of climate and academic achievement of students.

Silk et al. (2003) tried to explore the relationship between parental psychological control and parental autonomy granting, and the relations between these constructs and indicators of adolescent psychosocial functioning, in a sample of 9,564 adolescents from grades 9 to 12. Participants completed a comprehensive parenting questionnaire as well as several measures of
psychosocial adjustment. Confirmatory factor analyses of the parenting items revealed discrete factors for psychological control and autonomy granting, suggesting that these are distinct parenting constructs rather than opposite ends of a parental control continuum. Moreover, structural equation modeling showed that these factors were weakly correlated and differentially related to adolescent internalizing symptoms.

Patrikakou (2004) conducted this study and data for this investigation were drawn from the National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS), an extensive longitudinal study, which has been constructed to follow a cohort of students from the eighth grade through high school, college, and into the workforce. The first wave of data was collected in 1988 when participants were in eighth grade and they have been resurveyed four times (in 1990, 1992, 1994, and 2000). The model used to explore parent involvement influences was constructed using theoretical and empirical elements in the broader area of parent influences and academic success. The model consists of three blocks of influence: first, background factors such as gender and prior achievement, and parent involvement factors such as parent expectations and parent-child communication; second, the adolescent's perceptions of the parent involvement factors; and third, student characteristics such as time spent on homework and the student's own academic expectations. The model was tested using structural modeling, a statistical procedure which estimates both direct and indirect effects that different factors have on the outcome under investigation. The two primary outcomes tested were academic achievement in high school (measured by standardized scores) and post-secondary attainment (measured by a 6-point scale ranging from some post-secondary education but no degree attained to Ph.D. or a professional degree attained).

Arati & Prabha (2005) conducted this study to find out the influence of different family variables on family environment of adolescents. The sample
comprised 120 adolescent (60 boys and 60 girls) in the age group of 13 to 16 years. Correlation test was done to find out the influence of selected family variables on family environment of adolescents. The results showed that the number of siblings, father’s education, father’s occupation and family income had significant positive influence on family environment of adolescents.

Shankar & Rachel (2005) investigated to measure parents’ anxiety in attitude development of the children especially at the board examination level. Special interest, care and coaching were given at this level to facilitate higher achievement. This stress on the students results in low achievement. This stress on the students results in low achievement; deviation in interest; improper motivation etc. the sample comprised 100 parents whose children were studying in govt. and private schools. It is found that more than 55% of the low achievers were students, who were given extra care and coaching by their parents forcibly at this level, and 20% of the high achievers were gifted with normal care and no special coaching and concern; rest of the 15% were beneficiaries of this anxiety of parents and 10% of failures remain stoic in this hypothetical frame.

Ahuja & Goyal (2006) conducted this study to investigate significance of difference in subject-wise performance of adolescents belonging to highly involved and highly aspirant parents and those belonging to low aspirant and low involved parents. The sample consisted of 100 adolescents studying in IX grade of schools of Chandigarh and their parents numbering 100. Among the findings based on ANOVA’s work:

1. High parental involvement lead to higher achievement of adolescents in Science, English and Maths, as compared to that of the group belonging to parents having low involvement with their wards’ academics.

2. High education aspirations of parents lead to higher achievement scores only in Maths. Achievement scores in English and Science were not
significantly different for children of parents having high and low educational aspirations.

3. Occupational Aspirations of parents, high or low, did not yield significantly different achievement scores in Science and Maths. But higher occupational aspirations of parents led to higher achievement scores in English.

*Darolia & Wydick (2006)* examined how overt and private signals sent by an altruistic parent affect a child’s long-term performance. Unlike the standard principal-agent model, a parent may have better information over a child’s ability than the child herself. Based on the parent’s view of the child’s type and the parent’s own attributes, the parent then undertakes actions which act as either compliments or substitutes to the child’s own effort. While both actions are directed toward the well-being of the child, a parent’s complementary actions augment a child’s self-esteem, while substitutionary actions lower self-esteem, and thus motivation. They carry out both reduced form and structural estimations of their model on a sample of 651 college students, finding evidence that complimentary actions before college, such as displaying belief in the child and providing frequent praise, encourage academic achievement above what natural ability would predict. Conversely, they find some substitutionary actions before college, such as providing cars as gifts to children and helping children cheat on assignments, associated with lower effort in college and underachievement.

*Flouri (2006)* used longitudinal data from sweeps of the 1970 British Cohort Study (BCS 70). The initial sample was those 1,737 men and 2,033 women with valid data on age 10, self-esteem, locus of control, father’s interest, mother’s interest, and age 26 educational attainment. Of these 1,326 men and 1,578 women were included in the final analysis. Results revealed that at the multivariate level, internal locus of control and mother’s interest (but not self-esteem) were significantly related to educational
attainment both men and women. Father’s interest was a significant predictor of educational attainment only in women. Parent’s interest was not linked to educational attainment via its impact on child’s self-esteem or locus of control. Self esteem predicted educational attainment in both genders by increasing internal locus of control, and fathers’ interest predicted educational attainment in men by increasing mother’s involvement.

Khanam (2006) studied the relationship between Family climate and Academic achievement of the male and female students at the secondary school level. She tried to investigate whether the family climate results in high academic achievement or whether the unfavorable family climate results in poor academic achievement. The investigator did not obtain any significant relationship between the family climate and the academic achievement. The achievement of the male and female students was independent of the influence of the type of family climate (favorable, unfavorable).

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO MENTAL HEALTH:
Vyathit (1973) conducted a comparative study of Interpersonal relations in effective and ineffective classroom groups, with regard to sociometric cohesiveness, social distances, social perception, social cohesiveness and social attitudes of pupils towards their classroom groups and class teachers and to evolve various instruments for the purpose of the study. The tools devised were school assessment performa, form A&B, Classroom observation schedules, achievement tests in History for classes VII and VIII. The instruments used for data collection were sociometric test, social distance scale, Guess who test, classroom group rating scale, class teacher rating scale, teacher pupil relationship test. 18 effective and ineffective classroom groups were selected. The number of boys, girls and coeducational groups included in the sample were 198, 269 & 169 respectively. Whereas in ineffective type were 201, 124 and 145 respectively. In addition to pupils, fifty five classroom teachers including 31 males and 24 females were also included from various middle
schools of Bhopal city and data were analysed by means of factorial analysis and employing chi square technique.

Interpersonal relations and social acceptability for each other as a playmate in effective classroom group were found superior as compared to ineffective group and the number of isolates and neglectees were smaller in effective group. Coeducational classroom groups had better interpersonal relations and better social attitudes, towards playmates and teachers respectively than boys and girls alone. The number of isolates were smaller in co-educational classroom group.

Veereshwar (1979) surveyed the mental health and adjustment problems of college-going girls of urban and rural areas in and around Meerut. A sample of 406 girls in the age group of 18-20 years was drawn from the undergraduate students of Meerut University by the sequential list method. The sample was further divided into NSS and non-NSS groups. The NSS group had 182 students and the non-NSS groups had 224 students. The data was analysed calculating mean, S.D. and t-test.

The major findings were:

1. Adjustment problems for girls existed in all the areas but the percentage of extreme cases were meagre.

2. There was significant difference in the area of family adjustment between urban girls and rural girls. Family problems were more unsatisfactory for rural girls. The percentage of cases requiring help was very low for both the groups.

3. The scores of urban and rural girls in the area of education showed a significant difference. The college or educational area was a problem for rural girls more than for urban girls.

4. The social area held problems for both urban and rural girls. The difference between the two was significant, i.e. the percentage of rural girls showing unsatisfactory adjustment in the social area was higher.
5. Personal emotional problems were shown less by urban girls than by rural girls and the difference was significant.

6. The difference in adjustment of urban and rural girls was not significant in the area of health. Both groups showed quite satisfactory health adjustment.

7. The NSS and non-NSS groups did not differ significantly in home adjustment, educational area and health.

8. In the social area, though the difference was not statistically significant, the NSS group showed a little better adjustment.

9. The non-NSS group showed better emotional adjustment than the NSS group and the difference was statistically significant.

*Majid (1984)* aimed to identify the dominant factors which constituted the complex phenomenon known as mental health. Tools for Self-Acceptance, level of Aspiration, Self-Actualization, Existentiality, Feelings, Reactivity, Spontaneity, Self Regard, Self-Concept, Perception of Nature of Man, Acceptance of Aggression and capacity for intimate contact were administered to sample of 210 boys and 220 girls. The data were subjected to factor analysis employing the method of Principal Component Analysis. Separate analysis was done for boys, girls and boys and girls combined. The extracted factors were rotated orthogonally to achieve a psychologically meaningful, simpler structure of factor loadings.

The following factors were obtained: 1. Factor- I was called ‘Self-Acceptance’ because it was contributed by the variables which reflected an accepting attitude of the individual towards himself. The factor was common to all the three groups. 2. Factor- II for the combined group and Factor- III for boys and girls were called ‘Existential Autonomy’ because they were contributed by variables which indicated existentiality and inner orientation. 3. Factor- II for girls was called ‘Open Mindedness’ because it was mainly contributed by the variables which referred to a present-oriented and open personality. 4. Factor- II for boys and Factor- III for the combined group
emerged as a configuration of loading contributed by all the variables of Mental Health. This factor is therefore named the factor of ‘General Mental Health’.

Prasanna (1984) aims to identify the mental health variables which discriminated between high and low achievers among the total sample and sub-samples classified on the basis of sex, and area of residence. The sample was made up of 1050 pupils (567 boys and 483 girls) of std. IX, selected by applying the proportional stratified sampling technique. The main findings were:

1- All the mental health variables studied discriminated between high and low achievers in most of the groups studied.
2- High achievers had higher mean scores than low achievers for all the 16 mental health variables studied.

Bhattacharjee (1985) found that incidence of mental ill health was high. There was high positive relationship between materialistic, sexual relationship, security and independence needs and mental ill-health. There was negative relation between idealistic and altruistic needs and mental health. The less the frustration of idealistic and altruistic need, the more the mental ill-health and vice versa. There was a negative relationship between mental ill-health and frustration-in toleration of the idealistic and altruistic need.

Mamta (1988) compared personality and frustration reactions among accepted and non-accepted 12-13 year old girls of class VIII in Agra. It was noted that parentally accepted students differed in affiliation, change and order needs. Differences in all aspects of reactions to frustration were significant except the extrapunitive direction of aggression. No difference was found on the measure of achievement need. Need persistence was significantly related to achievement, affiliation and change needs among the acceptors. Obstacle dominance was relates to change and order needs. In non acceptors, the
relationships were not significant except between need for order and persistence, and achievement need and ego defence and persistence reactions.

*Sapru (1988)* examined personality pattern and reactions to frustration in high and higher secondary school boys of Srinagar. The introverts and normals differed significantly on group conformity rating, delinquency-prone persistence. Neurotics and normals differed on ego-defence, while introverts and normals differed on intragression. Multiple regression analysis revealed that group conformity was predicted by extragression, need persistence, proneness to disease, intragression, extraversion, obstacle dominance, ego-defence and imagression.

*Anand (1989)* found that the mental health of children was dependent upon the educational and occupational status of parents. Sound mental health was positively related to academic achievement, and both of them were positively related to parental status. The degree of mental health was also related to the type of school, being the highest in Convent schools, followed by Sainik, DAV and DM schools, respectively.

*Albuquerque et al. (1990)* study of life events and strains revealed that college students experienced about five life events in one year and had to undergo a mild degree of distress. The males reported relatively greater degree of distress. The majority of such events were experienced in the educational domain, followed by health. Bereavement and financial loss were more distressing. The female students reported greater degree of subjective distress than male students.

*Rayalu (1990)* compared the fears of Indian and British adolescents and found that neuroticism and fear were positively related among the British boys. Extraversion was negatively related to the fear score. Boys were found to be more intelligent than girls. Girls were more phobic and had high fear score.
The boys showed greater extraversion and psychoticism while girls showed more neuroticism. British adolescents scored higher on intelligence test. Indian adolescents showed more phobic tendency and fear than the British, who showed greater degree of neuroticism. A content analysis showed that Indians’ fears dealt with failures, hosts and living away from the family. In contrast, fear among the British included sexual assault, mental illness, drugs offensive odour and being ugly.

Reddy & Nagarathanamma (1993) investigated certain components of Mental Health status among rural and urban students from the point of identifying students, who have potential for future development of mental health problems. The school is considered second to the home in its influence on the development of children’s personality. The sample of study comprised 400 high school going children, out of which 200 were boys and 200 were girls. Their socio-economic status was taken into consideration. The results revealed no difference between urban and rural students, with regard to their mental health status. Boys and girls in the sample slightly differed from each other with regard to their mental health status, where as the socio-economic status did not contribute to their mental health status.

Asha (2003) investigated to examine the combined effect of creativity and intelligence on stress and mental health of college students. The sample consisted of 126 post-graduate students (61 male and 65 female students) from various departments of the Calicut University. Descriptive Test of Creativity, Mathew Test of Mental Abilities, Students Academic Stress Scale and Mental Health Inventory were used in the present study. The results indicate that the high creative-high intelligent groups of male and female students experience less stress and better mental health than the less creative-less intelligent male and female students. The study suggests that cognitive excellence is a resource for adapting to stressful conditions and fostering mental health.
Roul (2004) has attempted to find out the effectiveness of autonomous and non-autonomous college teachers in relation to their mental health. The study establishes that (1) autonomous college teachers are more effective than non-autonomous college teachers on teacher effectiveness; (ii) the teachers of autonomous colleges have better mental health than their counterparts in non-autonomous colleges. The researcher draws a conclusion that the teachers of autonomous college show better performance than non-autonomous college teachers.

Dwairy (2004) conducted a study to examine the parental styles and psychosocial adjustment of adolescents and the relationship between gifted as compared to nongifted Arab adolescents. Standardised tools were administered to 118 gifted and 115 nongifted Arab adolescents in Israel. Results indicate that parents of gifted adolescents tend to be more authoritative and less authoritarian than parents of nongifted adolescents. The attitudes of the gifted adolescents toward their parents were more positive than those of the nongifted adolescents. The gifted displayed higher self-esteem and fewer identity disorders, phobias, and conduct disorders than the nongifted adolescents. The authoritative parental style correlates positively with the mental health of both gifted and nongifted adolescents, while the authoritarian parenting style impacts negatively on the mental health of the gifted, but not of the nongifted adolescents. The study results indicate that the authoritarian parenting style is a crucial factor that influences the well-being of gifted children and may affect their psychological adjustment.

Gonzales (2006) using a 1-year prospective design, this study examined the influence of family status variables (family income, parental education, family structure), parenting variables (maternal support and restrictive control), peer support, and neighborhood risk on the school performance of 120 African American junior high school students. In addition to main effects of these variables, neighborhood risk was examined as a moderator of the effects of
parenting and peer support. Family status variables were not predictive of adolescent school performance as indexed by self-reported grade point average. Maternal support at Time 1 was prospectively related to adolescent grades at Time 2. Neighbourhood risk was related to lower grades, while peer support predicted better grades in the prospective analyses. Neighbourhood risk also moderated the effects of maternal restrictive control and peer support on adolescent grades in prospective analyses.

Tinkew et al. (2006) made an investigation in which father-child relationship and father’s parenting style are examined as predictors of first delinquency and substance use, using data from the National Longitudinal Study of Youth 1997, Rounds 1 to 3 (N = 5,345), among adolescents in intact families. Discrete time logistic regressions indicate that a more positive father-child relationship predicts a reduced risk of engagement in multiple first risky behaviours. Having a father with an authoritarian parenting style is associated with an increased risk of engaging in delinquent activity and substance use. Two-way interaction models further indicate that the negative effect of authoritarian parenting is reduced when fathers have a positive relationship with their adolescent. Permissive parenting also predicts less risky behaviour when the father-child relationship is positive. The positive influence of the father-child relationship on risk behaviours is stronger for male than for female adolescents.

Dwairy et al. (2006) conducted a study in which the Psychological State Scale, Multigenerational Interconnectedness Scale, and the Parental Authority Questionnaire were administered to 2,893 Arab adolescents in eight Arab societies. In these tests, adolescents raised according to the inconsistent parenting scored lower in connectedness and higher in mental disorders than those raised according to the controlling or flexible-oriented parenting pattern. Authoritative parenting was associated with a higher level of connectedness with the family and better mental health of adolescents. A higher level of adolescent-family connectedness is associated with better mental health of.
adolescents. Results indicate that authoritarian parenting within an authoritarian culture does not harm the adolescents' mental health as it does within the Western liberal societies. These results give rise to the hypothesis that inconsistency in parenting and inconsistency between the parenting style and the culture cause harm to adolescents' mental health.

_Huh et al. (2006)_ tested the hypothesis that perceived parenting would show reciprocal relations with adolescents’ problem behaviour using longitudinal data from 496 adolescent girls. Results provided support for the assertion that female problem behaviour has an adverse effect on parenting; elevated externalizing symptoms and substance abuse symptoms predicted future decreases in perceived parental support and control. There was less support for the assertion that parenting deficits foster adolescent problem behaviours; initially, low parental control predicted future increases in substance abuse but not externalizing symptoms, and low parental support did not predict future increases in externalizing or substance abuse symptoms. Results suggest that problem behaviour is a more consistent predictor of parenting than parenting is of problem behaviour, at least for girls during middle adolescence.

_Ayodhya (2007)_ aimed at studying the emotional problems of school children and their relation to stressors (life events) and school achievements from a sample drawn from Class X students using survey method, and author finds among other things that secondary school students had significantly high rate of emotional problems, and emotionally disturbed students had high life event scores.

### 2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO STUDY HABITS

_Mehdi (1965)_ conducted a very exhaustive study to find out the effects of study habits on academic performance on the students of three streams, viz, Science, Arts and Commerce. Pupils entering class Xth in the three courses were studied for a period of three years in order to see whether the study habits showed
significant relationship with the ultimate success at the class XI public examination. The study habits were not found to contribute significantly to the prediction of Academic achievement.

Jain (1967) tried to investigate the relationship between study habits and academic achievement. A study habit inventory incorporation consultation and working habits developed by the investigator and the marks obtained at the annual examination served a measure of study habits and academic achievement respectively the scores on the study habits inventory correlated significantly and positively with academic achievement and coefficient of correlation ranged from .29 for consultation habits to .59 for the working habits.

Pepper (1969) examined the performance of a class of marginal students at Wayne State University by comparing their standardised test scores with those of regular students and by correlating the scores and the work of the marginal students after 1 year of school. (The subjects were part of an experimental program for students who do not meet the established admissions criteria of the school. Such students are given 1 school year to correct their deficiencies and are required to take a reading and study skills course.) Results showed that they did not perform as well as regularly admitted students. The relevance of these standardised test results to factors important to the academic success of marginal students was not clear, however. The author suggests perhaps a combination of test scores with the traditional admission date as a more valuable prediction of college grades.

Jha (1970) hypothesized that there exists a substantial positive relationship between study habits and attainment in science. Wrenn’s study habits inventory and the average of marks obtained at the two preceeding annual examinations in science served as a measure of study habit and achievement respectively. The study revealed that there was a significant and positive relationship between achievement in science and study habits in case of boys and combined samples but not so in the case of girls.
Trivedi & Patel (1973) conducted a comparative study of the performance and study habits of students reading in B.A. (English) and B.A. (Non English) course of S.P. University. The sample included 102 students (English) and 138 students (Non English) of third year B.A. It was found that average performance of the students of English stream was better and significant in comparison with non English stream students. The standard of knowledge of non-English group was also found lower than English group, and lastly the study habits of English stream students were relatively better organized than those of non-English stream students and also the same pattern of attitude towards English was observed.

Saxena (1981) studied not only the main effects of socio economic status and cultural settings on the three dependent variables but also studied how the two independent variables interact while influencing the dependant variables. The study was an ex- post facto correlational research. There were four phases of study, viz, first divisioners, second divisioners, third divisioners and failures of high school students. Each phase constituted of four 3x2 factorial experiment. Thus there were nine experiments in all. Samples were selected from the whole district in the age range of 15-18 years. Thus 720 students were selected for the purpose. Analysis of variance, T-Test and Duncan’s Test were the statistical techniques used for the analysis of data. The findings related to study habits were as follows:-

(i) The socio-economic status has the most significant effects on self concept and study habits of different divisions as well as failures of high school.
(ii) The first divisioners belonging to the rural culture had better patterns of study habits than those belonging to the urban culture.
(iii) Rural culture promoted better study habits and achievement. The results were similar in case of third divisioners too.

Tuli (1981) investigated the relationship between study habits and achievement in mathematics. Only the sample consisted of 474 boys and girls of IX class.
The investigator found that study habits were positively related to achievement in mathematics.

Perry (1985) conducted an in-depth study of the reading habits of the eighth grade population in a large suburban junior high school. The sample consisted of 404 students recorded five consecutive days of their reading incidence on a closed ended reading log from several pilot studies of reading habits. Subsequently, random sampling of 29 students from the first population on an opened ended reading log to keep with them for recording their responses for 7 days. A follow-up interview was conducted, with each student to clarify, expand and validate the information found in reading log, also the interviews of teachers and parents were conducted.

The major findings provide a description of the average eighth grade student who read mostly because it was required, who read about equal amounts at school and home, and who felt generally positive about reading. Though an average student was statistically calculated, the wide ranges in the responses contradicted the reality of an average student.

Graham (1985) using the California Achievement Test, Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes, and Tennessee Self Concept Scale, 210 high- and low-achieving migrant Spanish-surnamed students in grades seven, nine, and eleven from 2 Oklahoma and 4 Texas school districts were tested for achievement and grade level differences in study habits, study attitudes, and self concepts. Data were also analyzed by gender. High-achieving students as a group and by gender were found to have higher study habits, study attitudes, and self concepts; by grade level, high achievers had higher study attitudes and self concepts. Study habits were not significantly different by grade level, but by gender and grade level, study habits, study attitudes, and self concepts were higher for high achievers. Study attitudes appeared to influence achievement more than the other two measures. Data analysis found achievement was associated with student age, father's occupational status, number of counsellor visits, mobility, subject liked best, graduation and future plans, job aspirations,
and job reality. Twelve student interviews provided additional characteristics. Conclusions were used to profile potential high achievers and potential dropouts. Recommendations were made to increase school holding power. Supporting tables appear in the text; appendices include questionnaire, interview form, and copy of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale.

*Patel (1985)* conducted this investigation on 73 intellectually backward pupils of class VIIIth from six different types of schools. The statements were responded on a five point scale. For measuring the academic achievement of students, the results of the terminal examination were taken into consideration. The ANOVA correlational and trend analysis were used for statistical analysis of the data to test the null hypotheses. After analyzing the data he found that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of study habits of boys and girls. In order to decide which group was superior in study habits, Scheffe’s test multiple comparison was used. On the basis of the value calculated, it was concluded that a) rural girls were significantly superior to rural boys in study habits at 0.01 level. b) urban girls were significantly superior to rural as well as urban boys in study habits at 0.01 level.

*Chilimikollad (1987)* studied the “Study Habits and Study Skills of Metallurgy Students of Government Polytechnic”.

The important findings were:

1- There existed a moderate positive correlation between study habits and study skills of the 3 groups of students.
2- The obtained t-values were below the critical minimum required and such there were no significant differences in the mean scores of study habits and study skills among the students of 3 different years.
3- The scores of the students in the study habits inventory were consistent to the maximum for the entire sample taken together.
Blumner & Norman (1988) surveyed the study habits and standardized test performance for prediction of post secondary academic achievement. 25 undergraduates and 44 graduates were administered by an inventory of study habits. The major findings were that undergraduate and graduate academic performance, additional variation in performance, high aptitude students all can be predicted by study skills, study habits will better predict best predict performance will vary as a function of under graduate. Study habits are found less predictor of the performance of women and men.

Jenkins & Carol (1988) conducted a survey of the perceptions of study skills of the twelfth grade students in the state of Nebaska, to measure the perception of current, ideal, and actual levels of study skills, methods used to learn study skills and courses in which study skills were included. A stratified random sampling of 269 was done. Relationships between current and actual responses of the students suggested that students may have been unaware of the disparity between what they currently perceived their skills to have been and what statistically existed. Relationships between ideal and actual responses were statistically significant. Students viewed study skills as ideally important. Based on the actual responses of students, listening was considered the most used skill and note taking ranked second.

English and social studies courses were identified as the content areas where most students learned study skills. Students ranked teacher instructions as the number one method of study.

Dougle & Odell (1989) attempted to study the prediction of academic achievement from study skill habits among upward Bound students. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationships between selected study skill habits and attitudes and achievement of secondary students in English, Mathematics and spelling. Sample consisted of 82 secondary school students participating in upward bound programmes. Instruments used were the survey of study habits and attitudes (SSHA), the Stanford Test of academic Skills, TASK and the Otis-lennon Mental Abilities Test (OLMAT). The statistical
analysis indicated that the four subscores of the SSHA are not accurate predictors of academic achievement. However, some of the correlations among the subscores for SSHA and the TASK were significant. Most notable of these were work methods and mathematics, teacher acceptance and mathematics, and work methods and spellings. The recommendation is made that the SSHA should not be used to predict the Academic achievement in Upward Bound Programmes. Improving study habits and attitudes should be addressed as a method of refining academic programmes, not of predicting academic achievement.

George (1991) examined the influence of high school students Study habits on achievement in high school and during the first semester of college by drawing data from 159 female and 93 male freshmen. He found that the same study habits that contributed to success in high school were unrelated to academic achievement during the first semester in college. On the basis of this finding it was suggested that college freshmen need to acquire new study habits to be academically successful. For measuring academic achievement, examination results were used as a reliable measure.

Indira (1992) conducted an investigation which aims at identifying the reading interests and study habits among neo-literates. He selected 240 neo-literates randomly from 30 Janshikshana Nilayams who served as subjects for the study. A Numerical Rating Scale, and a Study Habits Questionnaire were used to collect the data. The collected data were treated with mean, SD, ‘t’ test and analysis of variance. The findings indicates that a majority (53.33%) of respondents seemed to read during the morning many (37.5%) seemed to spend about one hour for reading many (50.83%) seemed to read five days in a week, only 5% claimed that they read every day and as many as 65% seemed to depend on libraries for reading materials.

Kaur & Lekhi (1995) investigated intelligence, achievement motivation and study habits as correlates of academic achievement. The sample of the study consisted of 100 students randomly selected from X class. The findings were:
a) Intelligence, achievement motivation and study habits were positively and significantly correlated with Academic Achievement.

**Darlene (1997)** conducted an investigation based upon an unidimensional, global model of academic self-concept and nineteen years of public school teaching experience, the purpose of this study was to determine the relationship among the constructs of academic self-concept, academic achievement, persistence, self-attribution, study habits, and perceived school environment. The participants in this study were seventh- and eighth-grade students (N = 214), in a rural mid-western school. It was hypothesized that participants who have a high academic self-concept and high achievement would tend to persist at tasks. Moreover, this type of student would tend to attribute their successes to hard work and effort, have good study habits, and have a favourable perception of the school environment.

Student volunteers were administered two questionnaires, using a Likert-type format, in order to ascertain their perceptions of the school environment, study habits, self-attributions, persistence, and academic self-concept. Grade-point-average was used as the criterion variable. The two instrument contained items from the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers-Harris, 1964), the Survey of Achievement Responsibility (Ryckman, et al. 1990), the Locus of Control Scale (Nowicki & Strickland, 1973), the Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes (Brown and Holtzman, 1967), and the Classroom Environment Scale (Moos, 1979).

The results of this study indicated that academic self-concept, academic achievement, and persistence are related significantly to academic self-concept and academic achievement. Further analysis, using LISREL, indicated that the data fit the reduced model that used self-attributions to explain the relationships among academic self-concept, academic achievement, and persistence, the best. It has long been a theme in education that a student needs a good academic self-concept in order to be successful academically. To achieve this success, schools can impact their students' academic self-concept by developing an organized, orderly, supportive environment. Classroom teachers should teach
students' good student habits and self-management skills together with appropriate self-attribution strategies. The results of the present study suggest that these teaching strategies could influence students' persistence and academic self-concept that, in turn, would promote academic achievement.

_Thathong (2002)_ investigated the causal relationships between set of variables: study habits, motivation achievement, statistics attitude, admission test scores, and ages on an achievement in statistics for educational research. Participants were 41 graduate students in a program of educational administration. The participants were asked to indicate their study habits, motivation achievement and statistics attitude on the 5-point scale questionnaires. Their report scores of academic in statistics for educational research were used as an indicator of their achievement. The variables were examined their relationships using path analysis technique to provide estimates of the direct and indirect influences of independent variables on a dependent variable (Kerlinger and Lee, 2000). The findings indicated variables that showed direct effect on an achievement in statistics for educational research were admission test scores ($b \leq 0.588, p < 0.05$), statistics attitude ($b \leq 0.255, p < 0.05$), age ($b \leq -0.199, p < 0.05$), and study habits ($b \leq 0.194, p < 0.05$). It was found that motivation achievement showed only indirect effect pass through statistics attitude ($b \leq 0.328, p < 0.05$). In addition, admission test score showed indirect effect pass through statistics attitude ($b \leq 0.339, p < 0.05$).

_Tuckman (2003)_ originally developed an educational psychology-based “study skills” program: Strategies-for-Achievement, to teach learning and motivation strategies to college students, was modified for use by high school students. It involved teaching students four achievement strategies: take reasonable risk, take responsibility, search the environment, use feedback. Each was divided into two sub-strategies, and used to teach students to overcome procrastination, build self-confidence and responsibility, manage their lives, learn from lecture and text, and prepare for exams. The training was provided as a course taught
using a “blended” technology-based instructional model called Active Discovery And Participation thru Technology (ADAPT). Students who took the training course earned significantly higher grade point averages in comparison to a matched group, during the term they took the course.

Anton & Angel (2004) analyzed the relationships among Cattellian personality factors, scholastic aptitudes, study habits, and academic achievement. A total of 887 volunteer students from primary education (453 males and 434 females), enrolled in 29 public schools, participated in this research. It was found that the scholastic aptitudes were the most predictive variables of achievement, while the personality traits had a low direct contribution to academic achievement, although the students with higher scores on socialized personality traits showed better study habits than those students with lower scores on personality socialization traits. The relationship between personality and academic achievement seems to be mediated by study habits. Moreover, females obtained higher academic achievement scores than males. These differences could be explained by the fact that females showed a more socialized personality pattern and better study habits.

Lakshminarayanan et al. (2006) made an attempt to compare achievers and non-achievers in study skills. For this purpose a sample of 50 achievers and 50 non-achievers was identified, based on their performances in the terminal examination. The responses were scored and treated with Mean, Standard Deviation and ‘t’ test. Results in general indicate that achievers use higher level of study skills than the non-achievers.

Young (2008) aimed to examine the relationship between children’s study habits, their parent’s involvement and other situational factors. It was found that the school the child went to determined how often they did their homework, it was also found that the children at the lower income school had more parents who smoked. It was also found that the children who had parents who smoked the child watched more television. This is interesting when examined with the fact that parents who smoke do not spend as much time
studying with their children, allowing them more time to watch television. This leads to lower grades because they do not do their homework as often leading them not to like school as well.

2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO SELF CONFIDENCE

Lenney & Orono (1977) highlighted previous reviewers who have suggested that women display lower self-confidence than men across almost all achievement situations. The empirical validity of this suggestion is assessed. The literature indicates that although low self-confidence is indeed a frequent and potentially debilitating problem among women, they are not lower in self-confidence than men in all achievement situations. Instead, it is argued that the nature of this sex difference depends upon such situation variables as the specific ability area, the availability of performance feedback, and the emphasis placed upon social comparison or evaluation. It is concluded that future research must more precisely identify the variables that influence women's self-confidence.

Konvalina (1981) investigated self-assessment, achievement, and confidence in basic mathematics skills. Thirty college students enrolled in a self-paced developmental mathematics course were randomly assigned to either an experimental group that performed a written self-assessment before each test, or to a control group that did not perform the written self-assessment. No significant differences were found between the groups in achievement or general confidence in basic mathematical skills. However, the experimental group consistently had a higher confidence mean over a 25-item basic skills inventory and scored higher on a significant proportion of skills. A highly significant correlation was found between skill confidence and achievement over the 25 basic skills for the combined groups. A significant correlation was found between group confidence and group achievement for the experimental group, but not for the control group.
Verma (1990) aims to analyse the sex differences in risk-taking, self-confidence and anxiety among adolescent learners. His sample consisted of 200 adolescents with equal number of male and female students studying in class X, selected randomly from different institutions of Behror in Alwar District in Rajasthan. Results indicate that male adolescent learners showed higher mean risk-taking than female adolescent learners. Male adolescent learners possessed significantly higher self-confidence than female adolescents. Female adolescent learners had significantly more anxiety than male adolescent learners.

Bénabou & Tirole (2002) in this paper analyzes the self-identification process and its role in motivation. They build a model of self-confidence where people have imperfect knowledge about their ability, which in most tasks is a complement to effort in determining performance. Higher self-confidence thus enhances motivation, and this creates incentives for the manipulation of self-perception. An individual suffering from time-inconsistency may thus want to enhance the self-confidence of his future selves, so as to limit their procrastination. The benefits of confidence-maintenance must, however, be traded off against the risks of overconfidence (inappropriate tasks being pursued). Moreover, rational inference implies that the individual cannot systematically fool himself. A first application of the model is self-handicapping: to avoid a negative inference about their ability, people may deliberately impair their performance, or choose overambitious tasks. Another application is selective memory or awareness management: people are (endogenously) more likely to remember or consciously acknowledge their successes than their failures. This, in turn, helps explain the widely documented prevalence of self-serving beliefs --that is, the fact that most people have overoptimistic assessments of their own abilities and other desirable traits. We analyze the workings of this "psychological immune system" and show that it typically leads to multiple equilibria in cognitive strategies, self confidence, and behaviour. Moreover, while active self-esteem maintenance can improve ex-ante welfare, it can also be self-defeating. Systematically "looking on the bright side", avoiding "negative" thoughts and people, etc., can thus be
beneficial in certain environments; but in other circumstances one can only lose by playing such games with oneself, and it would be better to always "accept who you are" and "be honest with yourself".

Klassen (2002) conducted a study which examined the self- and collective efficacy beliefs of Indo-Canadian and Anglo-Canadian early adolescent students. The research participants included 112 Anglo-Canadian and 158 Indo-Canadian (children of Punjabi Sikh immigrants) grade 7 students. On a 22-item measure of math performance, the Indo-Canadian students earned a significantly higher score than the Anglo-Canadian students and also rated their self efficacy at a higher level. There were no differences between the groups in terms of calibration of self-efficacy and performance. In a multiple regression analysis, self efficacy was the only motivation variable that predicted math performance for both groups. For the Anglo-Canadian students previous math grade was the only other significant predictor of performance; for the Indo-Canadian students, math self-concept was the other significant predictor. Of the hypothesized four sources of efficacy beliefs, emotional arousal was the strongest predictor of efficacy for both cultural groups. Past performance was the next strongest predictor for Anglo-Canadians, while for the Indo-Canadian students, vicarious experience was the second significant predictor of self efficacy. For the sample as a whole, the students who were most accurate in their calibration performed at a higher level than students who under-estimated or overestimated their performance. For the group task, collective efficacy was the best predictor of group performance for the Anglo-Canadians, whereas previous math grade predicted group performance more strongly for the Indo-Canadians. Counter to predictions of higher overall collectivism, the Indo-Canadians displayed higher levels of vertical individualism and vertical collectivism than the other group. Implications of the influence of the vertical aspect of Indo-Canadians on self-appraisal are discussed.

Stoel et al. (2003) presented Latent growth curve (LGC) analysis of longitudinal data for pupils' school investment, self-confidence and language
ability. A multivariate model is tested that relates the three developmental processes to each other and to intelligence. All processes show significant differences between children in their developmental curves. The increase in language ability and the decrease in school investment correspond with the hypotheses. No hypothesis is formulated about self-confidence, but an increase for some and a decrease for others are found. The hypothesis that development in language ability, school investment, and self-confidence are mutually positively associated is supported, as is the hypothesis that intelligence accounts for some of the differences in language ability. School investment, self-confidence, and intelligence each explain a different part of development in language ability.

_Tuckman (2003)_ conducted this study which was based on an educational psychology-based “study skills” program: Strategies-for-Achievement, originally developed to teach learning and motivation strategies to college students, was modified for use by high school students. It involved teaching students four achievement strategies: take reasonable risk, take responsibility, search the environment, and use feedback. Each was divided into two sub-strategies, and used to teach students to overcome procrastination, build self-confidence and responsibility, manage their lives, learn from lecture and text, and prepare for exams. The training was provided as a course taught using a “blended” technology-based instructional model called ‘Active Discovery and Participation through Technology’ (ADAPT). Students who took the training course earned significantly higher grade point averages in comparison to a matched group, during the term they took the course.

_Jones & Caston (2004)_ investigated how cooperative learning promoted the academic success of elementary African American males in grades 3 through 6 in a rural school in Mississippi. This study presents viewpoints based on these students' perception of what influenced academic achievement. The qualitative study using a qualitative analyzed interview data gathered in approach to collecting data, participants’ engaged 6 face-to-face interviews with 16
African-American males over a 3-month period during the 2002-2003 academic school year. Participants represented 16 elementary African American males. All students were regular education students who ranged between the ages of 8 and 13 years old. The participants were interviewed focused on topics related to home and school experiences and on how these two environments affected their academic success. It was evident of the significance cooperative learning had on their desire to learn. Cooperative learning was found to be a primary factor promoting that promoted these students' their academic success. The results further indicated that among the factors thought to inhibit their academic success. Findings showed that those African American males who had limited literacy activities did not perform as well academically as the students who did.

Hannula et al. (2004) with the help of this paper presents some preliminary results of the longitudinal aspect of a research project on self-confidence and understanding in mathematics. They collected a survey data of 3057 fifth-graders and seventh-graders and a follow-up data of ten classes (191 pupils) one and a half years later. The longitudinal data indicates that the learning of mathematics is influenced by a pupil’s mathematics-related beliefs, especially self-confidence. Pupils’ level of understanding fractions also influences their developing understanding of infinity. These relationships between different variables depend also on pupils’ gender and age.

Chang & Cheng (2008) studied the interrelationship between senior high school students' science achievement (SA) and their self-confidence and interest in science (SCIS) was explored with a representative sample of approximately 1,044 11th-grade students from 30 classes attending four high schools throughout Taiwan. Statistical analyses indicated that a statistically significant correlation existed between students' SA and their SCIS with a moderate effect size; the correlation is even higher with almost large effect sizes for a subsample of higher-SCIS and lower-SCIS students. Results of $t$-test
analysis also revealed that there were significant mean differences in students' SA and their knowledge (including physics, chemistry, biology, and earth sciences subscales) and reasoning skill subtests scores between higher-SCIS and lower-SCIS students, with generally large effect sizes. Stepwise regression analyses on higher-SCIS and lower-SCIS students also suggested that both students' SCIS subscales significantly explain the variance of their SA, knowledge, and reasoning ability with large effect sizes.

Alias & Hafir (2009) investigated to determine the relationship between type of confidence inducing stimulus, academic self-confidence and cognitive performance among engineering students. The study samples consisted of two groups of engineering students from a Malaysian polytechnic. The type of confidence inducing stimulus (positive or negative) was the independent variable, cognitive performance was the dependent variable and ASC was the hypothesised mediating variable. The results indicate that the positive group has statistically significantly higher ASC level (3.08) compared to the negative group (2.67) and the positive group also demonstrates a statistically significantly higher cognitive performance compared to the negative group; 71% and 54% respectively. It is concluded that boosting the ASC of engineering students can enhance their cognitive performance.

Vealey & Campbell (2010) conducted this study to (a) determine what achievement goal orientations are present in adolescent figure skaters, (b) examine the relationship between the goal orientations conceptualized by Maehr and Nicholls (1980) and those conceptualized by Vealey (1986), and (c) investigate the influence of different goal orientations on the precompetitive self-confidence, precompetitive anxiety, and actual performance of adolescent skaters. Subjects included 106 youth figure skaters participating in regional competition. Skaters were found to have two achievement goal orientations which were termed extrinsic and task orientations. Some support was found for the relationship between the achievement orientations and the sport-confidence/competitive orientation constructs of Vealey. Also, a multivariate
relationship was supported between the sport-confidence/achievement orientation predictor constructs and the self-confidence, anxiety, and performance of adolescent figure skaters in sport competition.

2.5 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT-

*Bentley et al. (1980)* examined relationship between perceived sources of stress and academic achievement in order to determine if reactions to stress and methods of coping with stress were related to academic achievement. Freshman and sophomore junior college students completed Form III of the Floyd-Steyert Life Stress Inventory to measure three categories of stress self-report: sources of stress, emotional and physiological responses to stress, and methods chosen to cope with or adapt to stress. Several sources of stress (physical handicaps, chronic illness, in-laws, financial assistance, parents, living arrangements, irrelevant courses, instructors, academic advisement), responses to stress (dry throat, diarrhea, aggravation, back pains, fatigue), and methods of coping (running away, hobbies, drinking) appeared to affect academic achievement. Results suggest that perceived stress is related to academic achievement.

*Worland et al. (1984)* conducted this investigation in which intelligence, academic achievement, and classroom behavior of 158 children were assessed in a sample that is being followed longitudinally. The sample included children at high risk for mental disorder by virtue of having a parent with a psychiatric diagnosis of schizophrenia or affective disorder, children at moderate risk, and children at low risk. A series of path analyses indicated that in this sample (1) classroom behavior was more likely an affect than a cause of academic achievement, and (2) the influence of parental psychopathology on classroom behavior was mediated by a child's intelligence and academic achievement. We were unable to substantiate an unmediated causal link between parental psychopathology and children's academic achievement or classroom behavior.
*Cherian (1994)* investigated the relationship between family reading habits and the academic achievement of 1021 Xhosa-speaking children whose mean age was 15.3 yr. A questionnaire was administered to identify each pupil's family status. Analysis of variance indicated positive and statistically significant main effects for the two variables on a reading habits score.

*Bray (2001)* aimed to study whether academic achievement had more of an affect on a college student’s self-esteem if that student was an Honors student versus a general student. Data were collected from 64 college students and analyzed by a 2 X 2 mixed design factorial ANOVA. Significant results agree with previous research that academic achievement and self-esteem have a positive relationship.

*Tomas (2003)* aimed at investigating to what extent and which personality traits predict academic performance. For this he conducted two longitudinal studies of two British university samples. Academic performance was assessed throughout a three years period and via multiple criteria (e.g., exams and final-year project). In addition several indicators of academic behaviour, e.g., absenteeism, essay writing, tutors exam predictions, were also examined with regard to both academic performance and personality traits. In sample 1 (N=70), the Big Five personality factors (Costa and McCrae, 1992) particularly Neuroticism and Conscientiousness were found to predict overall final exam marks over and above several academic predictors, accounting for more than 10% of unique variance in overall exam marks. Results suggest that Neuroticism may impair academic performance, while Conscientiousness may lead to higher academic achievement. In sample 2 (N=75) the EPQ-R (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985) was used as the personality measure and results showed the three super factors were the most powerful predictor of academic performance, accounting for nearly 17% of unique variance in overall exam results. It is demonstrated that (like Neuroctisim) Psychoticism could limit academic success. The present results provide evidence supporting the inclusion of well-established personality measures in academic selection.
procedures, and run counter to the traditional view of ability measures as the exclusive psychometric correlate of academic performance.

**Parker et al. (2004)** examined relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement at high school level. Total 667 students attending a high school in Huntsville, Alabama were selected as sample. At the end of the academic year the data was matched with students’ academic records for the year. When Inventory variables were compared in groups who had achieved very different levels of academic success (highly successful students, moderately successful, and less successful based on grade-point-average for the year), academic success was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence.

**Rohde & Thompson (2005)** conducted this study with an aim to explain variation in academic achievement with general cognitive ability and specific cognitive abilities. Grade point average, Wide Range Achievement Test III scores, and SAT scores represented academic achievement. The specific cognitive abilities of interest were: working memory, processing speed, and spatial ability. General cognitive ability was measured with standardised scales. When controlling for working memory, processing speed, and spatial ability, in a sample of 71 young adults (29 males), measures of general cognitive ability continued to add to the prediction of academic achievement, but none of the specific cognitive abilities accounted for additional variance in academic achievement after controlling for general cognitive ability. However, processing speed and spatial ability continued to account for a significant amount of additional variance when predicting scores for the mathematical portion of the SAT while holding general cognitive ability constant.

**Kaplan et al (2005)** tested the hypothesis that educational expectations of junior high school students in interaction with school-related stress during early adolescence would adversely affect grades during high school. Multiple regression analyses of data from home interviews of 1034 students during junior high school and 3 years later during high school supported the
hypothesis that early adolescent school-related stress both independently and in
interaction with high academic expectations negatively affected academic
performance 3 years later. These results suggest that for students in high stress
school environments, an increase in academic expectations may serve to
increase their school-related stress and impede their academic performance.

**Malik & Balda (2006)** aimed at finding if any relationship exists between
psychological stress and academic achievement of high IQ adolescents. Subjects were high IQ adolescents having IQ 110 and above. Battery of Stress Scales was used to assess the amount of stress on these adolescents. Academic achievement was assessed on the basis of average of marks obtained in last three examinations. Correlation coefficients between stress scores and academic scores were computed. Academic achievement was found to be negatively and significantly correlated with all types of stress except existential stress.

**Tomas & Adrin. (2006)** prepared this paper to report the results of a two-year longitudinal study of the relationship between self-assessed intelligence (SAI) and academic performance (AP) in a sample of 184 British undergraduate students. Results showed significant correlations between SAI (both before and after taking an IQ test) and academic exam marks obtained two years later, even when IQ scores were partialled out. Several continuous assessment indicators (notably attendance, oral expression, and motivation) were also significantly correlated with SAI, even when IQ scores were controlled. A series of hierarchical regressions indicated that although exam grades were best predicted by IQ, SAI showed significant incremental validity in the prediction of AP, accounting for an additional 3% of exam, 9% of continuous assessment, and 2% of essay grades.

**Laidra et al. (2006)** studied general intelligence and personality traits from the Five-Factor model as predictors of academic achievement in a large sample of Estonian school children from elementary to secondary school. A total of 3618 students (1746 boys and 1872 girls) from all over Estonia attending Grades 2,
3, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 participated in this study. Intelligence, as measured by the Standard Progressive Matrices, was found to be the best predictor of students’ grade point average (GPA) in all grades. Among personality traits (measured by self-reports on the Estonian Big Five Questionnaire for Children in Grades 2 to 4 and by the NEO Five Factor Inventory in Grades 6 to 12), Openness, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness correlated positively and Neuroticism correlated negatively with GPA in almost every grade. When all measured variables were entered together into a regression model, intelligence was still the strongest predictor of GPA, being followed by Agreeableness in Grades 2 to 4 and Conscientiousness in Grades 6 to 12. Interactions between predictor variables and age accounted for only a small percentage of variance in GPA, suggesting that academic achievement relies basically on the same mechanisms through the school years.

Uwaifo (2008) examined the effects of family structure and parenthood on the academic performance of Nigerian university students. The sample for the study consisted of 240 students drawn from the six randomly selected faculties in Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma, Edo State. The adapted form of “Guidance and Counselling Achievement Grade Form” was used for data collection and the data collected were subjected to statistical analysis using the t-test statistical method. The three null hypotheses formulated were tested at .05 level of significance. The results showed that significant differences existed between the academic performance of students from single parent family and those from two-parent family structures. The results also indicated significant differences in academic performance of male and female students compared on two types of family structures.

Naderi et al. (2009) examined self-esteem, gender and academic achievement. Participants N= 153, 105 = male & 48= female) completed the Persian version of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) (Tevakkoli, 1995). The RSES as a questionnaire test included 10 items. Cumulative grade point average (CGPA) was used to select the participants. Data were analyzed by multinomial logistic
regression and independent sample t-test. The findings from this study indicate
that although self-esteem indicates a strong significant relationship on
academic achievement when gender is controlled (Chi-Square =14.173,
Sig=.007, P<0.01, there is no relationship between self esteem and academic
achievement (Sig=.074, P>0.05). In other words, a significant difference
between gender and self-esteem was observed (Sig=.001, P<0.01).

Kaur et al. (2009) made an attempt to explore academic achievement and home
environment as correlates of self-concept in a sample of 300 adolescents. The
results of the study revealed self-concept to be positively correlated with
academic achievement, though not significantly so. A significantly positive
relationship of home environment components of protectiveness, conformity,
reward, and nurturance with self-concept is revealed, there by meaning that use
of rewards and nurturance from parents should be done for positive self-
concept development among adolescents. However, the correlation of social
isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection components of home
environment is significantly negative with self-concept among adolescents
indicating that for positive self-concept development among adolescents, there
should be less or no use of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and
rejection.

Joshi & Srivastava (2009) has undertaken this study to investigate the self-
esteeem and academic achievement of urban and rural adolescents, and to
examine the gender differences in self-esteem and academic achievement. The
sample of this study consisted of 400 adolescents (200 urban and 200 rural)
from Varanasi District. The boys and girls (aged 12 to14) were equally
distributed among the urban and rural sample. Self-esteem was measured by
Self-esteem questionnaire and academic achievement was measured by
academic school records. The findings indicated that there were no significant
differences with regard to self-esteem of rural and urban adolescents. There
were significant differences with regard to academic achievement of rural and
urban adolescents. Urban adolescents scored higher in academic achievement
as compared to rural adolescents. Boys would score significant higher on self-esteem as compared to girls. Significant gender differences were found in academic achievement. Girls were significantly higher on academic achievement as compared to boys.

_Folorunso et al. (2010)_ in this paper examined family background factors that affect students' academic achievement in institutions of higher learning in Nigeria. With the use of structured questionnaire, data were collected from 110 first-degree final year students using random sampling and analysed through multiple linear regression techniques. It was found that student's academic performance was positively influenced by student's parental level of education, maternal income level, age, income of the student and number of hours allocated for reading on daily basis. Those students who spent more hours reading their books daily were found performing better than those who spent lesser hours. The hypothesis that parental educational level impacted positive effects on students' academic performance was confirmed valid for the country while effects of parental occupation and parental income were mixed. The major finding of the paper was that higher educational attainment and income status of parents were essential factors contributing to high academic record of students of tertiary institutions.

### 2.6 CONCLUSION OF REVIEWS:

A brief account of preceding studies leads to the conclusion that research in the field of Academic Achievement in general and in its relation to the cognitive, non-cognitive variables in particular, seems to be developing fast, touching many new areas. While this is a welcome growth, other potent areas of academic achievement deserve attention in view of the educational needs of individuals and society.

A critical analysis of the above mentioned studies give rise to certain substantive inquiries which need to be highlighted and addressed for the sake of further investigation. Most of the studies whether conducted in India or
abroad support multiple results leading to phenomena where the need of further research becomes imperative. In the area of Family climate, it has come to light that research studies found contrary and mixed results. The studies conducted by (Jain, 1965) hold that physical and topographical factors influence academic achievement. Parental permissiveness & mother’s love are positively related with performance (Ojha, 1973). Parental attitude, family background and basic skills influence achievement of bright students (kulshreshta, 1981). According to Uwaifo, 2008 significant differences existed between the academic performance of students from single parent family and those from two-parent family structures. Students who have parental and peer support are performing better (Fuligni, 1997). Home adjustment was more clearly related to academic achievement and social adjustment (Chopra, 1982). High parental encouragement, have positive influence on academic achievement (Agarwal, 1986). Higher parental occupational aspirations and SES significantly contributed to academic achievement (Devi & Mayuri, 2003; Ahuja & Goyal, 2006). Higher educational attainment and income status of parents were essential factors contributing to high academic record of students of tertiary institutions (Folorunso, 2010). Parents, who display belief in the child and provide frequent praise, encourage academic achievement (Darolia & Wydick, 2006). Parents’ anxiety leads to stress in students which results in low achievement (Shankar & Rachel, 2005). Single parent households receive less encouragement and less assistance with homework than children in two parent homes (Coleman, 1988). Single mother headed families had the lowest income and slightly less academically successful children (Demo & Acock, 1996). Maternal acceptance and interest promoted scholastic achievement (Zahir, 1988; Gonzales et al., 1996; Gonzales, 2006; Flouri, 2006).

As against this, studies conducted by Khanam, 2006 show opposite results, and hold that the achievement of the male and female students was independent of the influence of the type of family climate (favourable, unfavourable). Family status variables were not predictive of adolescent school performance (Gonzales, 2006).
Nearly all the studies reported above except that of Khanam, 2006 & Gonzales, 2006 holds that family climate is a strong determinant of academic achievement.

Also, in the area of Mental Health it has come to light that research studies found contrary and mixed results. The studies conducted by in relation to interpersonal relations and social acceptability effective classroom group was found superior as compared to ineffective group and the number of isolates and neglectees were smaller in effective group (Vyathit, 1973). Results of study conducted by Bentley et al., 1980, suggests that perceived stress is related to academic achievement. Kaplan et al., 2005 suggest that for students in high stress school environments, an increase in academic expectations may serve to increase their school-related stress and impede their academic performance.

Adjustment problems for girls existed in all the areas but the percentage of extreme cases were meagre. Family problems were more unsatisfactory for rural girls. Personal emotional problems were shown less by urban girls than by rural girls and the difference was significant (Veereshwar, 1979). High achievers had higher mean scores than low achievers for all the 16 mental health variables studied (Prasanna, 1984). There was negative relation between idealistic and altruistic needs and mental health (Bhattacharjee, 1985). Sound mental health was positively related to academic achievement, and both of them were positively related to parental status (Anand, 1989). College students experienced about five life events in one year and had to undergo a mild degree of distress. The males reported relatively greater degree of distress (Albuquerque et al. 1990). Indian adolescents showed more phobic tendency and fear than the British, who showed greater degree of neuroticism (Rayalu, 1990). The high creative-high intelligent groups of male and female students experience less stress and better mental health than the less creative-less intelligent male and female students (Asha, 2003). The authoritative parental style correlates positively with the mental health of both gifted and non-gifted adolescents, while the authoritarian parenting style impacts negatively on the
mental health of the gifted, but not of the nongifted adolescents (Dwairy, 2004). The positive influence of the father-child relationship on risk behaviours is stronger for male than for female adolescents (Tinkew et al., 2006).

As contradictory to this, studies conducted by Malik & Balda, 2006 revealed that Academic achievement was found to be negatively and significantly correlated with all types of stress except existential stress. Reddy & Nagarathanamma, 1993 found that socio-economic status did not contribute to student’s mental health status. Authoritative parenting was associated with a higher level of connectedness with the family and better mental health of adolescents (Dwairy et al., 2006). Secondary school students had significantly high rate of emotional problems, and emotionally disturbed students had high life event scores (Ayodhya, 2007).

Further, in the area of study habits it has come to light that research studies found contrary and of mixed results. Jain, 1967, Graham, 1985 & Kaur and Lekhi, 1995 hold that study habits significantly and positively correlated with academic achievement. According to Lakshminarayanan et al., 2006 achievers use higher level of study skills than the non-achievers. Study of Jha, 1970 revealed that there was a significant and positive relationship between achievement in science and study habits in case of boys and combined samples but not so in the case of girls. Tuli, 1981 found that study habits were positively related to achievement in mathematics. (Trivedi & Patel, 1973) concluded in their study that average performance of the students of English stream was better and significant in comparison with non English stream students because of their better study habits. Study of Saxena, 1981 revealed that first divisioners belonging to the rural culture had better patterns of study habits than those belonging to the urban culture i.e. rural culture promoted better study habits and achievement. Patel (1985) holds that rural & urban girls are superior than rural & urban boys in relation to their study habits. Teaching strategies could influence students' persistence and academic self-concept that, in turn, would promote academic achievement (Darlene, 1997). Females
obtained higher academic achievement scores than males. These differences could be explained by the fact that females showed a more socialized personality pattern and better study habits (Anton & Angel, 2004).

Contradictory to the studies mentioned above, study habits were not found to contribute significantly to the prediction of Academic Achievement (Mehdi, 1965). Study habits are found less predictor of the performance of women and men (Blumner & Norman, 1988). Improving study habits and attitudes should be addressed as a method of refining academic programmes, not of predicting academic achievement (Dougle & Odell, 1989). George, 1991 found that the same study habits that contributed to success in high school were unrelated to academic achievement during the first semester in college.

Again in the area of self confidence it has come to light that research studies found contrary and mixed results. Academic achievement and self-esteem have a positive relationship (Bray, 2001). Women are not lower in self-confidence than men in all achievement situations (Lenney & Orono, 1977). A significant correlation was found between group confidence and group achievement for the experimental group, but not for the control group (Konvalina, 1981). Self efficacy was the only motivation variable that predicted maths performance for both (Indo & Anglo Canadian) groups (Klassen, 2002). Alias & Hafir, 2009 concluded that boosting the Academic Self Confidence of engineering students can enhance their cognitive performance.

Contradictory to the above findings, no relationship was found between self esteem and academic achievement (Naderi et al., 2009). Male adolescent learners possessed significantly higher self-confidence than female adolescents (Verma, 1990)

The contradictory findings of various studies mentioned above inspired the investigator to conduct a research which can study the “Impact of Family Climate, Mental Health, Study Habits and Self Confidence on the Academic Achievement of Senior Secondary Students”.

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There is already a lack of research activity in the area of secondary education and especially at U.P Board level. Although, a lot of research has been conducted abroad on these variables, still all these variables in combination have not been studied extensively. Thus the present study departs from the previous studies already undertaken in the field of academic achievement.

Besides, getting an overall view of research at secondary stage of education, the review of related literature helped the investigator in understanding the important variables like Family Climate, Mental Health, Study Habits, Self Confidence and Academic Achievement. They helped in understanding the relationship between achievement and other variables like students’ motivations, aspirations, students’ engagement in other activities etc.

The review of studies highlighted the need for such a study in the light of inconclusive and conflicting findings. It also come to the notice of the researcher that the work so far done in these areas in India is inadequate and the area needs further exploration, especially, at Senior Secondary Stage. The review threw some light on method of data collection, research design, method of tool construction, standardization and use of statistical tool for analysing data, which helped the researcher in developing an appropriate methodology for the present investigation which will be discussed in the next chapter.