REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to review the available researches conducted in the past which is related to the topic being studied in the present research. Review of literature is very important aspect of the research as it provides deep understanding of the variables being studied and also helps in properly planning and executing the research. It not only helps in studying the past researches but also helps in ascertaining that what is being currently going on in the context being studied, it helps in knowing the loopholes in the previous researches, which in turn helps in formulating the problem, objectives and hypotheses.

Objective of this study is to understand the predictive influence of home and school environment on aggression and self-concept of advantaged and disadvantaged school children. In following sections the researcher has reviewed all the above variables in frame of reference they are used in the research. All possible efforts are made by the researcher to review the literature which is directly or indirectly related to the present research.

Saavedra (1980) measured adolescent’s perception of their parents along the dimensions of warmth and control and their perception of self. Result showed a significant correlation between perceived parental warmth and reported self-esteem and self-adequacy. The joint effects of perceived parental warmth and perceived parental control turned out to be better predictor of self-adequacy than either perceived parental warmth or perceived parental control alone.

Crase et al. (1981) studied children’s self-concept in relation to perception of parent’s behavior. Results indicated that girls rated (a) both parents higher on inconsistent discipline and (b) father higher on lax discipline than did boys. Self-concept scores of both boys and girls were found to be significantly correlated with
mother dimensions i.e. acceptance of individuation (+), hostile control (-), inconsistent discipline (-) and with father dimensions i.e. control by guilt (-) and inconsistent discipline (-). Girls’ self-concept scores were significantly correlated with mother’s intrusiveness (-). Results for inconsistent discipline indicate possible influence of parental controlling techniques on children’s self-concept.

Litovsky (1983) investigated the relationship between aspects of child rearing and adolescent self-concept. The results showed positive correlation between acceptance/rejection dimension and various sub-scores of self-esteem. Correlation between self-esteem and psychological autonomy/psychological control was found to be negative. Correlation was stronger for perceptions of mothers as opposed to father’s child rearing practices. High self-esteem adolescents perceived their parents more accepting, using less psychological control, and not being overly firm in making and enforcing rules and regulating the adolescent’s behavior. Results support the contention that optimal self-concept development takes place in an atmosphere of acceptance that allows the adolescent autonomy and opportunity to learn competencies.

Gelles and Harrop (1991) reported that children who experience frequent verbal aggression (such as swearing and insulting) from parents exhibited higher rates of physical aggression, delinquency and inter-personal problems than other children. This relationship was found to be robust since it applied to pre-school, elementary and high school aged children, both boys and girls and to children who were both physically punished as well as those who were not. Children who experienced both verbal aggression and physical punishment exhibited highest rate of verbal aggression, delinquency and interpersonal problems.
Flynn (1993) studied the relationship between the preschool children’s self-concept and the parent’s use of authority. Strong relationship was found between boy’s self-concept and the mother’s use of control. Mothers who used more control had boys with higher self-concept. More control was advocated by parents of girls than parents of boys. Both mother’s and father’s self-concept and the self-concept of their daughters and sons were strongly related.

Killeen (1993) carried out the study to find about parental influence on children’s self-concept and self-esteem within economically disadvantaged families. The results supported a model in which parents (a) influence self-concept by providing children with information on how well they perform in specific domains and which domains are important, and (b) influence self-esteem by their affective behavior. Children and parents clearly agreed on the children’s competence in school, social acceptance, and behavior, but not in athletics or physical appearance. Family members did not consistently agree in their importance ratings. Global self-worth was predicted by children’s perception of parental support and perceived competence in domains that were important to the parents.

Chaudhary et al. (1995) examined the role of home environment (authoritarian vs. democratic) on different dimensions of adjustment. Findings indicated that children form a democratic home environment exhibited superior adjustment in all areas (home, health, social, emotional and composite) compared to their counterparts reared in an authoritarian home environment.

Shek (1997) studied family environment, adolescent psychological well-being, school adjustment and problem behavior. Measures of the family environment include perceived paternal and maternal parenting styles, family functioning and conflict with father and mother. Results indicate that adolescent’s perception of parenting style,
family functioning and parent-adolescent conflict were significantly related to scores on measures of psychological well-being (general psychiatric morbidity, life satisfaction, purpose in life, hopelessness and self-esteem), school adjustment (perceived academic performance and school conduct) and problem behavior. The finding suggested that family factors play an important role in influencing psychosocial adjustment, particularly the positive mental health of Chinese adolescent.

McClum and Merrell (1998) studied the relationship between adolescent’s perception of their parent’s responsiveness and demandingness, adolescent’s locus of control orientation and adolescent’s self-concept rating. The findings indicated that an authoritative style of parenting may contribute to the development of self-adequacy by being associated with internal locus of control orientation and stronger self-concept, while permissive and authoritarian styles of parenting may be associated with negative patterns of social emotional development.

Harvey and Byrd (1998) studied how level of self-esteem of adolescents was related to their perception of their family environment and their perception level of attachment with their parents. Early adolescent’s self-esteem was related to their pattern of attachment with their caregivers, whereas late adolescent’s level of self-esteem was more related to specific aspects of their family environment. This pattern was consistent with earlier positions that early adolescents were engaged in information seeking, while late adolescents were attempting to integrate information to form an adult identity.

Solomon and Serres (1999) distinguished the effect of verbal aggression from those of physical aggression and investigated whether parental verbal violence has negative effects on children’s self-esteem and academic achievement. Results showed
that parental verbal aggression alone as separate and distinct from physical punishment contributes to lowering children’s self-esteem and school achievement.

Sally (2000) investigated the perception of different parenting attitudes of adolescents and its impact on self-concept and self-complexity of development. The result proved that authoritative and indulgent families, providing nurture and warmth contribute positively to the development of different self-components. Authoritarian family system, however proved to show a less enhancing background for the self-development of youngsters. Self-concept components, as well as self-complexity, were also influenced by the parenting attitudes in indulgent family systems, where restriction was low.

Medvedovaluba (2000) investigated the relationships of family dimensions with self-esteem in early adolescence. Analysis of results showed that in all subjects there was a positive relationship of self-esteem with cohesion, organization, expressiveness and recreational orientation in family. In males self-esteem was positively related to moral global-opinion orientation and in female’s negatively related to intellectually cultural family orientation. A highly significant relationship was found between self-esteem and family conflict in all subjects. Subjects from high conflict families had a lower self-esteem, weaker inward control and higher anxiety.

Pomerantz (2001) tested a hypothesis that when parents used intrusive support frequently, children engaging in negative self-evaluative processes would be more vulnerable to depressive symptoms than children engaging in positive self-evaluative processes. Children in the 5th through 7th grades took part in a 2-wave longitudinal study over 6 months. The results suggested that both parents and children contribute to the development of depressive symptoms. When parental intrusive support was high, children engaged in negative self-evaluative processes experienced more
depressive symptoms over time than children engaging in positive self-evaluative processes.

Bean et al. (2003) examined the relationships between adolescent functioning (i.e. self-esteem and academic achievement) and parental support, behavioral control and psychological control in European American and African American adolescents. Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that supportive behaviors of African American mothers toward their adolescent children positively predicted both self-esteem and academic achievement. Psychological control was significantly related to adolescent self-esteem in both the models of paternal parenting and maternal parenting. In addition, among European American adolescents, behavioral control was a significant predictor of academic achievement and self-esteem.

Chang et al. (2003) presented a model of harsh parenting that has an indirect effect as well as a direct effect, on child aggression in the school environment through the mediating process of child emotion regulation. It was found that mother’s harsh parenting affected child emotion regulation more strongly than father’s whereas harsh parenting emanating from fathers had stronger effect on child aggression. Father’s harsh parenting also affected sons more than daughters, whereas there was no gender differential effect with mother’s harsh parenting.

Sillars et al. (2005) examined communication and parent adolescent understanding about family conflict, adolescent self-concept and immediate thoughts (or empathic accuracy). Parental understanding of child’s self-concept was associated with frequent and open communication, high parent child relationship satisfaction and a strong child self-concept. Parental understanding of conflict perceptions was associated with high conformity and low relationship satisfaction. Parental
understanding of the immediate thoughts of children was quite low and was not consistently related to communication, relationship satisfaction or child self-concept.

Sim et al. (2005) studied how parental punishment and children’s aggression are related, and possible moderation by authoritative control and rejection. A sample of 286 Singapore Chinese preschooler’s aged 4-6 reported on rejection; their parents reported on control, caning and slapping; and their teachers rated child aggression. Results show that father caning is related to aggression, regardless of child gender, whereas mother caning is related to child aggression only at low rejection. Mother slapping is related to son’s aggression, whereas father slapping is related to daughter’s aggression only at low rejection. Control does not moderate any of the punishment-aggression links.

Cournoyer et al. (2005) studied perception of parental acceptance-rejection, parental control and self-concept in a sample of 108 university students in the city of Kharkov Ukraine. Respondent generally regarded their parents as loving, warm and low in hostility, aggression, neglect and indifference. The participants also revealed moderately positive self-concepts. The more accepting the participants perceived their mother and father to be, the more likely the students were to hold positive self-concepts.

Finkenauer et al. (2005) investigated whether parenting behaviors are directly or indirectly (through building self-control) associated with emotional (depression, stress, low self-esteem) and behavioral (delinquency, aggression) problems among adolescents. Both types of problems were directly, negatively related to adaptive parenting behavior (high parental acceptance, strict control and monitoring and little use of manipulative psychological control). And self-control partially mediated the link between parenting behavior and adolescent problems. There was no sign that
high self-control was associated with drawbacks or increased risk of psychosocial problems.

Hale et al. (2005) examined the association of perceived parental rejection to adolescent depression and aggression. Results indicated that perceived parental rejection mediated through adolescent depression, explains aggressive behaviors of adolescents, and these effects are also somewhat dependent on the gender and the age of the adolescents.

Parker et al. (2005) examined the role of parental support and monitoring as they relate to adolescent outcomes. Results indicated that both parental support and parental monitoring were related to greater self-esteem and lower risk behaviors.

Rana and Malhotra (2005) examined the relationship between family environment and the development of aggressive tendencies. The results demonstrated that family environment affected aggressive behavior. Gender differences, as expected showed that boys scored higher than girls on physical, verbal and indirect aggression.

Yizhen et al. (2006) identified the family factors relevant to aggression. The results showed that maternal education, paternal occupation, family type, parental child rearing attitude and patterns, student’s interpersonal relationship were significantly associated with children’s and adolescent’s aggression. The risk factors of aggression were parental child-rearing patterns, peer relationship, teacher-student relationship and family conflict.

Bansal et al. (2006) carried out the relationship between quality of home environment, locus of control and achievement motivation. Result showed that good quality of home environment had significant positive correlation with high level of achievement motivation among high achievers. It was found that as the quality of
home environment deteriorated, the level of achievement also deteriorated. “Internal” locus of control had significant positive correlation with quality of home environment. “External” locus of control was non-significantly related with achievement levels and quality of home environment. Significantly greater proportion of high achievers with ‘average’ level of achievement motivation showed ‘internal’ locus of control. Whereas distribution of high achievers with high and low levels of achievement motivation showed no significant difference for the internal and external locus of control.

Ooi et al. (2006) examined the impact of quality of parent-child attachment on aggression, social stress and self-esteem in a clinical sample of 91 boys with disruptive behavior disorders ranging from 8 to 12 years of age. Those boys were included in the study, which were found to exhibit various aggressive and antisocial behaviors such as getting into fights, telling lies and teasing others. Multiple regression analyses found that the quality of parent-child attachment significantly predicted parent-rated aggression, social stress and self-esteem. Higher quality of parent–child attachment was associated with lower levels of parent-rated aggression, lower level of social stress and higher levels of self-esteem.

DeHart et al. (2006) examined the link between parenting style and implicit self-esteem. Children who reported their parents to be nurturing had higher implicit self-esteem and those who reported their parent to be overprotective had lower implicit self-esteem. Mother’s independent reports of their early interactions with their children were also related to children’s level of implicit self-esteem.

Schmitz (2006) examined the influence of social and family contexts on the self-esteem of Mexican, Mexican-American and Puerto Rican children. Results indicated significant social and family effects on cognitive stimulation and emotional
support in home environment and on the academic self-esteem. However home environment was not predictive of child global self-esteem. The results indicated that socio-economic status and family structure influence the presence of a cognitively stimulating and emotionally supportive home environment, but these aspects of home environment do not influence the development of child self-worth and scholastic self-perception.

Malete (2007) examined the relationship between family factors and secondary school student’s aggressive and antisocial behavior. Participants were 1,478 juniors and senior secondary school students from four major urban centers in Botswana, aged 12-20. High scores on antisocial and aggressive behavior were significantly related to poor parent-child relations and low parental monitoring.

Martinez et al (2007) explored the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem among 1,239 11-15 years old Brazilian adolescents. Adolescents from indulgent families scored higher than adolescents from authoritarian and neglectful families in four self-esteem dimensions: academic, social, family and physical. Adolescents from authoritative families scored higher than adolescents from authoritarian and neglectful families in three self-esteem dimensions: academic, social and family. These results suggest that authoritative parenting is not associated with optimum self-esteem in Brazil.

Underwood et al. (2008) investigated whether negative inter-parental conflict strategies (stonewalling, triangulation, verbal aggression and physical aggression) and parenting styles were related to social and physical aggression with peers for children, followed longitudinally from age 9 to 10. Structural equation modeling demonstrated that, for girls, mother’s negative inter-parental conflict strategies were positively associated with both social and physical aggression at school, father’s negative
conflict strategies were not related to aggression for either gender and no relations emerged for parenting styles.

Daulta (2008) studied the impact of home environment on scholastic achievement. Data revealed that boys of high home environment group achieved significantly greater mean score than the boys falling in the group of low home environment. The impact of home environment has also been observed in the mean values of scholastic achievement of girls belonging to high, medium and low home environment groups. Results also showed that good quality of home environment had significant positive correlation with “high” level of scholastic achievement in boys than among girls. It was also found that as the quality of home environment deteriorates, the level of scholastic achievement also declines in boys.

Lian and Yusoff (2009) investigated the effect of parental relationship on the self-esteem of school going children. Questionnaire was designed to measure the level of parental relationship, family cohesion, self-esteem, social isolation and resiliency of students. Results showed that severity of the conflict, social isolation and family cohesion have a great effect on self-esteem of the students. However it shows that parental relationship is not the only contributory factor of self-esteem of a child, in fact there are other contributory factors.

Senler and Sungur (2009) carried out a study which aimed firstly to investigate the grade level (elementary and middle school) and gender effect on student’s motivation in science (perceived academic science self-concept and task value) and perceived family involvement, and then secondly examined the relationship among family environment variables (father’s educational level, mother’s educational level, and perceived family involvement), motivation, gender and science achievement in elementary and middle school. Multivariate analysis of variance showed that
elementary school students have more positive science self-concept and task value beliefs compared to middle school students. Path analyses also suggested that family involvement was directly linked to elementary school student’s task value and achievement. Also in elementary school level, significant relationships were found among father’s educational level, science self-concept, task value and science achievement. On the other hand, in middle school level family involvement, father’s educational level and mother’s educational level were positively related to student’s task value which is directly linked to student’s science achievement. Moreover, mother’s educational level contributed to science achievement through its effect on self-concept.

Andreas and Watson (2009) explored how children’s aggressive beliefs and family environment combine, to influence the development of child aggression from middle childhood into adolescence. Results showed that elevated aggressive beliefs in children represent a risk factor for aggression. Higher aggressive beliefs were associated with greater aggression at the youngest age, as well as with increased aggression overtime. Though family environment moderated this association such that, changes in children's aggression overtime were contingent upon the interaction of their aggressive beliefs with family environment. Specifically aggression was reduced in children with high aggressive belief, if they experienced better than average family environment, which included less family conflict and more family cohesion.

Kaur et al. (2009) studied home environment and academic achievement as correlates of self-concepts in a sample of 300 adolescents. Results of the study revealed self-concept to be positively correlated with academic achievement, though not significantly so. A significantly positive relationship of home environment
components of protectiveness, conformity, reward and nurturance with self-concept was revealed, thereby meaning that use of rewards and nurturance from parents should be done for positive self-concept development among adolescents. However, the correlation of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection components of home environment was significantly negative with self-concept among adolescents; which means there should be less or no use of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection

Pagani et al. (2010) examined the relationship between middle childhood trajectories of family dysfunction and indirect aggression. Family systems, developmental psychopathology and life-course conceptualization were applied to meet the objective. For both boys and girls prolonged duration of high doses of family dysfunction was associated with the most extreme developmental trajectories of indirect aggression during middle childhood. Results showed gender specificity with respect to the influence of the explanatory variables on family dysfunction. For girls, the link between family dysfunction and indirect aggression persisted above and beyond such contextual influences. For boys, the relationship became unimportant once contextual factors were taken into account.

Chohan and Khan (2010) examined the impact of educational support given by the parents on the academic achievement and self-concept of grade 4 public school students. Results of the study revealed that parent’s contribution has a consistent and positive effect on academic achievement and self-concept.

Ozedemir et al. (2013) examined the direct and indirect relationship between parenting processes (parental closeness, parental monitoring and parental peer approval), low self-control and aggression. Results provided evidence of both direct and indirect effect of maternal and paternal parenting processes on aggression through
low self-control. Specifically results showed that maternal closeness, paternal peer approval and both maternal and paternal monitoring were positively and directly related to low self-control and indirectly related to aggression through low self-control. Together parenting processes and low self-control explained 21% of the variance in aggression.

Sharma and Bandhana (2012) conducted a study to ascertain the main and interactional effect of emotional intelligence, home environment and sex on self-concept of adolescents. A random sample of 1007 adolescents (502 male and 505 females) was selected from government and private higher secondary schools of Jammu City. Results indicate that home environment and emotional intelligence have significant impact on self-concept

From the above review about home environment and various other aspects which together form home environment, it is quite clear that it has huge impact on child’s development. Factors like parenting process, parent’s relation with children, child rearing practices, parents interpersonal relationship, level of warmth and discipline all have been found to affect child’s personality. Review of past literature has showed that various aspect of adolescents like self-esteem, stress, depression, delinquent behavior, adjustment level are to some extent related to the functioning of the home.

In the following text effort are made to highlight past researches that are conducted on school environment, which are directly or indirectly related to the topic of present study.

Spencer (1976) studied the effect of interpersonal influences and school environment on adolescent self-concept. His study which tested cross culturally an American model of self-concept formation process indicated that: "In schools where
socioeconomic heterogeneity is greater, meritocratic criteria predominate but in schools ...populated predominantly by lower socioeconomic populations, ascriptive criteria tend to play a much greater role..." in self-concept formation.

Hoge et al. (1990) studied the impact of school experiences on student’s self-esteem using a longitudinal study of sixth- and seventh-grade students. Self-esteem was measured at three levels—global, academic, and discipline specific. A multiple regression analysis assessed the impact of grades, school climate, teacher evaluations of work habits, award and participation during the year, and student ratings of teachers on self-esteem changes from fall to spring. In all tests, school climate and evaluations by teachers had significant effects on self-esteem. Grades were more important for discipline-specific self-esteem than for global or academic self-esteem.

Chui-Chun et al. (1992) explored the possible relationships of teacher’s use of powers, leadership and their students’ educational outcomes in terms of self-concept, attitudes towards peers, teacher, school and motivation to learn. Findings of the study indicated that teacher’s social self, pedagogical self and personal self are relative important factors that predict teacher’s use of consideration leadership and use of reference power and reward power, which in turn predict students’ five educational outcomes. The results of investigating the relationship between teachers’ self-concept and students’ educational outcomes were also in line with this pattern.

Mboya (1995) investigated the relationship between perceived teachers behavior and adolescent’s self-concept. The results showed that a significant positive relationship existed between perceived teacher support, interest, encouragement, expectations and participation, and the adolescent family, school and health self-concepts.
Dewitt et al. (2000) examined the role of adolescent personality and social traits as mediating mechanisms linking school culture with adolescent behavioral problems. Structural equation model results revealed that student exposure to an unfavorable school culture (marked by perceptions of low teacher and classmate support, student conflicts, unfair school rules and disciplinary practices and low student autonomy in school affairs and decision making) was positively associated with low attachment to learning and peer approval of deviance each of which were positively associated with disciplinary problems, conduct disorder, attention-deficit hyperactivity and substance use. Low self-esteem emerged as a significant mediator in two models.

Blankemeyer et al. (2002) studied the role of children’s aggression and three indices of social competence (peer-preferred behavior, teacher-preferred behavior and school adjustment) in children’s perceived relationship with their teachers. Results from hierarchical regression analyses showed statistically significant interaction effects. Poor school adjustment was associated with negatively perceived child teacher relationship more for boys than for girls. In addition, the perceived child-teacher relationship among aggressive children was more favorable among those with high level of school adjustment than among those who were poorly adjusted at school.

Reddy et al. (2003) examined the influence of perceived teacher support on trajectories of depression and self-esteem in middle school using multigroup latent growth cross-domain models. Students’ perceptions of teacher support and general self-esteem declined and depressive symptoms increased over the course of middle school. It was further found that, for both boys and girls, changes in perceptions of teachers’ support reliably predicted changes in both self-esteem and depression. In particular, those students perceiving increasing teacher support showed corresponding
decreases in depressive symptoms and increases in self-esteem. Gender differences were found for the initial levels of both perceptions of teacher support and general self-esteem. A competing model was also tested, which gave additional support for pathways of influence from perceptions of teacher support to depression and self-esteem, rather than the reverse.

Lei (2003) hypothesize that teacher’s belief about aggressive and withdrawn children behavior in classroom and teacher’s overall caring and support for students influence the relations between classroom behaviors, peer acceptance and self-perceived social competence. The results suggest that teacher’s aversion to aggression and empathy toward withdrawal enhanced the self-perception of both aggressive and withdrawn children and enforced peer rejection of aggression but not of social withdrawal. Teacher warmth had similar effects. Pro-social leadership had a positive social impact among students, independent of teacher beliefs.

Chan (2003) attempted to explore the relationship between students’ academic achievement, self-concept, and test anxiety. Both within and across schools comparisons were made to evaluate the effect of the long and short term academic achievement on self-concept and test anxiety. In addition, the effect of gender on self-concept and test anxiety was also examined. 323 students had participated in the study out of which n= 214 from a higher band school and n= 109 from a lower band school. The findings supported the Big Fish Little Pond (BFLP) effect on the ability within, but not between schools. The BFLP effect was not only found on students’ academic self-concept sub-scales, but also on some of their non-academic self-concept sub-scales. Moreover, high band students had more emotional disturbances during examinations, whereas low achievers had greater worries about academic failure. Gender effect was found on self-concept and test anxiety. A weak negative correlation
was found between self-concept and test anxiety. Results also demonstrated the importance of within school comparisons on students’ self-concept. Categorizing students into different band schools may generate a labelling effect on students’ self-concept, which may in turn affect their academic achievement. Hence, schools reputation and status has its psychological impact on students that ultimately became instrumental for varying level of academic performance.

Barth et al. (2004) examined how variation in social and academic classrooms composition as well as larger school context affected behavior in a normative sample of children over a two year period. Teachers provided ratings of individual students, which were then aggregated to form teacher-based measures of classroom environment. Concurrent and longitudinal effect of classroom and school environment on individual behavior was examined for students in 65 classrooms in 17 schools. Poorer classroom environment were associated with poorer levels of school aggression, peer relations and academic focus. Change in student’s behavior over time could be explained by current classroom environment.

Dorian (2004) examined how school connectedness and school climate work together to influence students, and whether the relationship between connectedness and climate reveal information about the interaction of social context and the individual. Analysis of the results demonstrated that even a positive school climate does not always reduce the likelihood of perpetration of aggression and victimization. Likewise, a negative school climate does not necessarily increase that risk. Despite variations in climate, the amount of connectedness experienced by the average student appears to consistently contribute to predicting his likelihood of aggression and victimization.
Nicholson (2005) examined the relationship with teachers and peers and the potential for those to influence changes in aggression overtime. Specific interest in teacher efficacy and its relationship to these changes were explored. Results suggested that teacher’s efficacy is moderately related to change in aggression along with the previous aggression of the classroom.

Thomas et al. (2006) studied the impact of classroom aggression on the development of aggressive behavior problems in children. They examined demographic factor associated with exposure to high aggression classrooms, including school context factors (school-size, student poverty levels, and rural vs. urban location) and child ethnicity (African American, European American). Developmental impact of different temporal patterns of exposure (e.g., primacy, recency, chronicity) to high aggression classroom was evaluated on child aggression. Analyses revealed that African American children attending large, urban schools that served socioeconomically disadvantaged students were more likely than other students to be exposed to high-aggressive classroom contexts. Children with multi years of exposure showed higher levels of aggressive behavior after three years than children with primacy, less recent, and less chronic exposure, controlling for initial levels of aggression.

Reis et al. (2007) studied individual student, family and school predictors of aggression in 111,662 students in sixth, seventh and eighth grades. At the level of the individual student, measures of problem solving were most strongly predictive of aggression. Inclusion of students in policy and rule processes, cultural sensitivity education, and teaching that emphasizes understanding over memorization was significant predictors of aggression at the school level.
Loukas and Murphy (2007) examined the roles of student perceptions of four aspects of school climate (friction, cohesion, competition among students, and satisfaction with classes) as moderators of the relations between effortful control and subsequent conduct problems and depressive symptoms. Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that high levels of perceived friction predicted more subsequent conduct problems and depressive symptoms, even after baseline levels of these problems were partial out. Low levels of effortful control also elevated risk for subsequent conduct problems. However, perceptions of the school as high in cohesion offset the risk associated with low levels of effortful control. Perceived satisfaction with classes also offset this risk, but only for females. Contrary to expectations, student perceptions of school climate did not interact with effortful control to predict subsequent depressive symptoms.

Thomas et al. (2008) carried out the study to examine the unique and combined contributions of child vulnerabilities and school context to the development of aggressive disruptive student behavior during first grade, parent ratings and child interviews assessed three characteristics of the child associated with risk for the development of aggressive behavior problems in elementary school (aggressive-disruptive at home, attention problems and social cognitions) in a sample of 7555 first grade children in four demographically diverse American communities. Two school characteristics associated with student aggressive-disruptive behavior problems (low-quality classroom context, school poverty level) were also assessed. Linear and multilevel analyses showed that both child and school characteristics made independent and cumulative contributions to the development of student aggressive-disruptive behavior at school.
Lopez et al. (2008) examined the influence of family and classroom environment on the development of particular individual characteristics, including level of empathy, attitude to institutional authority and perceived social reputation and the role these characteristics may in turn play in school aggression. Findings suggested that a positive family environment seems to be stronger protective factor for girls in the development of problem behavior at school, whereas for boys this is the case for a positive classroom environment. His model accounted for 40 % of the variance in aggression at school for boys and 35% for girls.

Chaturvedi (2009) investigated the effect of school environment and certain demographic variables on achievement motivation, academic motivation and academic achievement of young adolescents. The sample consisted of 300 students in the age-range of 12-15 years, selected by stratified sampling method. Results indicated that all six sub scales of school environment have significant effect on achievement motivation and three sub-scales have significant effect on academic achievement. The scores on achievement motivation as well as academic achievement differed significantly in case of gender grades and father’s occupation. In type of schools the difference was significant on academic achievement only.

Jia et al. (2009) explored student’s perceptions of three dimensions of school climate (teacher support, student-student support, and opportunities for autonomy in the classroom) and the associations between these dimensions and adolescent psychological and academic adjustment in china and U.S. Results indicated that student’s perception of teacher support and student-student support were positively associated with adolescent’s self-esteem and grade point average but negatively associated with depressive symptoms for both Chinese and American adolescents.
Wang and Holcombe (2010) carried out the longitudinal research examining the relationships among middle school student’s perceptions of school environment, school engagement and academic achievement. The result indicated that student’s perception of the distinct dimensions of school environment in seventh grade contribute differentially to the three types of school engagement (school participation, sense of identification with school, and use of self-regulation strategies) in eighth grade. They also found that student perception of school environment influenced their academic achievement directly and indirectly through the three types of school engagement: school participation, sense of identification with school, and use of self-regulation strategies. Specifically, student’s perception of school characteristics in seventh grade influenced their school participation, identification with school and use of self-regulation strategies in eight grade that occur therein and, in turn, influenced student’s academic achievement in eighth grade.

Nipedal et al. (2010) examined whether the effect of social group norms on seven and ten year old children’s aggression can be moderated or extinguished by contrary school norms. Children participated in a simulation in which they were assigned membership in a social group for drawing competition against an out-group. Participants learnt that their group had a norm of inclusion, exclusion or exclusion-plus-relational aggression, toward non-group members and that school either had a norm of inclusion or no such norm. Findings indicated that group norm influenced the participants’ direct and indirect aggressive intentions but that the school norm moderated the group norm effect tending to be greater for indirect vs. direct aggression, male vs. females, and younger vs. older participants.

Oliver et al. (2011) reviewed twelve studies of universal classroom management programs. The classroom level mean effect size for the twelve programs
was significant. He summarized that teacher’s classroom management practices have a significant, positive effect on decreasing problem behavior in the classroom. Students in the treatment classrooms in all 12 studies located for the review showed less disruptive, inappropriate, and aggressive behavior in the classroom compared to untreated students in the control classrooms. Teachers who use effective classroom management can expect to experience improvement in student behavior that establishes the context for effective instructional practices to occur.

Thomas et al. (2011) studied whether early classroom experiences influence the socialization of aggression. Hierarchical linear model analyses revealed that first-grade classroom aggression and quality of classroom climate made independent contributions to changes in student aggression, as students moved from kindergarten to second grade.

Luckner and Pianta (2011) investigated the extent to which teacher-student interaction in fifth grade classroom are associated with peer behavior, accounting for prior peer functioning. Quality of teacher-student interactions (emotional support, classroom organization and instructional support) was assessed through classroom observations in fifth grade; peer behavior was assessed via teacher support (prosocial behavior, aggression, relational aggression and asocial behavior) in fourth grade and fifth grade and classroom observations (sociable/cooperative peer behavior) in third and fifth grade. Multiple regression analysis revealed that children in fifth grade classrooms with higher quality organization interactions had more positive observed interactions with their peers and lower teacher ratings of aggression and relational aggression. In addition, emotional support interaction was related to higher teacher ratings of prosocial behavior.
Henry et al. (2011) examined school-level influence on aggressive behavior and related social-cognitive variables. Predictors were school level norms opposing aggression and favoring non-violence, interpersonal climate (positive student-teacher relationships and positive student-student relationships) and school responsiveness to violence (awareness and reporting of violence and school safety problems). Outcomes were individual-level physical aggression, beliefs supporting aggression, and self-efficacy for non-violent responses. School norms and both interpersonal climate variables had effects on all three outcomes, in theorized directions. Only one of the responsiveness measures, awareness and reporting of violence, had theoretically consistent effects on all outcomes. The other, school safety problems, affected self-efficacy latter in middle school.

Ishak and Chew (2012) carried out study taking into account family bonding, self-concept and school experiences. Results demonstrated that there is indirect effect from family bonding to self-concept through school experiences among secondary students as a mediator. Besides school experiences, there is a direct effect from family bonding to self-concept and family bonding to school experiences among students.

In light of the literature reviewed about school environment, it is very much apparent that school environment and many important aspects of school play a significant role in building a charismatic personality of students. Prior research indicated that teacher-student communication, school level norms, classroom environment, teacher perception about students all affect student’s behavior in some form. Student’s aggression, self-esteem, self-concept, academic achievements are found to be in some way or other affected by the school environment. Though most of the researches have taken teacher’s perception into account, it is important to investigate the student perception about their school environment in determining the
level of aggression and self-concept and even one of the study also showed that it is not necessary that good school climate decreases the chance of risk-taking behaviors. Further the studies highlight the factors that seem to have effect on the aggression and self-concept of children.

Garnefski and Diekstra (1996) tried to examine the extent to which negative perceptions of support from family, school, and peers differ with regard to their impact on emotional and behavioral problems and the extent to which negative perceptions of multiple social support systems are related to the presence of multiple emotional and behavioral problems in adolescence. The sample comprised N= 476 high school students. They found that a negative perception of school was specifically related to behavioral problems and a negative perception of peers specifically to emotional problems, while a negative perception of the family appeared to be strongly related both to emotional and behavioral dysfunction. A strong accumulating effect was found for multiple negatively perceived social environments. Results also reported a dominant role of negatively perceived family support. Therefore, to prevent emotional and behavioral problems in adolescence it is important to identify families at risk at the earliest possible stage and to provide training and support to the parents.

Kokko and Pulkkinen (2000) studied whether childhood aggression begin a cycle of maladaptation in school that results in an erratic work-life as an adult. Participants were from age 8 to 36 years, they were evaluated with teacher ratings and self-report at four different ages: 14, 27 and between 27 and 36. Researchers found that the children who were aggressive at age eight began a cycle of maladjustment, problem drinking, occupational alternatives and, finally long term unemployment. But they also found that child centered parenting (supportive parents, parents involved in their children’s lives and warm family environment) and pro-social behavior (high
self-control of emotions in stressful or uncomfortable situations) reduced aggressive children’s chances of long term unemployment.

Brendgen et al. (2002) aimed at (1) comparing the links of proactive and reactive aggression at thirteen years of age to delinquency related violence and dating violence at age 16 and 17 and (2) examining the moderating effects of parental supervision, and mother’s and father’s warmth and caregiving behaviors on these links. The results showed that proactive aggression uniquely predicted delinquency related violence, whereas reactive aggression uniquely predicted later dating violence. The relation between proactive aggression and delinquency related violence however was moderated by parental supervision. The relation between reactive aggression and dating violence was moderated by mother’s warmth and caregiving behavior.

Thomas (2004) conducted a study using data from national longitudinal survey of children and youth to examine change in punitive parenting and child aggression. The study found link between harsh, punitive parenting and child aggressive behavior, both at age 2 to 3 years and at age 8 to 9 years. Children living in punitive environment scored higher in aggressive behavior than those living in less punitive environment at both ages. This relationship appeared for both genders, for low-income and higher income families, and for all regions of Canada. The study found that some children experienced parenting practices at age 2 to 3 years that were different from the parenting practices they experienced six years later at age 8 to 9 years, and these parenting changes were associated with behavior changes. Children whose early parenting environment had been punitive but whose environment became less so scored as low in aggressive behavior as those whose parenting environment was non-punitive but whose environment became punitive over the course of the six
years scored just as high in aggressive behavior as those whose parenting environment was punitive at both ages.

Knutson et al. (2004) tested a theoretical model to understand the direct and mediated effect of social disadvantage, neglectful parenting, and punitive parenting in the developmental trajectory of aggressive and antisocial behavior in young school-aged children. Results established care neglect as a mediator of social disadvantage and the importance of care neglect to both punitive discipline and antisocial outcome in the first and fifth grade cohorts. Supervisory neglect, however was important of distinguishing between two subtypes of neglect and the need to consider the role of discipline in concern with neglect when attempting to understand the impact of parenting on the development of antisocial behavior.

Brook et al. (2004) examined a cross-sectional inter relationship of psychosocial domains as they relate to aggression in a group of African American and English-speaking Puerto-Rican young adults and 77 mother or mother substitutes (rearing mothers) of those children. The results indicated that (a) the child’s personality and maternal attributes were significantly related to the child’s aggression, despite control on all of the other domains (b) the ethnic identification and discrimination domain was no longer related to the child’s aggression with control on the mother-child relationship domain or on the child’s personality domains.

Lambert and Cashwell (2004) examined the link between pre-adolescent perceptions of parent-child communication and their levels of school based aggressive behaviors. The result indicated that perceived effective communication was highest for mother-girl dyads, followed in order by mother-boy, father-boy and father-girl dyads. Secondly no difference between preadolescent’s levels of aggressive behavior in school on the basis of gender was found. Finally the result indicated that
preadolescent perceptions of effective parent-child communication were negatively correlated with school-based aggression.

Piniecka (2005) carried out study to determine factors that are linked with aggressive behavior of gymnasiums teenagers. She founded that factors were connected with school environment (mainly unfavorable atmosphere at school, too much children in the classes), home environment and the way of spending spare time by school children (mainly as members of informal groups of peers).

Barnow et al. (2005) carried out study in order to find the correlates of aggressive and delinquent conduct problems in adolescence. The correlation analyses revealed significant relationship between adolescent aggressive and delinquent behavioral problems and parental antisocial behavior; perceived parental rejection and low emotional warmth; adolescent novelty seeking, self-esteem, peer rejection and peer deviance. The study revealed direct relationship between paternal antisocial behavior, parental rejection, adolescent novelty seeking, peer deviance and offspring aggression and delinquency. Regarding the findings it was concluded that only intervention measure that include parents, peers, and individual adolescents may help decrease the incidence of aggressive and delinquent conduct problems.

Loukas et al. (2005) examined the factors contributing to the self-reported use of social and overt aggression among 745, 10-14 year old European American and Latino adolescents. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses showed that dispositional social evaluative analysis was uniquely positively associated with boys and girls social aggression and negatively associated with boys overt aggression. Maternal psychological control was positively associated only for Latino boys. Although maternal psychological control also was associated with girls use of overt aggression, this effect was stronger among older than among younger females. The
relationship between maternal psychological control was mediated by social evaluative anxiety.

Ramirez et al. (2006) carried out a study first to offer a theoretical consideration on the concept of human aggression and its main types and second to analyze the relationship between those types of aggression and other related psychological constructs such as anger, hostility and impulsivity. It was found that there was a positive correlation between experience and expression of anger. Anger involved physiological arousal and prepared for aggression. Anger and impulsiveness were also positively correlated with hostile aggression but not with instrumental aggression. In case of impulsiveness, non-planning impulsiveness was positively correlated with some situations related to hostile aggression, such as emotional agitation or level of communication, but not with instrumental one.

Lopez et al. (2006) aimed to analyze difference between aggressive and non-aggressive rejected students in four sets of variables: personal, family, school and social. Results indicated that these subgroups of rejected show a different profile. Aggressive rejected students informed of lower level of family self-esteem, less parental support, higher levels of aggression between their parents at home and a more offensive parent-child communication in comparison with non-aggressive rejected adolescents. Moreover aggressive rejected students showed lower levels of academic self-esteem, a more negative attitude towards school, studies, poorer relationship with teachers and more academic difficulties than did adolescents in the non-aggressive rejected sub-groups.

William et al. (2007) examined parents, siblings, and family economics as factors in individual differences in developmental course of interpersonal aggression during adolescence. Findings suggested that individual change in interpersonal
aggression during adolescence can be predicted by the gender and aggression of one’s sibling; predictions varied by the gender composition of the sibling dyad. Rates of parental hostility predicted levels of interpersonal aggression for both older (mean age = 12 years) and younger siblings (mean age = 15), and growth in aggression for younger siblings. Family economic pressure predicted interpersonal aggression of both siblings indirectly through parental hostility.

Larsen and Dehlec (2007) examined the association between parent emotional support and rural adolescent aggression and whether adolescent psychopathology and substance abuse mediated this association. Results indicated that emotional support has an indirect influence on adolescent aggression. Adolescent substance abuse was completely mediated by adolescent grade-point average, indicating no significant direct association with aggression. Adolescent psychopathology significantly mediated the relationship between parental emotional support and adolescent aggression.

Ochoa et al. (2007) analyzed the role of different but interrelated variables relative to family and school contexts in relation to problems of violent behavior at school in adolescent period. Result showed a direct association between quality of communication with father and teacher’s expectation about the student, with the adolescent’s involvement in violent behavior at school. Moreover, findings showed indirect paths, where adolescent’s self-concept (family and school), accepted by peers, and attitude towards authority, seemed to be influenced by quality of interaction with parents and teachers, and also be closely associated with violent behavior at school.

Cullerton et al. (2008) examined associations between maltreatment and aggression using a gender-informed approach. Peer ratings, peer nominations, and a
counselor report of aggression were collected on 211 maltreated and 199 non-maltreated inner-city youth during a summer camp. Maltreatment was associated with aggressive conduct; however, these effects were qualified by gender, maltreatment subtype, and the form of aggression under investigation. Findings revealed that maltreatment was associated with physical aggression for boys and relational aggression for girls. Physical abuse was associated with physically aggressive behavior but sexual abuse predicted relational aggression for girls only. Findings suggest that investigating the interaction between familial risk and gender is important in understanding aggressive behaviors of boys and girls.

Pickett et al. (2009) compared the rate of student physical aggression between the two countries (Canada and U.S). School, family, socio-economic and peer-related factors were considered as potential risk factors. Rates of physical aggression and association between social environment and student aggression were remarkably similar in Canada and U.S. Family, peer and school social environment serve as a risk or protective factors, with significant cumulative impact on physical aggression in both countries.

Visser et al. (2010) studied the role of context in development of child aggression. The effects of peer aggregation and group composition on aggression development in intervention contexts and classroom contexts were compared using 71 elementary school children. Results showed that the social skills intervention program did not have differential effects for group trained versus individually trained children. However a change in classrooms context lead to change toward less aggression in children who transferred from special to regular education. So the social context in which child operates daily is important for decreasing the aggression.
Campbell et al. (2010) examined teacher-rated trajectories of physical aggression in boys and girls from first through sixth grade using the data from NICHD study of early child care and youth development. In separate analysis, four trajectories were identified in boys and three in girls. Higher levels of aggression in both boys and girls were related to greater socio demographic risk and higher maternal harshness in the preschool years. Lower level of observed maternal sensitivity during early childhood also predicted higher trajectories of aggression among girls. Trajectory group also differed on a range of social and academic outcomes in sixth grade, with the most aggressive children and even moderately aggressive children evidencing some difficulties in adjustment.

Pernice-Duca et al. (2010) examined the role of family and school level variables on relational aggression and relational victimization among 158 fourth and fifth grade children. Family cohesion, maternal and paternal responsiveness and school climate were hypothesized to be significant predictors of relational aggression and relational victimization. Results indicated that both characteristics of family and school were related to experience of relational aggression. Levels of paternal responsiveness emerged as an important variable with regard to relational aggression, particularly for among females and for relational victimization among males.

Rohany et al. (2011) carried out study with the objective to ascertain background characteristics of juvenile delinquents and to determine relationships between family functioning, self-concept, self-esteem and cognitive distortions. Participants were 316 males and females between 12-18 years old from six rehabilitation and correctional centers in Malaysia. Results showed that > 30% of the participants had committed violent offences and there were correlation between family functioning, self-concept, self-esteem and cognitive distortion. Family
involvement and family counseling are suggested for effective treatment of delinquents and for the prevention of recidivism.

Farrell et al. (2011) examined parenting variables as protective factors to reduce the influence of school and peer risks factors on adolescent’s aggression. Class-level and perceived school norms supporting aggression, delinquent peer association, parental support for fighting and support for non-violence, and parental involvement were each associated with physical aggression. Each parental variable moderated one or more risk factors, with the magnitude of many effects varying by gender and decreasing over time.

Xiaoyu (2012) carried out study to examine the unique and collective contribution of child’s own characteristics, their family environment and school environment to development of child physical aggression at grade 5. Result suggests that early aggression at age 3 predicted later aggression at grade 5. Home warmth was a marginally significant protective factor for children’s aggression, whereas physical punishment, violent exposure, family conflict and parent-child dysfunctional interaction were risk factor for children’s aggression. Child’s experience in formal child care significantly predicted his/her higher aggression at grade 5. Results also indicated that school poverty at grade 5 was not a significant predictor of children’s aggression at grade 5. The moderation of home warmth for relations between physical punishment and child’s aggression was not significant.

From the readily available literature on aggression the researcher found that in certain studies punitive parenting, self-concept, family conflict, parents responsiveness were found to be associated with aggression. Some studies also showed that change in parenting behavior over the years can affect the aggression level.
The last section of this chapter focuses on the studies related with self-concept. Efforts are made to review the literature which highlights the factor that influence self-concept.

Marsh and Parker (1984) examined correlations of multiple dimensions of self-concepts in 305 6th graders from high- and low-Socio-economic status schools with teacher ratings of student self-concepts and academic ability and with academic test scores. The pattern of correlations demonstrated the clear separation between different areas of self-concept. Low-SES/low-ability schools had higher self-concepts than in high-SES/high-ability schools. Path analytic models indicated that attendance at a high-SES school (as opposed to a low-SES school) was correlated not only with a lower level of academic self-concept but also with a somewhat higher level of academic ability/achievement.

Nelson (1984) examined relationships between dimensions of classroom and family environment and various aspects of adaptation of grade 7 and grade 8 students. Classroom climates providing support and structure were consistently associated with high levels of student scholastic self-concept and satisfaction with teacher. Families with high degree of parent-child interaction and climates providing support and structure were generally associated with high levels of self-concept (peer, scholastic and general), satisfaction with family, and to a lesser extent achievement. There were some evidence that gain in self-concept and achievements over the course of year were related to classroom or family environment variables. Students with the highest level of scholastic self-concept had both classroom and family environment high in support and structure.

Lau and Leung (1992) examined relationship between Chinese adolescent’s self-concept, delinquency relations with parents and school and their perception of
personal control from a multidimensional perspective. Results showed that external control was associated with low general, academic and social self-concepts, high delinquency and poor relations with parents and school. External control was related to low academic self-concept in both sexes, but to low appearance, social and general self-concept only in girls. Moreover, it was found that girl’s sense of external control was more strongly associated with their poor relations with parents and school.

Mboya (1996) examine relationships between dimensions of family and school environments and various aspects of adolescent’s self-concept. Results indicated that perceived parental behaviors were associated with relation with family, general school, physical appearance, emotional stability, relations with peers, health and global self-concepts. Perceived teacher behavior was associated with relations with family, general school, emotional stability, health and global self-concepts. In comparison it was found that the relationship with perceived parental behaviors was a strong predictor of self-concept than that of self-concept of perceived teacher behaviors.

Chhikara (1997) examined the effect of certain aspect of the ecological environment- parental education, occupation and income on the self-concept of adolescents. Findings indicated that the self-concept of adolescents increased as parental education increased. A similar trend was observed in the case of parental occupation and income as they provide a better ecological environment. With respect to mother’s occupation it was noted that adolescents whose mother’s were housewives scored highest on self-concept followed by those whose mother’s were from services class whereas lowest scores on self-concept were secured by adolescents whose mothers were engaged in labour type of work.
McNelis et al. (2000) conducted a longitudinal study on factors related to self-concept on 106 children with asthma aged 8-13 years. They found that children with poorest self-concept were those who had less satisfaction with family relationships, a more negative attitude toward their illness and used more negative coping behaviors.

Sweeney and Bracken (2000) explored relationships between students’ multidimensional self-concepts as a function of their family structure. Students were classified into five family types (i.e., intact, reconstituted mother-headed, reconstituted father-headed, single parent mother-headed, single parent father-headed). Results indicated that the self-concept of students from single-parent families were significantly lower than the global scores of students from intact families. Family self-concept of students from reconstituted families was significantly lower than students from intact families.

Abdur (2001) conducted a study to investigate the relationship of self-concept with classroom environment, gender role, cognitive development and academic achievement of student at secondary school level. Investigation tends to report facilitating effect of classroom environment on student self-concept. Study shows better the classroom environment higher is the self-concept of students. The mean scores of private, urban and rural school students on self-concept scale and classroom environment scale are significantly different from one another. This shows that student self-concept if considered on the basis of classroom physical conditions, maternal equipment, supervision of the head, policy of school human relation and so on, only was to be more healthy in private school as compared to urban and rural school. Cognitive development is significantly correlated with self-concept and self-concept was found to be positively correlated with education success. It plays a
determining role in setting levels of academic achievement and is operating as both cause and effect in respect to academic achievement.

Poussin et al. (2002) carried out a study on children aged from 11 to 13. Each child filled in a questionnaire describing his or her family situation and then completed a psychological test of self-esteem. The study showed that on average parental separation has a smaller but significant impact on French children. Nevertheless self-esteem is lower for children who had experienced parental separation in French sample.

Laible et al. (2004) examined both direct and indirect relations of parent and peer attachment with self-esteem and also examined potential mediating roles of empathy and pro-social behavior. Structural equation modeling revealed that parental attachment had mostly direct effect on self-esteem. Among females, the link between peer attachment and self-esteem were entirely mediated by pro-social behavior and empathy. The findings from this study suggested that although close supportive relationship with parents and peers are related to adolescent self-esteem but these links are complex.

Henderson et al. (2006) investigated direct and shared effect of family functioning and self-concept on the severity of adolescent externalizing problems (drug involvement, aggressive behavior and delinquent behavior) in a sample of 224 clinically referred adolescents. Result revealed strong, direct relationships between problem behaviors and both family functioning and self-concept. Family functioning partially mediated the relationship between self-concept and problem behaviors. Though the relationship between externalizing problems and the interaction between family functioning and self-concept, did not yield a significant effect.
Bryant (2006) studied whether individuals with high self-esteem were more aggressive than individuals with low self-esteem. Sixty eight participants from Missouri western state university were given a survey. Anger, physical aggression, hostility and verbal aggression were the aggressive behavior being measured. Of the four behaviors hostility was the only one to show a strong negative correlation with self-esteem.

Gibson et al. (2006) studied the effect of perceived parental involvement and use of growth fostering relationships on self-concept. Sample of 78 adolescents were studied. Results indicated influence of family, peers, mentors and involvement in community groups on self-concept.


Lee (2008) determined the relationship between self-esteem and selected predictor variables of fourth, fifth and sixth grade children. The predictor variables were cohesion, expressiveness, conflict, control and moral-religious emphasis. Culture free self-esteem inventories and children version of the family environment scale were used. Multiple regression analysis indicated that cohesion and conflict were statistically significant predictors of children’s self-esteem. Cohesion was almost two times more influential than conflict when the two variables predicted self-esteem. Expressiveness, control and moral-religious emphasis were not statistically significant predictors. Expressiveness had a statistically linear relationship with children’s self-
esteem, though the variable was not a significant predictor of self-esteem in the multiple regression analysis.

Tarquin et al. (2008) investigated relationship among previous experiences of student alienation and various aspects of self-concept. Students were asked to report on their worst experience in school, symptoms they had following their worst experience, and overall feelings about themselves. Results indicated a moderate negative correlation between self-concept and student alienation.

Liu et al. (2008) examined the relationship between home and classroom environment to student’s academic self-concept in a streamed setting. A 3-year longitudinal study was conducted with secondary students from three government schools in Singapore. Result showed that there was significant difference in the strength of the relationship between higher and lower-ability stream student’s academic self-concept and their perceived home environment and classroom climate. In addition, step-wise multiple linear regression established that lower-ability stream student’s perceived teacher’s expectation had more consistent and substantial impact on their confidence level than that of their higher-ability stream counterparts. In comparison, higher ability stream student’s perceived parental academic support had more consistent impact on their academic self-concept than that of lower ability stream peers.

Brown et al. (2009) explored how children’s self-concept was related to child temperament, dyadic parenting behavior and triadic family interaction. Analysis revealed that temperamental proneness to distress and triadic family interaction made independent contribution to children’s self-reported timidity and agreeableness. In contrast, dyadic parenting behavior moderated the association between child temperament and children’s self-reported timidity and agreeableness such that
temperament was only associated with children’s self-concept when mothers and fathers engaged in particular parenting behaviors. Result suggests both direct and interactive influence of family dynamics and child characteristics on children’s self-concept development.

Yahaya et al. (2009) investigated relationship between the dimensions of personality, self-concept and family influence. The sample consisted of 214 students from two secondary schools in the FELDA settlement in Johor. Random cluster sampling was carried out. Results showed weak relationship between the dimensions of personality and self-concept and between the dimensions of personality and family cohesiveness. However, there is no relationship between the dimensions of personality and religious/moral and freedom aspect. Results also showed that there is a strong relationship between self-concept and family cohesiveness and moderate relationship between self-concept and religious/moral aspect. However there is no relationship between self-concept and freedom.

Tam et al. (2011) examined relationship between self-esteem and perceived social support among the Malaysian adolescents. For this they conducted a survey on adolescents ranging 16-20 years drawn from schools, colleges and university. Results indicated that there were no gender differences in perceived social support and self-esteem among adolescents. However, a positive correlation was found between perceived social support and self-esteem. The study also found that peer support was the highest form of perceived social support.

Tabbah (2011) investigated multiple domains of self-concept in Arab American adolescents in relation to their school experiences, including discrimination, self-perceived teacher and classmate social support, and actual teacher perceptions. Results indicated that half of the sample experienced some form of
discrimination, either personal or someone the subjects knew. Experiences of discrimination were significantly related to students' scholastic competence and physical appearance. Self-perceived classmate support was significantly related to all domains of self-concept. Teacher related variables, however, deemed less significant, except for behavioral aspects of self-concept.

Studies on self-concept makes it quite clear that it is one of the important variables that we need to focus, as researches in past has shown that self-concept is related to various behavior like drug abuse, aggression, delinquency, achievement and cognitive development. From the above review it can also be seen that self-concept is affected by various factors like family functioning, ecological environment, teacher’s perception, parent’s education etc.