Chapter 2

Review of Literature
Educationalists, Psychologists, Psychiatrists and other Research Workers have been concerned with Academic Achievement at the school or College or University level. Most of the attempts have been made to understand the phenomenon of Academic Achievement and the factors (or) Conditions that contribute to (or) facilitate the Academic Achievement of students. In the following pages some of the research studies relevant to the Academic Achievement have been presented.

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Gendersena (1978) examined the relationship between Scholastic Achievement and Adjustment of 530 male students. Students were identified as over and underachievers in four areas, Mathematics, Biology, Commerce, and the Arts and they were administered an adjustment inventory with five categories (Home, Health, Social, Emotional and a Total Adjustment score). Underachievers showed a significantly poorer adjustment. The relationship between adjustment and achievement was stronger for the students in mathematics. In the arts group no significant differences were found.

Amar Kumar Singh and Meera Jaiswal (1981) in their research work reported that the scholastic advancement of the students is very decisively influenced by parental variables and certain lack of intelligence, within the "average" range, is compensated by positive and favourable parental influences.

The relationship between student’s intelligence and his Scholastic Achievement is a well acknowledged fact. However, the intelligence of the
student alone does not fully determine his Scholastic Achievement. The Scholastic Achievement is influenced by several other factors in addition to intelligence such as Motivation, Aspirations, Educational Facilities, Quality of the School and the Parental Variables such as parental interest in child's education, parental behavior, parental need for achievement and parental aspiration etc.

Studies in the area of Academic Achievement as related to adjustment have been made by many researchers, including Sundaram (1983). Rao (1963) studied University Student's academic performance and reported that the over achievers tended to differ significantly from normal achievers. Vighnoi (1974) found that high achievers were better adjusted than low achievers in five areas of adjustment as well as total adjustment scores.

Ashok Kalia, (1985) reported that creative behavior and its relationship with intelligence and Academic Achievement has been the focus of research in the contemporary educational psychology. The findings reported that creativity scores were found significantly related to intelligence. Further, positive and significant relationship was observed among creativity components and science achievement. Also, mathematics achievement was found positively and significantly related to originality only. Extraversion was found significantly related to creativity, while neuroticism showed no-significant correlation with composite creativity scores.
Astill (1986) using data from 411 Filipino students (aged 13-14) tested the hypothesis that application of pressure for better Academic Achievement from parents, teachers and peers mediate the relationship between school grades from one year to the next, no support was found for this predicted relationship after both linear and various curve linear regression models were examined.

Jagannadhan (1986) reported that socio-economic status factors, such as father’s income, father’s education and occupation has got much impact on the academic performance of the wards. It is also found that children hailing from families where they subscribe to newspapers and magazines, progress better in their educational attainment. Some of the studies conducted by Lundberg and Beazely (1948), Runkel (1958), Chopra (1966), Verma (1971), Abraham (1974), Saini (1977), Ganapathy and Singh (1981) have focused on the positive contribution of SES to Academic Achievement. However, studies by Rao (1965), Srivastava (1967), Bernstein (1968), Sudama (1973), Ahuliwalia and Shyam (1975), Sharma and Bhargava (1980) did find very little to negligible impact of SES on Academic Achievement.

A study on higher secondary student's interest and achievement in Tamil was conducted by Sundararajan (1990). A sample of 146 urban boys, 147 rural boys, 116 urban girls and 56 rural girls was taken. Cluster sampling technique was used. The language interest inventory constructed and refined by Sundararajan and Ananda (1989) was used in this study. The
findings reveal that there is no significant difference between the urban boys and girls, rural boys and girls in respect of their interest in Tamil. Higher secondary student's interest in Tamil and their achievement in Tamil are positively related.

Verma and Gupta (1990) made intensive study on the influence of home environment on children Scholastic Achievement. They concluded that congenial home environment for high Scholastic Achievement was difficult to define. However, occupation of the parent, number of siblings and type of punishment which are a part of the home environment did not have an effect on children's Scholastic Achievement.

Cherian (1990) studied on family size and Academic Achievement of children. The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between family size and Academic Achievement among children. The sample size was of 369 boys and 652 girls in the age range of 13 to 17 years. The findings indicate clearly that family size of children is related to their Academic Achievement. There was a decreasing trend in Academic Achievement as family size increased.

MacAulay (1990) reported that structure and organisation of schools', students' and teachers' characteristics are necessary conditions for maximizing pupils' cognitive, social and academic outcomes.

Studying the relationship between socio-economic background and Academic Achievement of students of class VI, VII, and VIII,
Khanna (1991) established a significant and positive relationship between socio-economic status and Academic Achievement.

Academic Achievement, emotional and social maturity of early adolescent boarder and non-boarder girls was explored by Hema Pandey, Kishorijha (1993). Purposive sampling technique was adopted for selecting the samples. A total sample of 100 girls in the age group of 14-16 years was selected, out of which an equal number of girls formed the experimental (Boarders) and control groups, (non-boarders). Background Information Schedules, Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS) by Singh and Bhargava (1990), Social Maturity Scale (SMS) by Nalini Rao (1988) and Data on Academic Achievement were collected from school records. It was found that more number of girls in the experimental groups were extremely stable which may be due to their stay in the boarding from an early age which leads to devising ways of coping with emotional problems. Difference between social maturity level of control and experimental group is not much. There is a positive relationship between staying in boarding and Academic Achievement.

Singh et al (1992) conducted a study on parent-child relationship in relation to adjustment and achievement. The study consists of both male and female students of class X studying in the schools of the city of Allahabad. A sample of 92 students, comprising both boys and girls of class X was selected by random selection method. Tools viz. Home
environment inventory, Test of general mental ability, Vyaktigat samasyay inventory, Achievement Score were selected. Analysis shows that parent-child relationship has no relation to adjustment and Academic Achievement of students at the secondary level. It may be noticeable that most of the students do not give real picture of their family relations and therefore the correlation between PCR and Academic Achievement, PCR and adjustment was not significant.

Ramana Sood (1992) reported that there is no significant relationship between adjustment and achievement.

Mishra (1992) exposed the effect of self concept on achievement motivation and Academic Achievement. The sample consisted of 80 subjects of both (high and low self concepts) group, each group having an equal number of boys and girls. The findings of the study have shown that girl students have better Academic Achievement and the students with higher self concept perform better in academic task; High self concept students have slightly better achievement motivation in comparison with low self concept students but the difference is not significant at 0.05 level. To sum up, the findings of this study indicates significant effect of self concept on the achievement motivation and the Academic Achievement of students. The most significant findings of this study is that self concept plays a vital role in the achievement of girl students, and girls with higher self concept seem to
perform better than boys. Hence, every effort should be made to raise the self concept of student in order to increase Academic Achievement.

Vijayalakshmi and Hemalatha Natesan (1992) have reported that there is significant positive relationship between Academic Achievement and achievement motivation. Similarly the higher level of aspiration, greater is the Academic Achievement and vice-versa and also socio-economic status influences Academic Achievement.

Sudha Katyal et al (1993) study revealed that economical status also has an effect on Academic Achievement of children. Another study which was done by Patterson, Kupersmidth and Vades 90 children on “income level, Gender, ethnicity and household composition as predictors of children’s school-based competence”. Results showed that income level and ethnicity were better over all predictors of Academic Achievement than were Gender. Household composition made a significant contribution. Over all, income level and Gender were strongest predictors of children competencies.

Roy and Sinha (1994) investigated the impact of headship style upon social, emotional climate, Academic Achievement and campus activities of the students. The sample comprised 200 male and female students drawn from five high schools under private and public managements and located in rural and urban areas. Interview schedule, objective test and observational techniques were employed for data collection. It was found that the social-
emotional climate was more important factor. Similarly students' Academic Achievement was better under nurturing headship and favourable social-emotional climate. It was also observed that frequency of mischievous activities of the students was higher under authoritarian headship and more studious activities under nurturing task headship.

Dubow et al (1994) focused on the relationship of the poverty status of the family and the effect of this on elementary school children's Academic Achievement and variables such as maternal age at time of birth, number of siblings, deficits in Academic Achievements were all considered. Results showed that poverty status in children did not significantly show a decrease in reading and math's scores.

Walker (1994) examined the impact of low family income on achievement test scores. In this longitudinal study in which children were followed from age 7 to 10 years. It was found that children from low income home continued to achieve lower scores. In addition this research found that these differences in achievement were related to early language experiences.

Mes et al (1994) measured the perceptions of causes of academic success and failure in 237, 4th grade students (123 boys, 114 girls) using the Sydney attribution scale (H.W. Marsh 1984). No Gender differences in the attribution of success to ability were seen. In general, high achievers attributed success to ability to a greater extent than did low
achievers. The low achievers attributed success to external factors than did high achievers.

Sulas (1995) carried out research on 'Parental influences on Academic Achievement of student's using a sample of 285 children. The results of the study revealed that children of counseled parents not only improved working during the period of consultation but also continued the improvement during the following years especially if they were in the lower levels of the secondary school. Most parents of under achievers were not deliberately neglectful or unconcerned but simply do not know how to relate differently to their child. The teacher's role as a consultant to such a family is to educate, guide and suggest specific programmes which the parent could follow.

Naidu (1995) studied the influence of caste, father's income, occupation and family size on Academic Achievement of V class students. He found that there is significant influence of caste, father's income and occupation, family size, on Academic Achievement. He also found that home environment and school environment are the most significant variables contributing to the achievement.

Basu, (1996) examined the effect of Gender role identity on Academic Achievement of 74 girls and 69 boys (aged 17-18) at higher secondary school levels in India. Subjects were divided into 4 groups (Masculine, Feminine, Androgynous, undifferentiated) and were asked to complete a culturally
modified version of Bern's Gender-role Inventory. Academic Achievement was assessed in terms of overall grade point average and language science and social science scores. Results indicate that in boys Gender role identity affected the achievement in Grade point average, science and social science. While in girls it affected the achievement in all 4 areas. Boys with more feminine and girls with undifferentiated traits achieved highest scores in GPA, Language, science and social science. The culture specific connotations of Gender role and achievement seemed to influence their interrelationships.

Judith et al (1996) studied the impact of families and schools on educational outcomes and also the effect of parental involvement on child's school success. The greater the parental involvements in the academic activities of their children the higher are the Academic Achievement scores. Bisnaire (1996) studied the factors associated with Academic Achievement in children following parental separation. Majority of the students selected in the study experienced a marked decrease in their academic performance following parental separation and Bisnaire also concluded that having both parents seemed to be the most protective factor which was associated with Academic Achievement of children.

Luster et al (1996) conducted a similar study on family and child influence on educational attainment. The sample includes 123 participants and their families. Results showed that characteristics of the participants at the time of school entry were predictive of the participants achievement.
and ultimately their educational attainment. Family processes were also related to the participants' achievement, attainment, and study habits. Educational attainment was related to income, occupational prestige, and employment history.

A similar study was taken up by Audinaraya (1996). He tried to find out whether family size influences academic achievement. He extended his study by trying to find whether education of father and annual family income also affected the achievements. Data for the study were collected from 130 students of 10th standards and 12th standard. The findings of study suggest that the direct effect of family size and the intermediate factors affect academic levels. Further, it is concluded that there is a direct effect of father's education on the children's academic achievement.

Suichu and William (1996) identified four dimensions of parental involvement (PI) in children's education (i.e., home discussion, school communication, home supervision, and school participation) and assessed the relationship of each dimension with parental background and academic achievement for 599 VIII grades and the findings provide little support for the conjecture that parents with low socio-economic status are less involved in their children's schools than are parents with higher socio-economic status. Although schools varied in parental involvement associated with volunteering and attendance at meetings of parent-teacher organizations, they did not vary substantially in levels of parental involvement associated with home.
supervision, discussion on school related activities or parent teacher communication. The discussion of school related activities at home had the strongest relationship with the Academic Achievement. Parent’s participation at school had a moderate effect on reading achievement but a negligible effect on Academic Achievement in maths.

Sujaritha, Magdalin and Karunanidhi (1997) studied the effect of life skills training on the assertive behavior, self-esteem and academic performance of higher secondary students, on the basis of skill deficits they identified in 300 adolescent students, and a suitable life skills training programme was formulated. It was implemented on the sample of 59 students (33 girls and 26 boys). Result indicated that the life skills training programme was effective in enhancing the self-esteem, academic performance, and assertive behavior of the students. No Gender-related differences were observed.

Verma (1997) explored the relationship of Gender and Academic Achievement with learning process of prospective teachers. The sample comprises 200 subjects of both the Genderes randomly drawn from two institutions of Himachal Pradesh. Their learning process was measured through Schmeck et al’s inventory of learning process and Geisler Brensein’s Holist and Serialist scales. The result reveals that Gender differences did not exist in learning processes of prospective teachers. But high and low achieving prospective teachers were found to differ significantly on deep
processing, elaborative processing and fact retention. High achieving prospective teachers had significantly higher mean scores on these learning processes than the low achieving prospective teachers.

Dubey and Mishra (1997) revealed the determinants of academic success of rural girls belonging to scheduled castes (S.C), Backward castes (B.C), Muslims (MS) and Upper Castes (UC). Correlation research has been conducted taking Academic Achievement as a criterion variable and school environment and self concept as measured variables and caste and religion as type-s predictor variables. The multiple Regression Analysis revealed an inconsistency in predictors of academic success across all the groups. In the Backward Caste girls, intelligence was significant predictor of Academic Achievement. In Upper Caste girls permissiveness, rejection, physical and social variables were the significant predictors of academic success. No significant trend has emerged regarding the caste and religion variables as predictors of Academic Achievement. This trend has been attributed to the least conducive rural school environment in our country and under developed self-concept of the rural children.

Radha (1997) studied a discriminate achievement of high school pupils using a sample of IX grade students from different types of schools in Kottayam district. She examined the best discriminating variables that can be selected according to their ability to discriminate between high and low academic achievers. The results of the study indicate the performance
difference between Boys and Girls is marginal and not statistically significant. There is a significant difference in Academic Achievement of pupils belonging to different religions in Kottayam districts. She also found that more English Medium students are high academic achievers than Malayalam Medium students. The lowest means is obtained by the Government Schools than Navodhaya. Socio-economic status appears to be the best predictor of Academic Achievement.

Glasgow (1997) distinguished among permissive, authoritarian and authoritative parenting styles and their association with academic achievement of children. The permissive styles emphasize warm and neglect. Whereas authoritarian style tends to emphasize on latter but not the former. The authoritative style is warm and responsive and the parents are also able to establish and enforce standards for their children's behavior. Authoritative parenting style results in good academic performance of children.

Joshi (1997) investigated the relationship between Academic Achievement and neuroticism/extroversion. The sample chosen for the study was 400 students of 8th class belonging to Urban/Rural areas. In order to assess these relationships, the product-moment correlation was used. The results revealed that neuroticism and extroversion were not significantly associated with the student's Academic Achievement. Results also indicate that though neuroticism/extroversion were not significantly related but they
have inverse relationship. Only among the rural male students the significant correlations have been found between extroversion and Academic Achievement.

Ballic (1998) stated that children do better in school when parents were involved. Teachers wanted more contact with families and families wanted information on student's programmes. Parent involvement with homework has an effect on achievement test scores. This increase in test scores is thought to be a result of an increased number of completed homework assignments.

Singh et al (1998) found that academic performance and achievement are significantly determined by classroom climate, teacher's effectiveness and their expectations from their students.

Probe's report (1991) indicates, private schools do appear to have an advantage over government schools, but not such as would warrant the overwhelmingly positive response from parents about education in private schools. (a) A school building with a separate classroom for each grade; (b) adequate number of trained teachers with minimum qualifications; (c) Proper student sitting places; (d) Block board in useable condition with chalk and in duster in each classroom; (e) All children having textbooks and writing material. So, private schools perform better than public sector schools.

Stephen (1999) stated that qualification of teachers and organisational climate in schools is associated with the achievement of students. A sample
of 345 teachers from 24 schools was selected and School Organisation climate questionnaire was administered. Results reveal that teacher's working with high qualification results in good organisational climate of schools which in turn lead to better performance of students.

Coover and Murphy(2000) examined the relation between self concept and Academic Achievement. It was revealed that the higher the self Concept the better the Academic Achievement.

Verma and Sinha (2000) examined the relationship between time orientation and Academic Achievement in a sample of 200 school students with an equal number of boys and girls. On the basis of the grades obtained in the last examination, subjects were divided into high and low achiever group. A modified version of the time orientation scale (Verma 1885) was used to assess time orientation, which included four dimensions-Perception of sufficiency of time, sequencing and placing of activities, punctuality and time devoted to self-related or other related activities. On three dimensions of time orientation i.e., perception of sufficiency of time, structuring of time punctuality (accuracy) male high achievers obtained a high mean while female high achievers had the highest mean on the dimension of self related other related activities. The general notion that high achievers have better time orientation was substantiated even though the two groups of high achievers and low achievers did not differ significantly on the total time
orientation. Overall Gender differences were not significant though females had a more practical and pragmatic approach to time orientation.

Mohanty (2000) explored the role of school type in psychological differentiation and Academic Achievement of tribal and non-tribal students of grade 4 and 5. The sample, comprised of 600 students, of these 200 tribals were from non-tribal schools, 200 non-tribal were from non-tribal schools, 100 tribals and 100 non-tribals were from mixed schools. Psychological differentiation was assessed by the Story Pictorial Embedded Figures Test (SPEFT) (Sinha 1984). Total marks obtained in the last annual examination were taken as an index of Academic Achievement. There was a significant effect of school type on Academic Achievement. Students in non-tribal school obtained the highest academic scores, and the Academic Achievement of students in tribal schools was better than that of those in mixed schools. The effect of school type on psychological differentiation was not significant. Psychological differentiation and Academic Achievement were positively and significantly correlated.

Carter (2000) found a positive relationship between the level of parental involvement and performance of students. The Researcher reported that parental involvement positively affected students scores, increased the amount of time they devoted to homework and raised their grades.

Padma (2000) studied the relationship between Academic Achievement and social intervention in more detail. To collect the data,
on school intervention from the heads of the institutions, a modified form of interview schedule developed by Mohanty (1988) was used. The schedule consisted of resource status of school, physical facilities, academic environment, provision of remedial teaching, parent teacher association, parent/Guardian meetings, observation of annual day, provision of mid-day meals, use of broadcasting programme, facilities for co-curricular activities in the school and staff council meetings etc. Main findings reveal that there is significant difference in Academic Achievement of students studying in different categories of schools. There is no significant relationship between Academic Achievement and school intervention in Government and Non-Government schools. There is marked relationship between Academic Achievement and school intervention in the schools managed by ST and SC development department.

Deshmukh (2000) studied anxiety, achievement motivation, intelligence, goal discrepancy and Academic Achievement of Jr. College students with high and low self concept. The high and low self concept groups of Jr. College students do not differ significantly on goal discrepancy and Academic Achievement.

Koteswara Rao et al (2001) examined the impact of Personality factors on reading achievement of high school students. High school achievement test and Personality questionnaire were administered to 1296 students and
results revealed that personality factors such as anxiety, intelligence, tense-minded had significant influence on the Academic Achievement of student.

Basanthia et al (2001) observed (320 students of 8th and 9th standard), Using the effect of home and school environment on Academic Achievement. Home environment and school environment had an overall impact on academic performance of students. High achievers both boys and girls enjoyed good school environment.

Kushal et al (2001) found the relationship between educational aspiration and Academic Achievement of students. For measuring educational aspiration Education Aspiration Scale (Sharma, 1980) was used. It was revealed that the higher the educational aspiration the greater will be the attitude towards education and higher the scores on Academic Achievement.

Maple (2001) conducted a three-year longitudinal study to ascertain the variables race, socio-economic factors and visual factors as predictors of Academic Achievement. The students from low socio-economic status scored lower marks than students from higher economic status. Visual factors were the most significant variables and an improvement in visual skills may positively have an impact on Academic Achievement.

Rita Goretti Lourdes (2002) reported that the influence of Psychological factors on the Academic Achievement of the Scheduled Caste (SC) College student’s of the Mannonmaniam Sundaranar University. Results
showed that the SC students were better and above all in their Academic Achievement. These students were also found to have freed themselves from psychological deprivations and they possessed good temperament, good adjustment, high self concept and high level of independence. One problem of the SC students, as the study indicates, is their high anxiety levels.

Sarithadevi and Mayuri (2003) in their work on the effects of family and school on the Academic Achievement of residential school children reported that girls were superior to boys and family factors like parental aspirations and socio-economic status significantly contributed to Academic Achievement. Among school factors classroom organization, method of teaching and also teacher-student interaction were found to be having effect on the Academic Achievement of the school children.

A study on “Parental involvement increases Academic Achievement” was conducted by Eirini Flouri (2004). A sample of 3,303 children were taken from the National Child Development Study. It focused on children, who were born between 3 and 9 March 1958 in England, Scotland and Wales. The study monitored the children at four different ages. Findings revealed that father involvement significantly predicted educational attainment by late adolescence. It was also found that neither emotional and behavioral problems nor academic motivation, affected the educational attainment.

Manorajan Panda (2005) stated in his study Importance of intelligence is conspicuously related with Academic Achievement of students. The
performance of the students is largely influenced by their intelligence. Hence the correlation between intelligence and Academic Achievement of students cannot be ignored. The study aimed to ascertain the relationship of intelligence with Academic achievement of students of class IX. The objective of the study is to discover the effect of intelligence on Academic Achievement in different categories of schools and assess interrelationship between Academic Achievement and intelligence of class IX students in different categories of schools. The study reveals that there is low relationship between intelligence and Academic Achievement in different categories of schools and further reveals that there is no glaring relationship between intelligence and Academic Achievement of students involved in this study.

Joseph and Porgio (2006) concluded that there is negative correlation between depression and Scholastic Achievement. Further it was also stated that self acceptance is positively related to scholastic achievement.

Brajesh Kumar Sharma, Subramaniam and Narayana (2006) reported Self-Concept and Achievement Motivation are very important attributes of understanding and predicting behavior. Self-Concept and achievement motivation affect achievement of an individual. Therefore, self-concept, achievement motivation and achievement are correlated to one another. This study presents a Gender comparison of relationship between self-concept, achievement motivation and achievement in mathematics. Boys and girls have shown significant positive relationship between basic geometrical elements and angles.
Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a new area of research in the Indian context. The growing interest in the construct of EI that can be attributed to the recent theories taking broader conceptualizations of intelligence. EI can be included as a member of an emerging group of potential ‘hot’ intelligences that include social intelligence, practical intelligence, personal intelligence, and emotional creativity. Each of these forms a coherent sphere that partly overlaps with EI, but separate human abilities in different ways. However, the work of Goleman (1995; 1998), Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Salovey and Mayer (1990) focused on Emotional Intelligence. The present study tries to empirically examine the relevance of the concept of Emotional Intelligence and its impact on Academic Achievement.

**Emotional Intelligence**

In the field of psychology the roots of EI theory goes back at least to the beginnings of the intelligence testing movement. E.L. Thorndike (1920), Professor of Educational Psychology at Columbia University Teachers College, was one of the first to identify the aspect of EI and he called it social intelligence; In 1920 he included it in the broad spectrum of capacities that individuals process, their “Varying amounts of different intelligences”. ‘Social intelligence’, wrote Thorndike is “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls- to act wisely in human relations”. It is an ability that “shows itself abundantly in the nursery, on the playground, in barracks and factories and sales rooms, but it eludes the formal standardized
conditions of the testing laboratory”. Thorndike did once propose a means of evaluating social intelligence in the laboratory – a sample process of matching pictures of emotive faces with descriptions of emotions. He also maintained that because social intelligence manifests in social interactions, “Genuine situations with real persons” should be necessary to accurately measure it.

Spearman (1927) talked about a common ability inherent in all the tests of intelligence and a specific factor in each test that is completely independent of other factors. Emotional Intelligence (EI) is one of the recent developments in the area of intelligence.

In 1985, Dr. Reuven Bar-On invented the term “EQ” (Emotional Quotient) to describe his approach to evaluating general intelligence. He explained Emotional Intelligence saying that it reflects our ability to deal successfully with other people and with our feelings. He developed the Bar-on EQ-I after 17 years of research, and this inventory is the first scientifically developed and validated measure of Emotional Intelligence that reflects one’s ability to deal with daily environmental challenges and helps predict one’s success in life, including professional and personal pursuits. (Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), was published by Multi-Health Systems in 1996 as the first test of its kind. The test covers five areas: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood (Mirsky, 1997).
Emotional Intelligence is the ability or tendency to perceive, understand regulate and harness emotions adaptively in self and in others (Schutte, et al., 1998).

For Psychologists, the 1990s were best known as the "Decade of the Brain". But there were moments during the past ten years when the popular press seemed ready to declare it the "Decade of the Heart", not so much for a popular interest in cardiovascular Psychology, but rather as a reflection on the growing interest in Emotions and Emotional Intelligence, in particular. During the second half of the 1990's, Emotional Intelligence and EQ (we much prefer the former term to the latter) were featured as the cover story in the national magazines (Gibbs, 1995; Goleman, 1995a), received extensive coverage in the international press (e.g., Alcade, 1996; Miketta, Gottschiling, Wagner-Roos, & Gibbs, 1995; Thomas, 1995), and were named the most useful new words or phrases for 1995 by the American Dialect Society (1995, 1999; Brodie, 1996).

The term Emotional Intelligence appeared in a series of academic articles authorised by John D. Mayer and Peter Salovey (1990, 1993,1995). Their first article presented the first model of Emotional Intelligence. However, the term "Emotional Intelligence" entered the mainstream only with Daniel Goleman in 1995. He argues in his book that IQ contributes only about 20% to success in life, and other forces contribute the rest. We can infer that Emotional Intelligence is a new concept indeed, but the existing data imply
that it can be as powerful as IQ and sometimes even more. And, at least, unlike what is claimed about IQ, we can teach and improve in children some crucial emotional competencies. Emotionally intelligent people are more likely to succeed in everything they undertake.

Mayer and Geher (1996) studied Emotional Intelligence and identification of emotions. They found that participants who agreed more highly with the group consensus and with the target also scored higher than the other participants on scales of empathy and self-reported SAT scores and low on emotional defensiveness.

Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) developed by Bar-On (1997) has 15 sub-scales: emotional self-awareness, assertiveness; self-regard, self-actualization, independence, empathy, interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, problem solving, reality testing, flexibility, stress tolerance, impulse control, happiness, and optimism. There was convergent validity with Beck Depression Inventory. But there was no significant correlation between the mental ability intelligence embedded in the 16 PF and EQ-I in terms of the whole scale or sub-components. However, there was a negligible correlation between EQ-I and the WAIS-R (Bar-On, 1997). Newsome, Day and Catano (2000) report that EI as measured by EQ-I was not significantly correlated with academic achievement, and concluded that EQ-I was largely a measure of neuroticism. Dawda and Hart (2000) claimed that EQ-I showed meaningful convergent validity in connection with normal personality,
depression, somatic symptomatology, intensity of affective experience and alexithymia. The need for further validation of Bar-On’s (1997) EQ-I was expressed by many researchers (Bar-On, Brown, Kirkaldy & Thome, 2000; Dawda & Hart, 2000).

Cooper (1997) also developed the EQ-I Map to measure EI and it consisted of four aspects. The first, Current Environment includes life pressures and life satisfactions. The second, Emotional Literacy measures emotional self-awareness of others. The third, EQ Competencies, measures intentionality, creativity, resilience, interpersonal connections, and constructive discontent. The fourth, EQ Values and Attitudes, are outlook, compassion, intuition, trust radius, personal power, and integrated self. Then, the final EQ outcomes measure general health, quality of life, relationship quotient and optimal performance. Only the second aspect has something to do with emotion or intelligence. But, it is again not an ability test. The remaining aspects are beyond the constructs of emotion.

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (1997) constructed Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). It consists of 12 ability tests that measure abilities in terms of

1) identification comprising faces, sounds, images and stories, 2) using emotions comprising synesthesia, feeling, biases, 3) understanding comprising blends, progressions, transitions, and relativity, and 4) regulation
of others and of self. Only three factors, that is, perception, understanding and management, were suggested by exploratory factor analysis.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) further elaborated that Emotional Intelligence was 'the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth'. Emotional Intelligence, according to them, involves areas such as identifying emotions - the ability to recognize how you and those around you are feeling, using emotions - the ability to generate emotion, and then reason with this emotion - understanding emotions - the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional 'chains', how emotions transit from one stage to another, and managing emotions - the ability which allows you to manage emotions in yourself and in others.

Pool (1997) the senior editor of Educational Leadership, stated that emotional well-being is a predictor of success in academic achievement and job success among others.

Richardson and Evens (1997) explored some method for teaching social and Emotional competence to help students to connect to each other to develop interpersonal, intrapersonal and Emotional Intelligence. These social and emotional are essential for personal accomplishment.
According to Ediger (1997) Emotion, Feelings and Values are vital for a person's well-being and achievement. Quality Emotions and Feelings help students give their best potential in the classroom.

Pasi (1997) pointed out that at La Salle Academy, a private school in Providence, Rhode Island, students are given Emotional Intelligence. This was done to achieve success in life.

Finnegan (1998) stated that the schools should help students learn the abilities underlying Emotional Intelligence in order to exclusive their achievement.

Emotional Intelligence is the ability or tendency to perceive, understand, regulate and harness emotions adaptively in self and in others (Schutte et al.; 1998). Researchers have conceptualized Emotional Intelligence both as an ability and as a trait. It includes the ability to understand and regulate others as well as one's own emotions. People who can have control over their life can manage their feelings, will read and deal effectively with other people's feelings, while the people who cannot have control over their emotional life fight inner battles that sabotage their ability to focus on work and think clearly (Goleman, 1996). The various characteristics make up Emotional Intelligence such as self-motivational ability to control impulses, regulate moods and keep distress away from sampling the ability to think.
According to Goleman (1998) Emotional Intelligence ability involves some degree of skill in the affective domain, along with skill in whatever cognitive elements that are involved in each ability. This stands in sharp contrast to purely cognitive aspects of intelligence, which, to a large degree, a computer can be programmed to execute about as well as a person can. Peter Salovey and John Mayer first proposed their theory of Emotional Intelligence in 1990. Over the intervening decade, theorists have generated several distinctive EI models, including the elaborations by Salovey and Mayer on their own theory. The theory as formulated by Salovey and Mayer (1990; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000) framed EI within a model of intelligence. Reuven Bar-on (1998) has placed EI in the context of personality theory; specifically a model formulates EI in terms of a theory of performance (Goleman, 1998). An EI-based theory of performance has direct applicability to the domain of work and organizational effectiveness, particularly in predicting excellence in jobs of all kinds, from sales to leadership.

Bharadwaj (1998) explored the prospects of emotional competence associated with laborers and non-laborers of both genders on a sample of 600 early adolescents by employing a two-group design. The twelve independent studies brought to the fore that in comparison to female non-laborers, female laborers possess greater emotional competence. Male laborers have greater expression and control of emotions than male non-
laborers ability to function with emotions and encouragement of positive emotions has been found to be greater in both males and female laborers as compared with non-laborers there is a great need to reorient our policies with regard to child labour instead of it pseudo eradication endeavors.

The emotions, feelings, and values are vital for a person's well being and achievement in life, according to Ediger (1997). He also states that science teachers should stress on the affective domain that cannot be separated from the cognitive domain. Quality emotions and feelings help students to give their best potential in the classroom. The students who are aversive and think negatively cannot concentrate for a long time and have more difficulty in reaching their potential than others.

Pradhan et al (1999) examined the concept of EQ competencies and leadership effectiveness in middle level managers in India. Their study reported a positive relationship between the two.

Petrides and Adrian Furnham (2000) studied Gender Differences in measured and self-estimated trait of Emotional Intelligence. Results revealed that females scored higher than males on the social skills factor of measured trait of Emotional Intelligence. However, the 15 facets of self-estimated Emotional Intelligence were combined into a single reliable scale and the participant's measured trait Emotional Intelligence scores were held constant, it was demonstrated that males believed they had higher Emotional Intelligence that females. Most of the correlations between measured and self-
estimated scores were significant and positive, thereby indicating that people have some insight into their Emotional Intelligence. Correlations between measured and self-estimated scores were generally higher for males than females and a regression analysis indicated that Gender was a significant predictor of self-esteemed Emotional Intelligence.

Abraham, Rebecca (2000) studied the role of job control as a moderator of emotional dissonance and Emotional Intelligence outcome relationship. In this study job control and self-efficacy were theorized to jointly affect emotional dissonance. Individuals with high self-efficacy were found to be more satisfied under conditions of little job control. The impact of job control on Emotional Intelligence was also studied. Emotional Intelligence and job control explained significant amounts of the variance in both the job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Sharma (2000) discussed the concept and characteristics of Emotional Intelligence. Emotional Intelligence is described as a type of social intelligence involving recognition and management of Emotions and feelings in self and others for motivating self and dealing effectively with others.

Cooper & Murphy (2000) conducted a study that examined the relationship between self-identity and academic persistence and achievement in a counter. The study revealed that the higher the self-concept and self-schema, the more positive the self-descriptions, the better the academic achievement. The study also showed that self-identity improves through
social interaction and communication with others, which would enhance achievement.

An investigation of the relationship between Emotional intelligence and Academic Achievement of Eleventh Graders was undertaken by Nada AbiSamra (2000). It was emphasized that there is significant positive relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement.

Ciarrochi, Chan, and Bajgar (2001) examined the concept of Emotional Intelligence in adolescents. It was found that Emotional Intelligence in adolescents was higher for females than males and was positively associated with the skill of identifying emotional expressions, amount of social support, extent of satisfaction with social support and mood management behavior.

Mayer, Perkins, Caruso and Salovey (2001) conducted a study on Emotional Intelligence and giftedness. The result showed that those with higher Emotional Intelligence were better able to identify their own and others' emotions in situations and use that information to guide their actions and resist peer pressure than others.

Karen van der Zee (2002) examines the relationship of self and other ratings of Emotional Intelligence with academic intelligence and personality, as well as the incremental validity of Emotional Intelligence beyond academic intelligence and personality in predicting academic and social success. A sample of 116 students filled in measures for emotional and academic
intelligence, the Big Five, and indicators of social and academic success. Moreover, other ratings were obtained from four different raters on Emotional Intelligence and social success. Factor analysis revealed three Emotional Intelligence dimensions that were labeled as Empathy, Autonomy and Emotional Control. Little evidence was found for a relationship between emotional and academic intelligence. Academic intelligence was low and inconsistently related to Emotional Intelligence, revealing both negative and positive interrelations. Strong relationships were found for the Emotional Intelligence dimensions with the Big Five, particularly with Extraversion and Emotional Stability. Interestingly, the Emotional Intelligence dimensions were able to predict both academic and social success above traditional indicators of academic intelligence and personality.

Slaski and Cartwright (2002) studied the health, performance and Emotional Intelligence of retail managers. They found that managers who scored higher in Emotional Intelligence suffered less subjective stress, experienced better health and well being and demonstrated better management performance.

Roberts (2002) probed the impact of Emotional Intelligence on 'Burnout' and conflict resolution styles. The results show that managers with high E.Q were low on burnout dimension implying thereby that individuals with high E.Q can cope better with stress in life. The finding further revealed that managers adopt with high E.Q conflict resolution styles to deal with
stress. It was also noted that there was no Gender differences on Emotional Intelligence.

It is often proved that those who fail in a job or who change jobs are high on IQ and expertise but low an Emotional Intelligence. The best part of emotional competence is that it can be acquired and improved in the course of life experiences. The competency level and nature may vary in various job situations and work culture. For example a doctor must be most empathetic, and a manager/leader need to be more influential. The components of what really constitutes Emotional Intelligence are still used for research. Similarly the assessment of Emotional Intelligence is approached either through objective measures as a 'skill or as an ability' or though questionnaires as a 'personality Trait.” (Nutan Kumar Thingujam, 2002).

Singh (2003) conducted a study on 347 professional from 18 different professions which reveals that different professions do require different E.Q levels.

Saroj (2003) examined the Emotional Intelligence among college students and its relationship to their general well being. The sample consisted of 120 college students. Emotional Intelligence scale by Schutte and P.F.1 measure of general well being by Verma and Verma were employed on postgraduate students. Two extreme groups were drawn on the basis of scores on Emotional Intelligence measure. High and low scores on Emotional Intelligence (male and female separately) were compared regarding their
general well being. The male and female students, who scored higher on Emotional Intelligence scored significantly higher for general well being.

Anjum Sibia and Girishwar Misra (2004) examined the notion of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in the Indian socio-cultural context. An attempt has been made to discern the indigenous notion of EI based on the perspectives of people (parents, teachers and children) in the contemporary Indian Society, where people exhibit a relational and context sensitive construal self. Results indicate that Indian view of EI is embedded in its highly valued social concerns, virtues, cultural traditions and practices. These provide a frame for emotional learning and are therefore basic to the notion of EI. Responding to open ended Questions, the participants (N=1047) described the emotional qualities desired by them in children and those required to be successful in life. The indigenous view of EI takes into cognizance such factors as social sensitivity, pro-social values, action tendencies and effective states. Results indicate that the Indian view of EI is context sensitive and focuses on the role of family and society in shaping one's emotions.

Bhanumurthy Sharma and Neeraja Sharma (2004) highlighted the discourse on emotion in the context of culture and human development. By adopting a qualitative mode of inquiring, it explores the notion of emotional competence among a sample of adolescents (N=70). Open ended interviews as well as written exercises accompanied by group discussions were the main strategies for making sense of the perspective of the children. The study
enabled to discern the varied understanding and use of emotion in children’s every day life their developing awareness of emotion as means of describing ones self demonstrates the interplay of thought and feeling.

Shailendra Singh (2004) study initiated for developing and standardize a measure of Emotional Intelligence (EI). While writing the items the study has followed Goleman’s (1998) model of EI Competencies. Five dimensions: Self awareness, Self Regulation, Motivation, Empathy and Social Skills have been incorporated. Data were collected from managers (N=263) from various functional areas and represents a heterogeneous set of organization. The scale was constructed and tested to examine the hypothesized positive relationships with three variables viz., namely organizational commitment, emotional expression and quality of life. The five dimension of EI were positively correlated with organizational commitment, emotional expression and quality of life suggesting concurrent validity. Results are encouraging and providing enough indication towards reliability and concurrent validity of the scales.

Arati (2004) studied the relationship between dimensions of family environment and emotional competence of adolescents. A sample of 120 adolescents (60 boys and 60 girls) in the age group of 13-16 years studying in VII, IX and X classes was selected from different high schools of Hyderabad and Secunderabad. Family environment scale developed by Bhatia and Chadda and Emotional competence scale developed by Bharadwaj and Sharma were used to find our family environment and emotional competence
of adolescents. Pearson product moment correlation method was applied to find out the relationship between family environment and emotional competence of the adolescents. The results revealed that family environment is significantly related to emotional competence of adolescents.

Rabindra Kumar (2005) probed the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and personal effectiveness. It was hypothesized that Emotional Intelligence enhances personal effectiveness. The study was conducted on 50 post graduates (25 male and 25 female) from various departments of Delhi University. The sample was administered Emotional Intelligence scale (Cooper and Sawat) and Personal Effectiveness scale (Udai Pareek, 1989). The study concluded that there exists a positive relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Personal effectiveness.

Katyal (2005) studied the Gender differences in Emotional Intelligence among adolescents of Chandigarh. 150 students of Xth class from different government schools from Chandigarh were selected randomly. The data were collected through standardized Emotional Intelligence tests. The findings revealed that girls were found to have greater Emotional Intelligence than that of boys.

It is a well accepted fact that the quality of the nation depends upon the quality of the education imparted to its citizens which in turn depends upon the Quality of its teachers this includes all the personality dimensions of a teacher i.e. span of knowledge, teaching skills and teacher behavior.
comprising his/her Emotional Intelligence. However, a teacher with innumerable degrees and high profile personality cannot necessarily be termed as a good teacher. The primary quality that makes a whole lot of difference is that classroom interaction and teaching is predominately controlled by his emotional behavior, which in turn depends upon the degree of Emotional Intelligence possessed by him. In this way what makes a teacher successful in his classroom behavior and makes him popular among the students in nothing but his Emotional Intelligence or Emotional Competency Skills. (Indira Dhell, Shubhra Mangal, 2005).

Amritha and Kadhirvan (2006) carried out research on “The influence on personality on the Emotional intelligence of Teachers”. The results revealed that Gender, age and qualification will influence the Emotional Intelligence of the teachers. It was also noted that Thinking, Judging dimension of personality have significance positive impact on Emotional Intelligence.

Ajay Kumar Bhimrao Patil (2006) emphasized that there is no significance difference between Emotional Intelligence of Male and Female student teachers. It was also stated that Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement are significantly related.
Locus of Control can be defined as an extent to which people perceive their lives as internally controllable by their own efforts and actions or as externally controlled by chance or outside forces. There are studies identifying significant relationship between locus of control and academic achievement. In the following pages we attempt to review some of the relevant studies in this area.

Locus of Control

Rotter (1966) stressed the importance of locus of control as a dimension of personality which was stable. In tune to Rotter thinking, Rotter developed the I-E scale to distinguish people who are internals (I) and people who are externals (E). Since then this is widely accepted and the idea is pervasively used in psychological literature. The internals perceive themselves as responsible for their actions and the externals perceive that some external forces like nature, God, and others responsible for their actions. The internals feel that they are all powerful, whereas the externals feel that they are pawns in the hands of some unforeseen forces.

In all cultures people from different walks of life often attribute their success or failure to inter and external factors. It is also common in the educational settings teachers, administrators and students attributing their effectiveness/success/ and achievement to both internal and external factors. Here, the researcher is interested in understanding the success of academic achievement of the students in terms of their internal and external locus of
control factors. It means the locus of control internality and externality of the individuals. A low score indicates internality and a high score indicates externality. The researcher intended to probe into the academic success of the students in terms of their internal or external locus of control on I-E Locus of Control test.

The problem of the relationship between such a generalized expectancy such as locus of control and adjustment is indeed complicated. Adjustment, after all, is only a value concept, and any relationship must depend upon the definition of adjustment. It seems clear that self-report locus of control scales correlate with self-report scales of anxiety, adjustment, or scales involving self-description of symptoms. However, there are several studies (Efian, 1963; Lipp, Kolstoe, James, & Randall, 1968; Phares, 1968) that suggest that it is typical of internals to repress failures and unpleasant experiences.

The relationship between locus of control and achievement are limited although many people seem to expect a one-to-one relationship between them (Phares, E.J, 1974). In children, internals show greater school achievement than do externals (Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, Mcpartland, Mood, Weinfeld & York, 1966 and Crandall, Katkovsky and Peterson, 1962; Mc Ghee & Crandell, 1968; e.g).

Strickland (1973) commented 'research on information processing and task performance clearly suggests that internals may be more achievement-
striving than externals. They seem to be able to take advantage of situations to improve task performance and engage in goal directed behavior.

Phares (1976), in a discussion of Locus of control and academic achievement, concluded that internals tended to show superior performance in comparison with their external counterparts. Nunn & Nunn (1993) have confirmed these findings.

Using 24 externals and 24 internals in an assembly task, Ruble (1976) found that individuals who were internals were able to perform better when they were provided an opportunity to participate in planning, but externals performed better after providing a plan.

Kendall, Philip and Deardorff (1976) in their study on "Proxemic, locus of control, Anxiety, and type of movement in emotionally disturbed and normal boys", investigated the relationship of locus of control and anxiety to interpersonal space. 20 emotionally disturbed and 20 normal boys were randomly required to approach an object person and to let the object person approach them until they felt uncomfortable. The result indicated neither anxiety nor locus of control explained the significant normal-emotionally disturbed differences in space requirements.

Majumder, Mac Donald and Greever (1977) studied 90 practising counselors and observed that internally oriented subjects had higher job morale, greater job morale, greater job satisfaction and more positive attitudes toward supervisors.
Bar-Tal and Bar-Zohar (1977) have stated that 31 of 36 studies reviewed indicated a significant relationship between locus of control and academic achievement with internals having higher achievement than externals.

Marshall Arlin and Theodore Whitley. (1978) in their study "Perceptions of Self-Managed Learning Opportunities and Academic Locus of Control: A Casual Interpretation" 566 students in Grades 5, 6 and 7 as the subjects. They were assessed at the beginning and the end of a school year on their perception of opportunities for self-management of their instruction and perception of academic locus of control. Data were analyzed by a cross-lagged panel correlation technique. Perceptions of opportunity for self-management of instruction were casually priority (p<.05) to perceptions of academic locus of control. It is suggested that if students perceive the classroom as a place where they can in part manage their own instruction, then they are likely to accept responsibility for their academic success and especially for their academic failures.

Researchers exploring the relationship of Locus of Control to personality characteristics have related that internal subjects have greater will power, assertiveness and self-esteem, are better in concept forming ability are more trusting, more imaginative, more achievement oriented, and have greater super-ego strength. External subjects, on the other hand, tend to be low achievers, more frustrated, more anxious, psychologically morbid and

Umesh Sharma and Chaudhary (1980) work on Locus of Control and Job Satisfaction Among Engineers reported that Eighty four engineers in a large industry manufacturing heavy electrical equipment, filled Locus of Control Scale and Cornell Jon Descriptive Index. Results show that externality was significantly and negatively correlated with respect to (a) pay, (b) opportunities for promotion, (c) supervision and (d) the work itself, but not with satisfaction with respect to co-workers. Findings indicate that for the engineers greater the belief in their abilities to influence the environment higher is the reported job satisfaction.

Edward Tesiny, Monroe Lefkowitz, and Neal Gordon (1980) in their study on “Child Depression, Locus of Control, and School Achievement” depicted Childhood depression and locus of control were studied as they relate together and to measures of school achievement and intellectual functioning. Subjects were 452 male and 492 female fourth and fifth-grade public elementary school children. These children, whose age range was 8-12 years, were representative of three levels of socioeconomic status. Measures of achievement included standardized reading and math scores and teacher ratings of work/study habits and school achievement. Figures-drawing IQ was
used as an index of intellectual functioning. Locus of control and depression were positively related. All measures of achievement were negatively related to both external locus of control and depression. The negative relationship also held for IQ, although it was not as strong. The joint association of depression and locus of control with achievement and IQ was evidenced by a significant correlation between canonical varieties representing these two sets of variables.

Knoop (1981) administered locus of control scale to 1,812 teachers (20-65 years) and found internal subjects perceived their job as enriched and expressed more positive attitudes (like job satisfaction, involvement, job motivation and participation in decision making, etc.) than externals. And there was strong correlation between job and personal outcomes for externals than for internals.

Barling (1982) study on Self-Determined Performance Standards and Locus of Control Beliefs in Children’s Academic Performance explained, to assess the role of self-determined performance standards (stringent versus lenient) and locus of control (LOC) beliefs (self versus external) on children’s self-regulation of academic behavior, measures of arithmetic and verbal persistence and accuracy were obtained from 32 children of average IQ (mean age = 9.84 years). An orthogonal 2X2 (performance standards X LOC) MANOVA revealed a significant interaction. Subsequent univariate ANOVAs showed that this result pertained only to the two verbal measures:
when children had an internal LOC, it was immaterial whether they self-determined stringent or lenient performance standards. However, stringent standards were more important for children with an external orientation. These results point to the possibility that the effects of self-regulation are task specific, and indicate the importance of viewing effective academic performance as a function of both motivation and skill.

Internality is related to higher academic achievement (Findley & Cooper, 1983), possibly because children with internal locus-of-control work harder for better grades, while externals tend to make excuses for poor performance. While Ferrari and Parker’s (1992) research showed little or no correlation between college students’ academic performance and self efficiency, they did show, however, that individuals who had confidence in their ability to master social situations seem to perform well in college.

Maqsud (1983) work on Relationships of locus of control to self-Esteem, Academic Achievement, and Prediction of Performance Among Nigerian Secondary School Pupils exposed, the study was: (a) to investigate the effects of socio-economic background, locus of control, intelligence, and self-esteem on academic achievement of Nigerian secondary school pupils; (b) and to examine the relationships of locus of control to socio-economic background, intelligence, self-esteem, academic achievement and prediction of academic performance. Eighty secondary school boys completed Socio-
economic Background Questionnaire, the Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices, the Brookover Scale of Self-Concept of Academic Ability, and provided estimates of prediction of their own academic performance. The analyses of data revealed that: (a) all the four independent variables (socio-economic background, locus of control, intelligence, self-esteem) had significant positive effects on academic achievement; (b) internality significantly and positively correlated with intelligence, self-esteem and academic achievement; (c) the internals were significantly more accurate predictors of their own academic performance than the externals.

Abella and Heslin (1984) study among 71 male undergraduates reported that subjects had valued health and internal locus of control were engaged in preventive health behavior and subjects who were externals and had poor health were less engaged in preventive health behavior than internals.

Eileen Cooley and Stephen Nowicki (1984) study on Locus of Control and Assertiveness in Male and Female College Students found the relationship between locus of control and assertiveness which was investigated in college undergraduates. Fifty-five students were administered both the Adult Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Control Scale and the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule. There was a significant correlation between internality and assertiveness for males but not for females.
There are several studies in terms of the power and influence of locus of control in the job related fields. Singh (1978); Dailey (1980); Sharma and Chandany (1980), Knoop (1981), Miller et al. (1982); Brown Well (1982); Rao and Murthy (1984); Venkatapathy (1984); Faroqi (1984); Abella and Heslin (1984); Martin and Knight (1985); Singh, and Shukla (1986); Shezwai and Palsane (1986); Rani and Reddy (1989); Reddy (1989).

The above studies have amply demonstrated the important role that the internal and the external locus of control play in the human decision making process. While some studies have ruled out cultural impact on locus of control some others have proved that the effect of culture on locus of control was attributed to the oriental samples. On the whole, it is undoubtedly emphasized that those who are internally controlled do well in their jobs and also hold a different perspectives of life and events compared with the externally controlled.

Venkatapathy (1985) study on I.E Locus of Control, achievement motivation and Anxiety among semester and non-semester students, reported that semester students have more internal locus of control expectancies, more achievement motivation and more anxiety (at moderate level) than the non-semester course students.

Verma and Sharma (1988) work on academic achievement as a function of locus of control among adolescents, reported that high locus of control and low locus of control groups do not differ significantly on
academic achievement is contradictory to the previous researches which have revealed that the subjects' belonging to low locus of control group exhibit significantly better academic achievement than the subjects belonging to high locus of control group (Messer, 1972; Gordon, 1977; Deborah, 1980; Rao & Murthy, 1984).

Sharma (1985) found that high and low achievers do not differ significantly on the locus of control dimension of personality.

Nisha Dhawan & Anup Singh (1985) work on Task expectancy as a Mediator of Locus of Control and Persistence aimed to test the hypothesis that task characteristics which arouse easy and difficult expectancies will differentially influence the persistence scores of internals and externals. Forty, 18 year old male college students were divided into internals and externals and placed into situations of easy and difficult task expectancies. They were then administered a simple persistence test (Marble-King test), and time spent on the task was recorded. Result indicated that internals were more persistent than externals but this difference did not hold under difficult task expectancies. Implications of the findings are discussed in terms of the relevance of situational cognitions as mediating the effects of personality and achievement behavior.

Studies relating to locus of control to academic performance have reported significant correlations (Chadha, 1989; Cone & Owens, 1991; Maqsnd & Rouhani, 1991; Nunn, Montgomery & Nunn 1986; Ogden &
The general trend in the literature suggested an advantage of holding internal, rather than external locus of control beliefs with respect to academic performance. Internal locus of control had significant correlations with academic adjustment scores (Mooney, Sherman and Loprestro, 1991).

Sarah Manickaraj and Karunanidhi (1992) aimed to find out the difference between the Orthopaedically Handicapped and Normals in terms of Locus of control, Assertiveness and Vocational Maturity. It also aimed to assess the Vocational preferences of these two groups. This study was ex-post-facto in nature and certain variables such as Age, Gender, Educational Qualification, Intelligence and Socio-economic status were controlled. Purposive sampling procedure was adopted to draw a sample of 90 subjects of which 60 belonged to orthopaedically handicapped and 30 were Normals. The data was collected by using Rotter's (1966) Internal-External Locus of control scale, Rathus (1973) Assertive schedule, Manju Mehta's (1987), vocational Maturity scale and Cahtterji's (1960) Non-language preference record. The results showed that the orthopaedically Handicapped and normals did not differ in overall Vocational Maturity, except in Vocational Aspiration level. No difference was found in other variables studied. However, the Severity of the disability found to have influenced Vocational Maturity and Vocational reference.
Achamamba and Gopi Kumar (1993) in their research work on "Locus of control and organizational role stress among college teachers", found the relationship of locus of control to organizational role stress was examined among professional and non-professional, male and female, and younger and older college teachers. The differences among these groups were also analyzed on LoC and organizational role stress. The size of the sample was 120 teachers selected randomly from local colleges. It was found that locus of control (integrality) was negatively related to the role stress. A significant difference was found between low and high internal groups on role stress. Regarding age, younger teacher were more internally oriented than older teachers. However, the other groups in the sample did not differ significantly on organizational role stress and locus of control.

Samiullah and Sivasankara Reddy (1993) in their work on Gender-Roles and Locus of Control of Men and Women represented the interaction of locus of control and Gender-roles of men and women were considered. Most of the subjects expressed preference to the Gender appropriate traits. There is an overlap in the Gender-roles as a considerable percentage of subjects preferred androgynous traits. Also, there is a considerable amount of indecisiveness among the subjects in the selection of Gender-appropriate traits. The dominant feature is to stick to the Gender-appropriate behavior and also to display undifferentiated and androgynous behavior. Regarding the locus of control, the Gender-appropriate behavior preferred males as well as
females were more externally controlled than the masculine trait preferred females and the feminine trait preferred males.

Sai Geetha and Karunanidhi (1995) study on Religious attitude, locus of control and achievement motivation of students belonging to different religions, attempted to find out the relationship between religious attitude, locus of control and achievement motivation of students belonging to various relationship such as Hinduism, Islam and Christianity. The sample consisted of 180 undergraduate students (90 boys and 90 girls), out of whom 60 were selected from the three religious groups/religious attitude locus of control and achievement motivation was measured using tools such as Rajamanickam's religious attitude scale (1989), Rotter's internal external locus of control scale (1966), and Mukherjee's sentence completion test (1965).

Statistical analysis of the collected data involved the use of Coefficient of correlation, 't'-ratio and ANOVA. The results showed a difference among the religious groups in terms of religious attitude and achievement motivation, and a Gender difference in terms of religious attitude.

Sohi (1996) study on A study of locus of control, self concept and rigidity in relation to creativity among tenth graders, investigated the possible relationship of composite creativity and its dimensions with the locus of control of male and female subjects. The subjects consist of 150 male and 150 female rural tenth grade students of the secondary school going children of Patiala district of Punjab. Statistical treatment of data involving mean,
median, standard deviation, t-score, coefficients of multiple correlation were computed and yielded the conclusion that the lower of the locus of control, the higher the creativity and conversely, the higher the locus of control the lower the creativity and thus proved that a significant negative relationship of composite creativity and its dimensions with the locus of control of male and female subjects.

Lavanya and Karunanidhi (1997) in their study on Influence of Self-Esteem and Locus of Control on Marital Adjustment among Couples attempted to investigate the influence of self-esteem and locus of control on marital adjustment among couples. Purposive sampling technique was adopted. The sample consisted of two hundred couples from the city of Chennai. The Multi-Dimensional Self-esteem Inventory, Rotter's Internal External Locus of Control, and Marital Adjustment Questionnaire were used to measure the variable. Statistical analysis of the data involved 't' test and multiple regression and the results indicated that there were significant differences on the Body Appearance dimension of self-esteem for husbands. Further, the locus of control and self-esteem are not predictors of marital adjustment in this study.

Malik, and Sabharwal (1999) probed on Locus of control and determinant of organizational role stress, the study was carried stress and Loc. Sample consisted of 200 senior subordinates of nationalized banks. The two tests, namely, organizational role stress and Rotter's IE scale were
administered to each subject. Results were analyzed by computing correlation between locus of control and ORS. Results were further analyzed by extreme group analysis. Results indicate that externally controlled subjects perceived more stress in three areas, viz., Role expectation conflict, role overload and role ambiguity.

Andrew Abu Bale and Michael Oganu (2002) study on Locus of control and Academic Performance of secondary school students in Edo State of Nigeria, reported that more students than expected are internally oriented than are externally oriented. The fact that most relationships were not formed between students I.E. scores and their scores in mathematics and English language calls for concern. This is equally contrary to expectations. No instruction strategy can be evolved from the result of this study on the basis of attribution of success and failure. The research finding also that there was no disparity with regards to male and female ability to cope and be successful in educational set up.

Sinha, (2003) in a study of underprivileged university students, found that these students had a tendency to ascribe success to external factors like God, teacher's kindness etc. and ascribing failures to oneself.

Gupta and Sinha, (2003) study on “Students’ Academic self-Regulation: effects of goal orientation and locus of control”, reported that the effects of learning and performance goal orientation and locus of control were examined on self-regulation among 300 students pursuing their first year
undergraduate courses, who had a sound understanding of English language. Their age ranged from 16 to 19 years. Subjects were selected from different institutions of Agra city, India. A2 (locus of control internal Vs External) x 2 (Learning goal orientation: High Vs Low) x 2 (Performance orientation: High Vs Low) design was used. Multidimensional Academic locus of control scale, learning and performance goal orientation Questionnaire and state Meta cognitive Inventory was administered. The results indicated that the locus of control, learning as well as performance goal orientation had a significant main effect on self-regulation. There was no significant interaction effect of these variables on self-regulation. Further it was noted that there is insignificant main effect of locus of control on academic achievement and a significant effort of learning as well as performance goal orientation.

Sophia Gir, Prabha Jain and Radhika Lodha (2006) study focused on the comparative analysis of social maturity and locus of control of high achievers and low achievers. The research was carried out in Udaipur, Rajasthan. A total number of 160 children, (80 boys and 80 girls) between the age ranges of 9 to 12 years comprised the sample. From chronological age category 9 to 10 years and 11 to 12 years, 40 boys and 40 girls each were selected wherein 20 were high achievers and 20 were low achievers. Social maturity was assessed with the help of social Maturity Inventory (1990). Locus of control was assessed with the help of Social Maturity Inventory (1990). Locus of control was assessed with the help of Rotter’s I-E scale.
and Crandall's IAR questionnaire (1965). The results were computed by percentage, mean scores and Z-test. Analysis of data revealed that samples belonged to moderate level of social maturity, showed internal orientation and more one to take credit for their deeds rather than blame. Significant difference was found between the social maturity and locus of control of 9 to 10 years old boys and girls.

Ross Marvin and Taylor Marice (2006) attempted to find out the relationships among locus of control academic program, and Gender of grade secondary school students were investigated. Two hundred sixty seven school students from advanced, general and basic level programme were administered the modified forms of the Nowicki -- Strickland Locus of control scale for children and the intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire. As hypothesized, students in the advanced level programme were more internally controlled than either general or basic level students were more internally responsible for their intellectual - academic failures than general level student.

The above studies have amply demonstrated that the internal and the external locus of control play an important role in academic achievement of pupils in the educational settings. Rightly, in the present study an attempt was made to study the impact of Locus of Control on Academic Achievement of high school students.
Academi"cians, Educationists, Educational Psychologists and Researchers are of the opinion that students have talent but they need guidance and direction about how to study. The learner's task of efficient learning process is not only depending on teaching alone but it is depending on learning procedures, study skills and the best methods of study. Individual's Study Habits play a pivotal role in determining the pupil's Academic Achievement. A student's progress or failure in the classroom depends upon several factors like interest in the subject, study facilities, Study Habits and so on. Study Habits and Study Skills facilitate better Academic Achievement on the part of students. Pietrasinski (1961) refers to Study Habits and Study Skills as two different things Study Skills are first formed and are then transformed by practice into Study Habits.

Study Skills

Study Skills are defined as those techniques such as summarizing, note taking, outlining or locating the material which learners employ to assist themselves in the efficient learning of the material at hand.

Study Skills is often defined as the ability to perform free of error, the complex task involving the activities of decoding and encoding linguistic and other symbols, with specific reference to the activities — Listening, speaking, reading, writing, classroom activities that predominated in the life of students at school, college or university (Shinde, 1988).
Gall et al (1990) define Study Skills as the "effective use of appropriate techniques for completing a learning task". In other words, a student who has good Study Skill can successfully carry out a learning task (example participating in class, etc) by using appropriate techniques (example taking notes that paraphrase what teacher has said) in an effective manner. A student with poor Study Skills may carry out same learning task using inappropriate techniques.

Sinde (1988) classified Study Skills into three categories 1) Skills for gathering information 2) Skills for storing information and 3) skills for retrieving information. Few studies reported that motivation, interest among students along with good Study Skills yield good Academic Achievement on the part of the students. Therefore, there is need for research to uncover the relationship between Academic Achievement and Study Skills at school level.

The most commonly taught Study Skill technique is Robinson's (1940) SQ3R method. It is useful from Junior high school age to adults. SQ3R consists of the following steps.

**Survey:** Look over the headlines of the chapter and discuss the points. It is just like watch the summary of the chapter.

**Question:** Each heading can be converted into question form.

**Read:** Read and search the answers for the posed questions.

**Recite:** At the end of every section or para recite the answer of the above posed questions.
Review: After successful completion of the chapter, read the notes and recite the major points under each heading or topic.

Reports of evaluation of 22 Study Skills were reviewed by Entwisle (1960), and concluded as follows:

1. Study Skill courses are usually followed by academic improvement, and

2. Any gains noted were not necessarily related to course content.

That student would evidence academic gain from such courses regardless of course content which makes one wonder whether some factor other than content is responsible for the improvement.

There is some difference of opinion as to the relative value of Study Habits in the prediction of academic success. Prosser (1928) found that students with superior ability studied least. Factors connected with poor work were poor preparation, poor use of time, indifference and headstrong disregard of obligations. Freeman (1929) found low correlation between poor Study Habits and grades. But Wineland (1930) found that the successful students often studied alone, avoided distractions, did not work when tired, kept fairly complete notes and read rapidly. White (1932) reported that students with low intelligence scores and good scholarship were found to be more interested in their work, compared to underachievers who were more distracted by outside interests and more often handicapped by mental disabilities of the anxiety type. Reinhard (1933) found that poor achievement
was related to worry about matters not connected with school work, slow reading, inadequate preparation and lack of proper place or for study. Alexander and Woodruff (1940) held that academic success was not related to factors like study time, extracurricular activity, social activity, vocational plan etc.

In Wrenn's (1933) first Study Habits inventory, the items were based on the responses of the high achieving and the low achieving pupils, who were matched with regard to their intelligence. Cuff (1937) used a questionnaire to survey the Study Habits of grades IV to XII students. Half of the total students (samples) were defective in their achievement due to lack of Study Habits. Wrenn and Humber (1941) showed that the Study Habits are associated with Scholastic Achievement.


Valdina (1953) cited that the Study Habits are important correlates of emotional aspects of persons. From her point, the emotional feelings might prevent students from studying. Carter (1953) and Strange (1957) found that the personality structure is related to the Study Habits. Krishnan (1956), observed that the personality factor A (emotionally stable, social type), factor
B (adjusted schizoid Vs maladjusted schizoid) and factor C (sociability) have a significant positive correlation with Study Habits of college students.

Michael et al (1957) reported that the Study Habits inventory was not sufficiently valid for predicting scholastic success.

Jamuar (1958) pointed out that there was significant correlation between Study Habits and achievement. In a subsequent study, he found no relation between intelligence and Study Habits. Jamuar (1974) found that study habit is related to Scholastic Achievement, independent of intelligence.

Research at the Sri Venkateswara University and elsewhere over the years have shown that the factor of study attitude and reading habits of students to be a relevant variable related to Scholastic Achievement (Krishnan, 1960; Harinath 1970; Sai Prasadand Ramamurti 1973; Geethnath and Ramamurti (1978). Thus the reading habits and attitudes do seem to play their role in determining achievement. However, the extent to which this factor plays its role at the high school and Junior College level has not been clearly probed, though the factor is expected to influence achievement significantly at that level also.

William (1970) described work-study on SQ3R reading skills, classroom skills, and examination skills and writing skills. SQ3R method consists of five-steps; survey, question, read, recite and review. The SQ3R method of reading is an excellent example of a systematic approach to reading
as it is based on experimental findings in studies of learning, perception, retention, motivating, etc. The students are suggested the following methods.

1. Select what he is expected to know
2. Comprehend the ideas rapidly
3. Fix the ideas in memory and to review efficiently for examinations.

The SQ3R method is more efficient and less time consuming than reading the lesson in a haphazard way.

Girija, Bhadra and Ameerjan (1975) made a study on the relationship between Study Habits and Academic Achievement of first and final year students of the undergraduates of University of Agricultural Sciences, Bangalore. The two groups differed significantly with regard to their Study Skills and achievement. Benerjee and Papneja Geetha (1975) found that there is a positive relationship between Study Habits of college students and their Academic Achievement. Lynn (1976) showed that the lessons on note taking and Study Skills are directly related to the achievement. Patel (1976) showed that there is positive correlation between Study Habits and achievements in school subjects. Best (1977) found that there a positive relationship between Study Habits and Academic Achievement. Asha Bhatnagar (1980) observed 600 X class students of Delhi and found a positive relationship between involvement in studies and Academic Achievement. Tuli (1980) observed that Study Habits are correlates of achievement in Mathematics.
Reddy (1972) observed that there was no significant difference between rural and urban pupils in their Study Habits. Nirmalakanta (1979) found significant difference between the urban and rural boys in respect to their Study Habits, but found no such difference between urban and rural girls. Rajeswari (1980) observed that there was a significant difference between urban and rural intermediate students in their Study Habits.

Ram Mohan Babu (1988) reported that there was significant difference between the Study Habits of residential school pupils and non-residential school pupils studying VIII class.

Patel (1981) found that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the Study Habits of intellectually backward pupils from urban and rural areas. Munirathnam (1984) showed that there was a significant difference between the urban and rural IX class pupils. On the study habits Rai and Kumari (1986) found that the rural area B.Ed. students had exhibited better Study Habits than those of urban area B.Ed. students.

Tiwari (1982) Shanmugasundaram (1983) indicated a positive relationship between the Study Habits and Academic Achievement. Singh (1984) found that the Study Habits and Academic Achievement are significantly related. Gadzella Bernadelta and James David (1984) in a study on achievement of rural girls found that poor Study Habits were highly associated with under achievement. Deb and Grewa (1990) after their investigation on B.Sc. Final year Home Science students revealed that, the
components of Study Habits are positively correlated with the academic performance of students. Students with good Study Habits do better academically. Therefore, parents and teachers should help to promote good Study Habits in their children right from the beginning. Gary Lee (1990) indicated that there were significant positive relationship between Study Habits and Academic Achievement. Ramaswamy (1990) observed that there is significant difference between high and low achievers in Study Habits among boys and girls.

Singh (1987) conducted a study on 300 ST students from class X of High and senior secondary schools. Results showed that Gender and self-concept interact significantly in relation to Study Habits of students. Stock (1989) conducted a study on 141 undergraduates and found that study times in the high performance expectation conditions would exceed those in the minimum performance expectation conditions.

Verma, Sheiksh and Sangita (1996) found that the level of academic motivation and test anxiety had a significant impact on the Study Habits of adolescent students. Al-Hilawani, Yasser and Aziz (1997) investigated the influence of GPA, academic majors and academic levels on the Study Skills at United Arab Emirates University and found that students majoring in special education and educational psychology obtained a significantly high score than did students in the other majors.
Patnaik and Basavayya (1991) reported that there was no significant relationship between Study Habits and achievement in mathematics. Ekins Judith (1992) investigated on study approaches of distance learning students, studying in a second language. He reported that command of English is related to Study Skill and the development of study skills, increased student achievement. Stella and Purushottaman (1993) showed that there is no significant difference between the Study Habits of underachieving boys and girls. Tse Ka and Watkins (1994) found that the Study Habits are significantly correlated with the school grades of first year school students in Hong Kong. Aruna (1994) concluded that Scholastic Achievement of the IX class pupils had significant influence on their Study Habits. Rawat Leela (1995) showed that there was no significant difference between the Study Habits of boys and girls and their Academic Achievement. Fruntera, Lucy and Rosalind (1995) found that the students study behavior of students was significantly related to their success.

Manchala (1996) showed that urban, students had better Study Habits than rural students. Sampath and Selvarajagnanaguru (1997) found that there was no significant difference between higher secondary Commerce students studying in urban and rural schools in respect to their Study Habits.

Sudha Katyal et al (1993) investigated on topic 'What makes students excel'. The sample size comprised of hundred students in which fifty are high and fifty are low academic achievers from IXth class. Result
showed a significant difference between the mean scores of intelligence, Study Habits and attitudes of high and low academic achieves. The higher the intelligence, Study Habits and attitudes, higher was the Academic Achievement.

Chopra (1996) identified that the Study Habits were positively related to Academic Achievement. Verma (1996) showed that students possessing good Study Habits scored high on achievement than students possessing poor Study Habits in the English, Hindi and Social studies. Narayan Koteswara (1997) showed that the Study Habits total score significantly influenced on reading achievement of high school students. Gordan (1998) found that the students having good Study Habits possessed good achievement. Venden Hurk (1998) showed that the Study Habits of medical students were correlated with their Academic Achievement.

Vasantha et al (1999) conducted a study on Study Habits of Tenth Standard Students. She used a sample of 100 boys and 100 girls in the age group of 13-15 years from two urban schools and two rural schools from Andhra Pradesh. To trace the Study Habits of students the study habit inventory scale developed by Patel (1970) was used. There is a significant positive relationship between the Study Habits scores and Academic Achievement among boys and girl especially in rural areas.

Akhani (1999) compared the "Academic Achievement, Study Habits and feelings of loneliness among 100 children, of employed and unemployed
mothers". Half of the sample comprised children (aged 14-16 years, 25 boys and 25 girls) of employed mothers and other half (25 boys and 25 girls) of unemployed mothers. Subjects were administered the test of loneliness (Singhal and Khubakar) and the study habit inventory (Mukhopadhyay and Sansonwan). Academic Achievement was assessed in terms of percentage of marks obtained in the last qualifying examination. Children of employed mothers experienced more loneliness. As far as 9 areas of Study Habits were concerned, mothers employment affect only the area of comprehension but not the other areas. Academic Achievement of children was not affected by mother’s employment.

Vasuki et al (2000) examined the causes for Low Academic Achievement at the secondary level. Using under students who study habits were related to low achievement.

Nalini Devi (2001) has carried out a study on Study Habits of early adolescents. The study was undertaken in suburban and Sindhi Matriculation Higher Secondary School in Coimbatore city. The sample consisted of 100 higher secondary students (boys and girls) in the age group of 16 to 17. The data were collected with the use of an interview schedule. The aspects analysed were the study schedule and leisure time activity, reading habits, note taking, revision, provisions made at home for studies, satisfaction regarding the guidance received at home and
school, hindrances faced in securing high Academic Achievement and educational and professional aspirations.

Virginia (2001) in a hand out for parents on importance of Study Skills stated that for children to learn good study skills, teachers and parents must work together. It is most important to help children build good habits, to develop a system that works for an individual child, and to use the system effectively and consistently. Preferred learning styles vary from child to child. Children need to discover how they learn and then work out a study system that fits best. Parents of elementary aged children usually help their children more than parents of adolescents. However, adolescents also need parental support and encouragement throughout high school.

The University of Wisconsin came out with master piece work in the name of “Keys to Study Skills (2002) which include skills such as note taking, study skills, management skills, learning Vs studying responsibility, communicating subject matter, test taking and preparation, reading subject matter, math-specific skills, science-specific skills they were designed to help students develop Study Skills that will increase their performance in college. These materials can be disseminated to instructors of departments, guidance counselors and students. Further the university had also developed a student hand out on Study Skills.

Nagaraju (2004) in his study on “Study Habits of Secondary School Students” reported that Academic Achievement has showed significant
influence on all the Study habit areas and Study Habits score. The Academic Achievement of the pupils has significant influence on their Study Habits.

Bhuvaneswara Lakshmi (2004) examined the Study Habits of boys and girls in private and government school students, and students of residential and non-residential schools. The variables studied were Gender, management of the school, and type of the school. She suggested that the management of the residential schools need to devise suitable techniques to improve the Study Habits of their students. The teachers should guide the students in developing good Study Habits. The parents should provide the necessary facilities to implement their plan of action in their studies. The students should also develop right Study Habits to improve their Academic Achievement.

Panchalingappa (2004) conducted a study on self-confidence, Anxiety, Study Habits and Mathematics achievement of underachievers at secondary school level. The sample consisted of 135 students of whom 94 were identified as normal achievers and 41 students as underachievers. The data were collected using an appropriate tool and analysed by Y test. The results indicated that there is significant difference between normal and under achievers in respect of their self-confidence, general anxiety, test anxiety, Study Habits and Mathematics achievement. It also reveals that lack of self confidence, general anxiety, test anxiety and poor Study Habits are all possible causal factors associated with under achievement in
mathematics. The foregoing brief review of literature has shown that intelligence, Study Skills and Study Habits were related to achievement.

Lakshminarayanan et al (2006) compared the Study Skills of Achievers and non-achievement using a sample a 50 Achievement and 50 non-achievements it was indicated that achievement use higher level on Study Skills than the non-achievement.

The above studies on Study Habits and Academic Achievement have shown that they are both relevant variables, which influence the quality and quantity of work output. Academic Achievement can be improved by creating good Study Habits, which students can stimulate towards study.
AN APPRAISAL

The foregoing review of related investigation show that a very large number of studies have been made in the field of Academic Achievement of the school pupils. It would be seen that most studies concerned themselves with the problem of finding or identifying the factors related to poor Academic Achievement. As every government, all the world over is investing its precious resources heavily in the cause of education, the question of Academic Achievement assumes vital importance. Efforts to identify the causative or related factors precipitating poor Academic Achievement, scholastic failure (stagnation) and scholastic wastage (dropouts) have engaged the attention of psychologist for over five to six decades now. A very large number of studies have thus been carried out in this field of school learning.

Review of research reveals that not only cognitive factors but also non-cognitive factors such as Emotional Intelligence, Locus of Control and study skills have significant impact on the Academic Achievement of high school going students hailing both from rural and urban localities. But these studies are limited.
However, studies concerning impact of non-cognitive factors on Academic Achievement of students, especially at the school level are limited as mentioned above. A few studies made are heartening, suggesting thereby that it could be worthwhile and fruitful if Academic Achievement and its relation with Emotional Intelligence, Locus of control and study skills is worthwhile further probe.

Therefore, rightly in the present study an attempt to study the impact of Emotional Intelligence, Locus of Control and study Skills on Academic Achievement of high School students are aimed.