

**PSYCHO-PERSONOLOGICAL FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF ACADEMIC
CONFIDENCE AND MOTIVATION AMONG UNDERGRADUATES IN
SOUTHWESTERN NIGERIA**

BY

Alice Olabisi OYERINDE

MATRIC NO: 161621

B.sc Economics (A.B.U. Zaria)

M.Ed Educational Psychology and School Counselling (Ibadan)

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of Counselling and Human Development studies, in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of philosophy
(Ph.D) in Educational Psychology of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria**

Supervisor

Dr A.M. Jimoh

September, 2016

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this research work was carried out by Alice Olabisi OYERINDE (Matric. No. 161621) in the Department of Counselling and Human Development Studies, Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria under my supervision.

.....
Supervisor

.....
Date

Jimoh, A.M, PhD
Department of Counselling and Human Development Studies,
University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to Almighty God for His wondrous works in my life and to my wonderful parents, Deacon & Mrs Joshua Adelere Olaniyan.

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply indebted to Almighty God for the privilege to carry out the research work, the grace to begin and complete the program successfully and for the privilege of quality education and competent tutors.

My profound gratitude goes to my supervisor, Dr A.M. Jimoh for his untiring efforts and tailored counsel and also whose wealth of knowledge, meticulous guidance and instructions has enabled me to complete this research. Also, for all the knowledge shared and time committed to my work.

The quality of education I have received towards my Ph.D degree would not have been possible if not for the efforts of highly committed people of the Department of Counselling and Human Development Studies .My immeasurable gratitude goes to the Head of department, Prof J.O. Osiki, all the professors in the Department of Counselling and Human Development Studies, Prof. C.B. Uwakwe, Prof. A.O. Falaye, Prof. D.A. Adeyemo, Prof. A.O. Aremu, Prof. S.O Salami, Prof. T.A. Hammed, the Ph.D. Coordinator, Dr. C. Asuzu, all the lecturers in the department, especially Dr E.A. Awoyemi, Dr. K.O Fehintola, Dr. A.O Busari, Dr. Ndidi Ofoli, Dr. R.A. Animasaun, Dr. M.O. Ogundokun, Dr. B. Opara, Dr. A.A. Owodunni, Dr. Adeyemi, Dr. A.K Taiwo, Dr. Bunmi Oyekola and all the non-teaching members of staff , senior colleagues and my other colleagues in the Department for their continuous encouragement.

With gratitude, I also recognize the contributions of the sub-dean, Postgraduate School, Faculty of Education, Dr. D.A Oluwole.

My appreciation goes to the following for their support; Prof R.O Arowolo, Mr Ayo Ojelabi, Ven B.B.O Obaweya, Mrs Biola Oladogba, Mrs Tolu Olasusi, Mrs F.F Olorunyomi, Mrs R.O Kolaru, Mr K.O Abe, Mr & Mrs R.O Farotimi, Mr T.A. Adebisi, pastor Olumide Omitade, Mohammed Ahmed ademola (Moo), Mr A.O.Samuel, Mr Kayode Layiwola, Mr Adesina, Seun Oyewusi , Eyiwunmi Onigbinde, Mr Tomiwo Oladunjoye, Mr Sanda Ayobami, Yinka Owolabi, Shola Olufade, Mrs Alice Ntekim, Jonathan Olaniyan, Janet Olaniyan, Seun Olaniyan, Wale & Bunmi Olaniyan, Mr & Mrs Segun Adeyemi, Mr & Mrs Segun Adesolu and Mr. Mathew Awoleye.

Great acknowledgement also goes to my parents, Deacon & Mrs J.A Olaniyan for believing in me and for the great support received from them. I also appreciate the immense contribution of Engr. Remi Olaniyan towards this research work.

My sincere thanks go to my lovely and understanding children, IyanuOluwa (my computer and internet expert) and Enioto who also assisted me in various ways during the course of this research. You will live to be greater than I and achieve greater height in life by His special grace.

Finally, to the love of my life, my prayer warrior, adviser, friend and husband, Mr Babatunde Oyerinde. I am most grateful for the support given to me and all the time and money invested on me in the course of this study. Thank you for the encouragement, dedication and support. I am most grateful.

Alice Olabisi Oyerinde

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Pages |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| Title Page | i |
| Certification | ii |
| Dedication | iii |
| Acknowledgements | iv |
| Table of Contents | v |
| List of Tables | viii |
| Abstract | ix |
| | |
| CHAPTER ONE | |
| INTRODUCTION | |
| 1.1 Background to the study | 1 |
| 1.2 Statement of the problem | 12 |
| 1.3 Purpose of study | 13 |
| 1.4 Significance of the study | 14 |
| 1.5 Scope of the study | 15 |
| 1.6 Operational definition of terms | 16 |
| | |
| CHAPTER TWO | |
| LITERATURE REVIEW | |
| 2.0 Theoretical background | 17 |
| 2.1.1 Academic Confidence | 17 |
| 2.1.2 Academic motivation | 20 |
| 2.1.3 Emotional intelligence | 27 |
| 2.1.4 School connectedness | 30 |
| 2.1.5 Academic self –concept | 31 |
| 2.1.6 Academic resilience | 33 |
| 2.1.7 Goal setting | 37 |
| 2.1.8 Socio-economic status | 38 |

| | | |
|-------|--|----|
| 2.1.9 | Theoretical framework | 41 |
| 2.2.0 | Goal setting theory | 41 |
| 2.2.1 | Social cognitive theory | 43 |
| 2.2.2 | Self- determination theory | 47 |
| 2.2.3 | Emperical Review | 50 |
| 2.2.4 | Emotional intelligence and academic confidence | 50 |
| 2.2.5 | School connectedness and Academic Confidence | 54 |
| 2.2.6 | Academic self- concept and Academic Confidence | 56 |
| 2.2.7 | Gender and Academic Confidence | 58 |
| 2.2.8 | Academic resilience and Academic Confidence | 66 |
| 2.2.9 | Age and Academic Confidence | 68 |
| 2.3.0 | Goal setting and Academic confidence | 69 |
| 2.3.1 | Socio-economic status and Academic confidence | 70 |
| 2.3.2 | Emotional intelligence and Academic Motivation | 71 |
| 2.3.3 | School-connectedness and Academic Motivation | 73 |
| 2.3.4 | Academic self-concept and Academic Motivation | 75 |
| 2.3.5 | Gender and Academic Motivation | 77 |
| 2.3.6 | Academic resilience and Academic Motivation | 77 |
| 2.3.7 | Age and Academic Motivation | 79 |
| 2.3.8 | Goal setting and Academic Motivation | 81 |
| 2.3.9 | Socio-economic status and Academic Motivation | 83 |
| 2.4.0 | Hypothesis | 87 |

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

| | | |
|-----|-------------------------------|----|
| 3.1 | Research design | 89 |
| 3.2 | Population | 89 |
| 3.3 | Sample and sampling technique | 89 |
| 3.4 | Instrumentation | 90 |
| 3.5 | Procedure of administration | 96 |
| 3.6 | Method of data analysis | 96 |

CHAPTER FOUR

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

| | | |
|-----|----------------------------------|-----|
| 5.1 | Discussion of findings | 105 |
| 5.2 | Implication of the study | 112 |
| 5.3 | Contribution to knowledge | 113 |
| 5.4 | Recommendation | 114 |
| 5.5 | Limitations to the study | 115 |
| 5.6 | Generalization of the study | 115 |
| 5.7 | Suggestions for further research | 116 |
| | REFERENCES | 117 |
| | APPENDIXES | 157 |

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

LIST OF TABLES

- Table 4.1: Mean, Standard Deviation and Inter-correlations among the Variables
- Table 4.2: Multiple Regression Analysis on Students' Academic Confidence behaviour
- Table 4.3: The Predictive Effects of each of the Independent Variables on the Outcome Measure
- Table 4.4: Mean Standard Deviation and Inter-correlations among the Variables
- Table 4.5: Multiple Regression Analysis on Academic Motivation behaviour
- Table 4.6: The Predictive Effects of each of the Independent Variables on the Outcome Measure

ABSTRACT

Lack of academic confidence and motivation among undergraduates has become worrisome among stakeholders and educational psychologists. It often results in the inability to adjust to academic demands, socio-personal and psychological difficulties experienced by undergraduates which consequently lead to poor academic performance and high drop-out. Previous studies focused on dispositional factors with little attention on psycho-personological factors. This study, therefore, investigated psycho-personological factors (emotional intelligence, academic resilience, academic self-concept, school connectedness, gender, goal-setting, age and socio-economic status) as predictors of academic confidence and motivation among undergraduates in Southwestern Nigeria.

Self-determination theory provided the framework while correlational type of design was used. Multi-stage sampling procedure was employed to select respondents. Purposive sampling technique was used to select four states (Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo) in Southwestern Nigeria. A total of 1,150 respondents were selected using proportionate sampling method from four Federal Universities (Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta (285), Federal University of Technology, Akure (235), Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife (310), and University of Ibadan, (320). The students who served as participants were selected across various faculties and levels. The reliability coefficient of all the variables are as follows: Academic confidence ($r = 0.84$), Academic motivation ($r = 0.69$), Emotional intelligence ($r = 0.78$), School connectedness ($r = 0.65$), Academic self-concept ($r = 0.80$), Academic resilience ($r = 0.71$), Goal-setting ($r = 0.76$), and Parents' socio-economic status ($r = 0.70$) scales were used for data collection. Data were analysed using descriptive Statistics, Pearson product moment correlation and Multiple regression at 0.05 level of significance.

Respondents' mean age was 21.06 years with 57.4% females and 42.6% males. The correlation coefficient of the predictor variables are as follows: Emotional intelligence ($r = 0.55$), academic resilience ($r = 0.60$), academic self-concept ($r = 0.43$) and school connectedness ($r = 0.43$) correlated with academic confidence. Emotional intelligence ($r = 0.67$), academic resilience ($r = 0.59$), academic self-concept ($r = 0.39$) and school connectedness ($r = 0.35$) correlated with academic motivation. The variables had significant joint contribution on academic confidence ($F_{8, 1141} = 126.28$ and academic motivation ($F_{8, 1141} = 132.31$). The predictor variables had significant relationship with academic confidence ($R = 0.69$) and academic motivation ($R = 0.70$) accounting for 46.6% of the variance in academic confidence and 47.8% in academic motivation. The relative contributions of each of the predictor variables to academic confidence were: academic resilience ($\beta = 0.38$), school connectedness ($\beta = 0.25$), emotional intelligence ($\beta = 0.25$), parents' socio-economic status ($\beta = 0.13$) and academic self-concept ($\beta = 0.06$). The relative contributions of each of the predictor variables to academic motivation were: emotional intelligence ($\beta = 0.51$), academic resilience ($\beta = 0.17$) and school connectedness ($\beta = 0.06$).

High emotional intelligence, academic resilience, positive academic self-concept and high school connectedness were strong facilitators of academic confidence and motivation. Counselling and educational psychologists should develop interventions rooted in these factors by training University guidance counsellors on the psychological needs of students and how to handle students' psychological problems to enhance academic confidence and motivation among undergraduates

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, Academic resilience, School connectedness, Academic confidence, Academic motivation, Undergraduates in Southwestern Nigeria.

Word Count: 500

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Education has long been recognized as a vital key to unlocking underdevelopment in nations. It is an instrument for bringing about economic, socio-political, scientific and technological advancement of any country. This explains why a significant proportion of the annual budget is invested in the educational sector in most countries, either developing or developed.

The inputs, (infrastructure, funds and especially students and teachers) into the school system are processed by way of lectures, readings, seminars, counselling, interaction with colleagues and other social activities and the outcome is expected to be enlightened, cultured, educated, nationalistic and self-disciplined graduates. But a number of problems exist within and outside the educational institutions that could make it difficult for the intended outcomes to be achieved. Such problems are those that make it difficult for the students to get actualization in their study or inability to cope or face difficult challenges for effective teaching and learning, this often militate against the achievement of excellence in study.

While higher education institutions everywhere experience some degree of difficulty in the pursuit of their vision, mission and goals, those associated with institutions in developing countries as in Africa, are numerous. Some of these problems include lack of accommodation, challenges in technological information and communication technology disciplines. There are also problems of classroom spaces, lack of laboratories, poorly stocked libraries and most seriously poor funding compounded by large number of students which often lead to inability to attain academic confidence and motivation.

Over the years, it has been observed that lack of academic confidence and academic motivation has contributed greatly to poor academic performance among university undergraduates in Nigeria. This has also led to high rate of drop- outs among university undergraduates and inability to defend the degrees obtained by some of the graduates thus making it difficult for them to contribute their quota to the development of this great nation Nigeria, and also not being able to progress academically after the first degree even if they so desire.

This is also evidenced in the recent result that most first year students could not adequately read, write and comprehend. All these have necessitated the research in this aspect. Psychologists believe that drives, goals and needs of the individual learner could prompt him/her

to action. It is also widely accepted that an individual's beliefs and ideologies could have direct consequences on his/her motivation.

University education plays a significant role in the quest to develop the nation's future manpower for rapid development. When students arrive at university for the first time, they exhibit new found freedom. It is at this time that the students' academic motivations largely dictate the choices that they make, and whether or not they meet the different standards and expectations that are required of them (Clark & Schroth, 2010). To be motivated means to be moved to do something. A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated (Ryan & Deci, 2000). A highly motivated person tries to achieve to the best of his or her abilities, and to be consistent in that achievement (Sikhwari, 2004). To be motivated is an intentional act that provides meaning, an act that is undertaken by students under their lecturers' guidance, so as to eradicate perceived discrepancies between their self-concepts and their adequate selves; it is observable by the intensity of the learners' involvement in the relevant action (Crous, Roets, Dicker & Sonnekus 2000).

Academic motivation can be described as a student's desire (as reflected in approach, persistence and level of interest) regarding academic subjects when the student's competence is judged against a standard or excellence (Wigfield & Eccles 2002)

Bandura (1986, 1993) defined academic confidence as a belief in one's ability to successfully perform an action or achieve a certain goal. Academic confidence can originate from the mastery of skills, vicarious experiences, social invitations, and social/emotional support. Academic confidence is tied to academic agency, effort, motivation, and initiating and pursuing academic goals. Furthermore, a positive relationship exists between confidence and academic performance in addition to academic resiliency (Martin and Marsh, 2006). Creating academic goals, applying learning strategies, and monitoring the learning outcome are inherent processes of self-regulated learning (Butler & Winne, 1995; Winne, 1997, 2005). Pintrich and De Groot (1990) showed that a greater sense of academic confidence is related to higher levels of self-regulation by middle school students in mathematics and in English.

The typical university student has mastered skills to prepare for gleaned information and knowledge. Career opportunities for graduates abound. Why then do college/university students often lack motivation to pursue academic excellence? Factors that influence student learning in the classroom continues to be an important concern of teachers and administrators at all levels (Spurlling, 2010). The increase in number and diversity of university students

highlights the need for intervention to address lack of motivation and academic confidence. Universities are becoming more diverse as evidenced by students from different cultures, English and non-English speaking students, affluent and lower socio-economic students, motivated and unmotivated students.

An increasing number of university students find themselves at the end of the semester seeking additional time to complete required coursework. Research shows that infants and young children appear to be propelled by curiosity, driven by an intense need to explore, interact with, and make sense of their environment. As one author puts it, "Rarely does one hear parents complain that their pre-schooler is 'unmotivated.'" However, whether it is attributable to environmental influences or life experiences, students arrive at the university with varying levels of innate drive and motivation.

Even at the university level, students value parental involvement. An adjustment to the strategies could be made by increasing incentives to motivate parents to visit campus, including invitations and/or free tickets to sports events, music recitals, drama presentations, and faculty colloquia. Perhaps dorm rooms could be made available at a reduced price for family lodging. Students will learn what they want to learn and may have great difficulty learning material that does not interest them. Students are motivated to learn--new dance steps, the status hierarchy on campus, football strategies--learning that does not necessarily contribute to attaining the academic goals of university curricula.

Academic confidence is an individual's characteristic (a self-construct) which enables a person to have a positive or realistic view of him/ herself or situations that he is in (Sieler, 1998). It refers to a person's expectation of his or her ability to achieve a goal in a given situation and is a very influential factor in ensuring a person's potential is realised (Stevens, 2005). In other words, a person with a high academic confidence has a realistic view of himself and his capability which makes him persistence in his academics. According to Neill (2005), self-esteem and self-efficacy in combination is what constitute academic confidence. Self-esteem is defined as general feeling of self-worth or self-value. A person with low self-esteem believes that he or she is worthless or inadequate while a person who has high self-esteem believes otherwise. Academic confidence is the student's belief in his/her capacity to succeed in an academic setting. Self-efficacy according to Neill (2005) can be general or specific where general self-efficacy is belief in one's general capacity to handle tasks and specific self-efficacy refers to beliefs about one's ability to perform specific tasks in certain things. Self-efficacy is also sometimes used to

refer to situation specific academic confidence. Thus, academic confidence can be viewed as self-efficacy in an academic setting.

Confidence can be defined as having a strong belief, firm trust, or sure expectation; feeling certain, fully assured, self-reliant; having no fear of failure. Sander and Sanders (2005) maintain that confidence differs among people in the same situation and that people have differing levels of confidence in different situations. Thus, someone who is highly confident in a familiar setting for example, may lose confidence in an unfamiliar and challenging environment.

In concurrence with MacGregor's position, Boughey (2009) reports that tests are administered to school leavers' and their performance as a measure to determine their levels of university preparedness, indicated a drop in standards and a lack of reading skills. This point is clearly articulated by Boughey: "it is not simply that reading at university level is more difficult than other sorts of reading but rather involves the reader taking up a different position in relationship to what he/she reads-a problem which is ultimately derived from values and attitudes to what is knowledge and how knowledge can be known. Furthermore, factors such as a lack of reading and writing skills; language barriers; employing a surface learning approach; lack of effective study skills and intrinsic motivation; inability to understand complex material and a lack of academic confidence and regulation aspects as having a major contribution to academic failure. These factors contribute to the academic unpreparedness of students in higher education institutions. Furthermore, higher levels of confidence significantly correlated with effective learning strategy use (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990). Hence, confidence (such as expectations of high achievement) and self-regulated learning (such as monitoring the outcome of using certain learning strategies) are positively associated with one another.

Motivation involves a constellation of beliefs, perceptions, values, interests, and actions that are all closely related. As a result, various approaches to motivation can focus on cognitive behaviors (such as monitoring and strategy use), non-cognitive aspects (such as perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes), or both. Gottfried (1990) defines academic motivation as "enjoyment of school learning characterized by a mastery orientation; curiosity; persistence; task-endogeny; and the learning of challenging, difficult, and novel tasks". On the other hand, Turner (1995) considers motivation to be synonymous with cognitive engagement, which he defines as "voluntary uses of high-level self-regulated learning strategies, such as paying attention, connection, planning, and monitoring".

Regarding the role of emotional intelligence, it has been noted that in the beginning, psychologists focused on cognitive constructs like memory and problem solving in their first attempt to write on intelligence. This did not last when researchers began to challenge this orientation and recognized that there are other non – cognitive aspects of intelligence. For instance, Robert Thorndike wrote about social intelligence in 1937. And as early as 1943, David Wechsler proposed that the non – intelligence abilities are essential for predicting ability to succeed in life. Imbrosciano and Berlach (2003) have remarked that “success” may be viewed in three main domains. A good student is often referred to as being “intelligent” or “well behaved” or “academically successful”. Arising from this are the questions: are there any connection between these domains? Is there a strong connection, between intelligence and academic achievement? These and many more questions underscore the important place intelligence has been found to play in academic success.

Goleman (1995) gave an answer when he asserted that success depends on several intelligences and on the control of emotion. Specifically, he stressed that intelligence (IQ) alone is no more the measure of success. According to him, intelligence account for only 20% of the total success, and the rest goes for Emotional and Social intelligences. Abisamra (2000) then queried that if this is found to be so, why is it that teachers do not teach its components (i.e., emotional intelligences) to student at schools? He then concluded that if emotional intelligence affects student achievement, then it is imperative for schools to integrate it in their curricula and thereby raising the level of students’ success.

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), Emotional Intelligence is being able to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this to guide one’s thinking and actions. An emotionally intelligent person is skilled in four areas: identifying, using, understanding and regulating emotions. Similarly it has also been stressed that emotional intelligence consists of five components: Knowing one’s emotions (self-awareness), managing them, motivating self, recognizing emotions in others (empathy), and handling relationships. Based on the above, social scientists and educational psychologists are beginning to uncover the relationship of emotional intelligences to other phenomenon. These are: leadership (Ashfort & Humphrey, 1995); group performance (Williams & Sternberg, 1988); academic achievement and policing (Aremu, 2005).

This implies that emotional intelligence is significant to the prediction of various academic and organizational outcomes. Emotions, whether negative or positive could have roots at home, this means that the type of emotion a student emits could have stemmed from the

support or lack of support from parents. This is where parental involvement and support come to play in the academic development of students even at university level. Thus, it is believed that when parents monitor homework, encourage participation in extracurricular activities, are active in parents – teacher association, and help children develop plans for their future; children are more likely to respond and do well in school (Aremu & Tella, 2011). It is widely recognized that if pupils are to maximize their potential from schooling they will need the full support of their parents. Attempts to enhance parental involvement in education occupy governments, administrators, educators and parent's organization across North America, Australia, continental Europe, Scandinavia and the United Kingdom. It is anticipated that parents should play a role not only in the promotion of their own children's achievements but more broadly in school improvement and the democratization of school governance. The European commission, for example, holds that the degree of parental participation is a significant indicator of the quality of schooling.

Academic self-concept is another important component of academic motivation research studies (Cokley, 2003) and is the other concern of this research study. One of the essential aims of education has been the enhancement of positive self-concept which is believed to be a mediating variable of desired outcomes (Shavelson & Bolus, 1982; Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976). Academic self-concept refers to attitudes and feelings that students have about their intellectual or academic skills, especially when comparing them with other students (Lent, Brown & Gore, 1997). It consists of a mixture of cognitive judgments or self-beliefs in addition to affective judgments or self-feelings about one's academic skills.

Marsh (1989) stated that there was a consistent pattern of self-concept declining from a young age through at least adolescence, leveling out, and then increasing at least through early adulthood. Marsh and Craven (1997) mentioned that although young children have higher self-concept, they develop more realistic judgments of their relative weaknesses and strengths as they grow up and those experiences are fit into their self-concept. Similarly, Guay, Marsh, and Boivin (2003) contend that as children become older, measurement of academic self-concept becomes more reliable and stable since children's awareness toward the world increases as they become older. In addition, with the increase of age, self-concepts of young children become more predictable and are more closely aligned with external indicators (Wigfield, Battle, Keller & Eccles, 2001). For instance, school environment is one of the factors that stress the importance of evaluation and competition as students grow older (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002). Furthermore, academic self-concept was found to be positively associated with global self-

esteem and the individuals who decided to participate in higher education for cognitive interest regarded as having the most positive academic self-concept (Michie, Glachan & Bray, 2001). Regardless of government policies, some parents have always been actively involved in enhancing their children's development and educational progress. This spontaneous activity has taken a number of forms including 'good parenting' in the home pre-school (which provides a good foundation of skills, values, attitudes and self-concept); visits to school to gather relevant information and establish good relationships; discussions with teachers to keep abreast of the child's progress or to discuss emergent problems; and assisting more broadly in the practical activities and governance of the school. As a matter of fact, McMillan (2000a) noted that parental pressure has a positive and significant effect on public school performance. This becomes particularly obvious when the exactness of parental pressure is brought to bear on the children's academic performance.

Academic resilience, as one of the variables in this study, is defined as an individual's ability to "bounce back" from adversity, to overcome negative influences that often block academic achievement (Rutter & Werner, 1984; Winfield, 1991). Resilient at-risk students were intrinsically motivated and demonstrated locus of control that enabled them to succeed. Additionally, resilient students who had family support, were involved in extracurricular activities, enjoyed school and involved themselves in school-related activities (Coburn, 1989; Peng, Lee, Wang, & Walberg 1991); Werner, 1984). In other words, personal factors, family factors, and school factors seem to promote resilience among at-risk academically successful students.

Alva (1991) used a term "academic invulnerability" to describe students who "sustain high levels of achievement, motivation and performance, despite the presence of stressful events and conditions that place them at risk of doing poorly in school and ultimately dropping out of school". In her study, she examined the characteristics of a cohort of tenth – grade Mexican American students, finding that resilient or invulnerable students (that is, students who maintained a high grade point average in the tenth grade and were from a low socioeconomic background) reported higher levels of educational support from their teachers and friends and were more likely to "feel encouraged and prepared to attend college, enjoy coming to school and being involved in high school activities, experience fewer conflicts and difficulties in their intergroup relations with other students, and experience fewer family conflicts and difficulties".

On school connectedness, Blum (2005) stated that educators need to realize that students must first connect with people before they are willing to connect with institutions. The national

movement in education to raise academic standards by improving student achievement must first consider the fundamental issue of providing safe and supportive learning communities (Learning First Alliance, 2001). Research and reform must consider the complexities associated with schools to be able to affect students and their learning (Klem & Connell, 2004).

Understanding school connectedness and its impact on student success is a topic that has gained popularity in more recent years. Researchers are interested not only in the positive educational and health outcomes potentially associated with school connectedness, but are also interested in factors that promote connectedness in schools. The concepts of school connectedness and belongingness are found throughout psychological and educational literature. Several theoretical streams have identified aspects of school connectedness as theoretically important for healthy adolescent development (McNeely, 2003). However, this topic has been associated with a variety of terms besides school connectedness, such as school community, school bonding, school climate, school attachment, and social belonging. Whatever the terminology, though, school connectedness encompasses all elements related to a students' affiliation with school (Young, 2005).

Goal setting as another variable being considered is a powerful technique for helping learners develop a solid foundation for future planning and organization. By knowing what he/she wants to achieve in life, learners may know where they want to concentrate and what to improve. If they can set well-defined goals, they can take pride in the achievements of those goals.

However, one of the most important tasks is to assist undergraduates in setting short-term goals (less than a year) and long term goals (more than four years). Aspiring to achieve long term goals, gives the adolescents' short term motivation. For instance an undergraduate who aspires to come out with a first class (long-term goal) will need to do well on short-term goal by performing well in the semesters' examination.

Goal setting is a motivational technique used by both individuals and organizations to improve performance. The theory of goal setting was introduced by Locke in 1968 and has enjoyed a substantial review in the psychological arena over the past three decades (Tubbs, 2006).

However, one also needs to take into account the general mediating effects of goal commitment on assigned and self-set goals, in that self-set goals usually result in more commitment, influencing performance (Hollenbeck & Klein, 2007). It was also proposed that various personal and situational factors, for example, a high need for achievement and a

conducive social influence, will impact the attractiveness and expectancy of goal attainment. The interactive combination of these two factors (attractiveness and expectancy) forms the basis of goal commitment (Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham 1999).

Within the context of the above, the use of goal setting will act as a motivational tool by directing attention, mobilizing effort, increasing persistence and motivating the ability to develop the most applicable strategy in the face of a variety of pressure (Terborg 2006).

Age is considered one of the independent variables that may likely affect the academic confidence and motivation of university undergraduates in this study. Cognitive development and maturity (which are associated with age) are necessary for a worthwhile performance of students.

Age of the individual, as it increases usually affects the various developmental changes. It also affects every area of human performance (Ukueze, 2007). Therefore, it has become necessary to examine the extent to which age affects academic confidence and motivation of the undergraduates.

Gender is one of the personal variables that have been related to differences found in motivational functioning and academic achievement. Different research has demonstrated the existence of different attribution patterns in boys and girls, such that while girls tend to give more emphasis to effort when explaining their performance (Lightbody, Siann, Stocks & Walsh, 1996), boys appeal more to ability and luck as causes of their academic achievement (Burgner & Hewstone, 1993). Different research has also pointed out that girls usually make external attributions for successes and failures, and that when they make internal attributions, these refer not so much to effort, but to ability (Wiegers & Friere, 1977; Postigo, Perez & Sanz, 1999). However, boys usually attribute successes to stable internal causes like effort, thus showing an attributional pattern which enables them to enhance their own image of themselves (Smith, Sinclair and Chapman, 2002). Research of gender differences in cognitive processes, intellectual abilities, area of interest, stereotypical perceptions of everyday behaviours and the ability to perform various tasks has not been conducted. The differences in the scholastic achievements of boys and girls are generally attributed to biological causes and/or to cultural and stereotypes (Klein, 2004).

The last two decades have been devoted to addressing gender inequality in education. Some studies (Okebukola, 1993; & jiboku, 2008) have shown an all – time low participation of women in education. Educators have therefore expended tremendous efforts in the study of the personal factors affecting academic achievement especially in the sciences and social

sciences. Notable among these variables is the study of the phenomenon of gender or sex equity in education. A rich harvest of explanation of causes, understanding of cost to the society and possible intervention has brought about several researches, workshops, seminars and training in this area.

In Nigeria, gender issues abound in all spheres of the society. The educational conditions of the girl-child vis-à-vis the boy-child constitute an important gender issue. In our cultural setting, the cultural and traditional responsibilities of men and women are different; hence the influences in the upbringing of the female child and male child. Bisong (2006) observes "... those who operate a curriculum meant to foster integration of courses for girls and boys are likely to unconsciously reflect the cultural bias".

Socio-economic status (SES) become stronger for individuals at the post-secondary level (Trusty, 2000) because more family and individual resources are necessary to attain this level.

The home has a great influence on the students' psychological, emotional, social and economic state. In the view of Ajila and Olutola (2000), the state of the home affects the individual since the parents are the first socializing agents in an individual's life. This is because the family background and context of a child affect his reaction to life situations and his level of performance. Although, the school is responsible for the experiences that make up the individual's life during school periods, yet parents and the individual's experiences at home play tremendous roles in building the personality of the child and making the child what he is. Thus, Ichado (1998) concluded that the environment in which the student comes from can greatly influence his performance in school.

The home environment or family has been recognized as having a lot of influence on the academic performance of students (Nzewuawah, 1995; Ajila & Olutola, 2000). Studies have been concentrated on the area of socio-economic status of parents. Other aspects of parental environment such as the structure of the family have been grossly neglected. It has been stated that parents' constant disagreement affects children emotionally and this could lead to poor academic performance in school.

The family lays the psychological, moral and spiritual foundation in the overall development of the child. While the mother's significant role in this cannot be over-emphasized. Studies on father-child relationship suggest that the presence of a father in the home influences significantly the development of a child (Agulanna, 1999). Thus,

parenthood is a responsibility requiring full cooperation of both parents who must ensure the total development of their offspring.

Research suggests that, schools that provide safe and supportive learning environments for their students are more successful at promoting student achievement and developing qualities of good character and citizenship (Roeser, Midgely & Urdan, 1996; Rowe, Stewart, & Patterson, 2007; Van Ryzin, Gravely, and Roseth (2009). Past studies have also shown that a connected school environment is an important factor in reducing the likelihood that adolescents will engage in health-compromising behaviors and in reducing the likelihood that adolescent will be absent or disengaged from school over time (Juvonen, 2007; Nichols, 2008). What remains unknown is the potential influence that factors within a school environment have on promoting students' sense of school connectedness.

Within the first cluster of definitions the second theme equates resilience with a pattern of positive adaptation in the context of significant risk or adversity (Masten & powell, 2003). According to this conceptualization, an individual may be considered resilient based on two major kinds of judgments. Firstly, the individual faces significant risks or adversity and secondly, the quality of adaptation is acceptable. Positive adaptation in the absence of risk / adversity is not considered a manifestation of resilience.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Education has long been recognized as a vital key to unlocking underdevelopment in nations. It is an instrument for bringing about economic, socio-political, scientific and technological advancement of any country. This explains why a significant proportion of the annual budget is invested in the educational sector in most countries, either developing or developed.

The inputs, (infrastructure, funds and especially students and teachers) into the school system are processed by way of lectures, readings, seminars, counselling, interaction with colleagues and other social activities and the outcome is expected to be enlightened, cultured, educated, nationalistic and self-disciplined graduates. But a number of problems exist within and outside the educational institutions that could make it difficult for the intended outcomes to be achieved. Such problems are those that make it difficult for the students to get actualization in their study or inability to cope or face difficult challenges for effective teaching and learning, this often militate against the achievement of excellence in study.

While higher education institutions everywhere experience some degree of difficulty in the pursuit of their vision, mission and goals, those associated with institutions in developing countries as in Africa, are numerous. Some of these problems include lack of accommodation, challenges in technological information and communication technology disciplines. There are also problems of classroom spaces, lack of laboratories, poorly stocked libraries and most seriously poor funding compounded by large number of students which often lead to inability to attain academic confidence and motivation.

Over the years, it has been observed that lack of academic confidence and academic motivation has contributed greatly to poor academic performance among university undergraduates in Nigeria. This has also led to high rate of drop-outs among university undergraduates and inability to defend the degrees obtained by some of the graduates thus making it difficult for them to contribute their quota to the development of this great nation Nigeria, and also not being able to progress academically after the first degree even if they so desire.

This is also evidenced in the recent result that most first year students could not adequately read, write and comprehend. All these have necessitated the research in this aspect. Psychologists believe that drives, goals and needs of the individual learner could prompt him/her to action. It is also widely accepted that an individual believes and ideologies could have direct consequences on his/her motivation.

In colleges and universities, it is generally acknowledged that undergraduates are expected to demonstrate academic competence during their first year to continue their study until their graduation, but this has not been that possible due to lack of academic confidence and motivation which often results in the inability to adjust to academic demands, socio-personal and psychological difficulties experienced by undergraduates which consequently lead to poor academic performance and high drop-out.

The challenge of getting maximum performance from undergraduates in Nigeria seems to have become a source of worry to university managements, stakeholders, parents and others. Adisa (2004) and Wojuade (2008) affirmed that there is serious gap that exists when undergraduates fail to adjust to the increasing challenges in their academic pursuit.

Lack of academic confidence and motivation among undergraduates has also resulted into falling standard of education in the society thus, the inability to effectively contribute their quota to the development of the nation, lack of interest in learning by the students, inability to

exhibit high sense of responsibility coupled with the lack of interest to further studies beyond the first degree.

However, researchers such as Aremu (2000) and Ogundokun (2007) have continued to investigate more on academic performance, neglecting associated factors that could produce it. This study therefore investigated psycho-personological factors as predictors of academic confidence and motivation among undergraduates in Southwestern Nigeria.

1.3 Purpose of study

The main purpose of this study was to investigate psycho-personological factors (Emotional Intelligence, academic resilience, academic self-concept, goal-setting, school connectedness, gender, age and socio-economic status) as predictors of academic confidence and motivation among undergraduates in Southwestern Nigeria. Specifically, the study has been able to;

- Examine the relationship among the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, academic resilience, academic self-concept, goal-setting, school connectedness, gender, age and socio-economic status) and academic confidence and academic motivation.
- Find out the combined effect of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, academic resilience, academic self-concept, goal-setting, school connectedness, gender, age and socio-economic status) on academic confidence and academic motivation.
- Determine the relative contribution of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, academic resilience, academic self-concept, goal-setting, school connectedness, gender, age and socio-economic status) on academic confidence and academic motivation.

1.4 Significance of the study

The study is significant in a sense that it would broaden the readers' understanding of the mechanisms of academic confidence and academic motivation among undergraduates.

The identification of students' academic confidence problems commonly encountered by undergraduates provides the whole picture of the situation. This in turn allows university administrators, counselling and educational psychologists and student affair offices design appropriate policy and program with varieties of support packages to address the needs of the strong academic confidence and academic motivation among their students.

Discovery of confidence problems of students, particularly of those related to academics will help teachers to design appropriate interventions in collaboration with respective colleges and departments so that students may be helped. It is hoped that the study will provide insight for the university administrators and Ministry of Education to formulate preventive mechanisms before students join higher institutions.

The findings of this study will bring to the attention of the authorities of the university the major problems facing undergraduates' academic confidence and academic motivation, it will go a long way to assist the students and also help in identifying those problems that are peculiar to only male or female students and those common to both sexes. It will also assist the University authority in taking significant steps and proffering lasting solutions to the various problems identified and ranked high by the students.

The findings will also help students to have better understanding of the reasons and sources of their academic challenges, confront these challenges, avoid them where possible and evolve more pragmatic ways of dealing with them. Through dissemination of the research findings, students may recognize their situation and are encouraged to seek more timely assistance and services. In general, in order for higher institutions to better accommodate the significant number of students, it is crucial to identify and understand the many factors that affect the confidence and motivation of these students.

This study therefore is expected to be relevant to students, the counsellors and human development officers, university administrators, educational psychologists, teachers and researchers in the field, policy makers in education and health officials at different levels. It will enable the students identify the reasons behind their lack of academic confidence and motivation, then taking active steps to change this. It will also enable the University administrators discover the psychological factors and school related factors that shape students' academic confidence and motivation, which can all be put in good condition by the school. To the educational psychologists, the study will enable them look into the factors that largely determine students' academic confidence and motivation and thereby concentrate efforts on strengthening those variables in the school setting.

The findings in this study will also go a long way in enabling the teachers to receive training on how to improve those factors that predict academic confidence and motivation. It will also be addition to body of literature in that it will provide adequate information on academic confidence and academic motivation among undergraduates.

1.5 Scope of the study

The study was centered around four selected Federal Universities in Southwestern Nigeria. The universities are; Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Federal University of Technology, Akure, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, and University of Ibadan.

Also, the study only investigated personal and psychological factors that could predict academic confidence and motivation among undergraduates in selected Federal Universities in Southwestern Nigeria.

1.6 Operational definition of terms

The following terms were defined based on their contextual usage in this study.

Personological Factors: These are the factors that are naturally resident in the undergraduates which could influence their academic processes. Personological factors here are; age, gender and socio- economic status.

Psychological Factors: The factors that are within the emotional status of the undergraduates which could influence their academic processes. Psychological factors here are; Academic resilience, emotional intelligence, school connectedness, academic self- concept and goal setting.

Academic Confidence: This is the undergraduates' confidence in his or her ability to engage in behaviour that might be required during his or her academic career.

Academic Motivation: This refers to as the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of undergraduate's behaviours towards his or her learning situation.

Academic Resilience: is defined as the undergraduates' ability to deal effectively with setbacks, challenges, and pressure in the school setting.

Emotional Intelligence: This refers to as the ability of undergraduates to identify their own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this to guide their thinking and actions in the university.

School Connectedness: A belief by the undergraduates that the adults and peers in the school care about their learning as well as them as individuals. School connectedness is a general term which is used to describe a sense of belonging to the school environment which includes people, classroom settings, teachers, other students, staff, administrators, places and policies, activities and school rules.

Academic Self-Concept: This is comprised of a set of attitudes, beliefs and perceptions held by the undergraduates about their academic skills and performance.

Goal Setting: This deals with the effective preparation of aims and ambitions that the undergraduate intends to achieve at the end of his or her study in the University.

Socio-Economic Status: This refers to the parental incomes, parental occupation and educational qualification which may/may not influence the undergraduates' learning outcomes.

Age: This is the length of time that an undergraduate has been alive or existed.

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviewed the related literature for the study. The purpose of the review is to uncover what studies have done in the area of study, what the findings are and what else is left to be done, and detailed appraisal of the literature with a view to sharpening the researcher's knowledge about the study.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1.1 Academic confidence

In any school setting, whether it is elementary, secondary, or higher education, a student's confidence in learning is generally regarded as one of the most critical determinants for the successful schooling. There is a growing interest among the teachers, parents, educational consultants about the variation in confidence which the students possess in their academics. Academic Confidence refers to a student's conviction in attaining the academic goals confidently by overcoming the academic barriers. Students who are confident in their capability to organize, execute, and regulate their problem-solving or task performances in their academics are exhibiting high academic confidence. Academic confidence explains that the behavior of individuals is not always accurately predicted from their capability to accomplish a specific task. However it depends on the individual's belief of how they will perform in academics.

The students' beliefs and attitudes about their self-make, makes one's self-concept. This concept differs as a result of different central and peripheral concepts and different hierarchical structures arising from different experiences, many of which will be social. The self-concept that the students possess will guide them in their studies in school as well as in their non-academic lives. Their perception towards their academic self will bear a substantial result in their studies. Closely linked to self-concept are self-esteem, self-confidence and self-efficacy, which come from self-evaluation of how people feel about themselves. It is likely that the school will affect their self-esteem as academic challenges are faced.

Academic confidence is conceptualized as being how students differ in the extent to which they have a strong belief, firm, trust or sure expectation in their ability to respond to the demands of studying at University. This implies that the degree of a student's confidence determines the extent of his or her performance in academics. When a student is highly confident, his/her academic performance may be enhanced. Confidence in educational settings

has been a variable of interest in higher research. For example, self-perception of intellectual ability has been shown to have a positive influence on adjustment in college (Boulter, 2002)

In a classroom setting, (Harrison, Maples, Testa & Jones, 1993) measured students confidence as part of a study on the academic self-concept of undergraduates, specifically focusing on confidence within a classroom and in relations with teachers. In a similarly tightly focused study, Schraw (1997) measured students' confidence in their answers to test items.

The student Goal Exploration Test (Stark, Bently, Lowther & Shaw, 1991) has, at last set of scales, measures of confidence level and student anxiety. The subscale though, measures confidence in course success. Looking at the transition from school to college, Fielstein and Bush, (1998) sought to identify non-cognitive variables influencing academic confidence as well as satisfaction with the transition into university and pre-college decision making by contrasting the attributes and profiles for students undertaking remedial course with those that are not.

According to Burns cited in Ulmer (2007), academic confidence results from peoples' belief that they will probably succeed at a task, based on their previous successes". It is the assurance that you have the ability to do a task. Academic behavioural confidence (ABC) is a construct that refers to the students' beliefs that they can perform competently in a particular learning situation. Students become motivated when they believe that they can be successful in learning new material and performing new tasks. Confidence contributes to achievement. Confident students have been found to be better able to attain goals than students who do not have confidence in their own abilities (Bandura 1977; Jones 1977). In accordance with Bandura's (1986) Social cognitive theory "what people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave. Their natural and extrinsic effects of their actions, in turn, partly determine their thought patterns and affective reactions.

Bandura cited in Pajares (2000) further argues that: "educational practices should be gauged not only by the skills and knowledge they impart for present use but also by what they do to students' beliefs about their capabilities, which affects how they approach the future. Self- efficacy research has helped to tease out the contributions that ability and self-confidence in one's ability makes to academic success and in arrears beyond education (Crozieri 1997).

On developing a measure of academic confidence, there is a wealth of evidence showing that academic confidence affects academic performance, as part of its general effect on behaviour. However, this blanket effect may observe some more specific differences that could be applicable to educational settings. In particular higher education, where the autonomy and

independence of the students are essential to success. In this context, a new construct distinct from its parent concept, self-efficacy, was suggested and termed 'academic confidence'.

As with self-efficacy, academic confidence is likely to be primarily determined by mastery experience (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2002) but as already been argued in relation to self-efficacy, a plethora of social factors within and around the educational process are also likely to be influential.

Individuals form their academic confidence by interpreting information primarily from four sources: mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasions, and physiological reactions. For most people, the most influential source is the interpreted result of one's own performance, or mastery experience. Simply put, students gauge the effects of their actions, and their interpretations of these effects help develop their academic confidence. Success raises academic confidence; failure lowers it. Students who perform well on mathematics tests and earn high grades in mathematics classes develop confidence in their mathematics capabilities. This sense of confidence helps ensure that they will enroll in subsequent mathematics-related classes, approach mathematics tasks with serenity, and increase their efforts when a difficulty arises.

In addition to interpreting the results of their mastery experiences, students can develop their academic confidence through the vicarious experience of observing others perform tasks. Observing the successes and failures of peers perceived as similar in capability contributes to belief in one's own capabilities (i.e., "If he can do it, so can I!"). Although this source of information is usually weaker than is mastery experience, when adolescents are uncertain about their own abilities or have limited previous experience, they become especially sensitive to it. If there is one finding that is incontrovertible in education and psychology, it is that young people learn from the actions of models, and so this is a prominent area of research in the study of academic confidence.

Vicarious experience also involves the social comparisons that students make with each other. These comparisons, along with peer modeling, can be powerful influences on academic confidence. In situations in which young people have little experience with which to form a judgment of their competence in a particular area, peer models are especially useful.

Academic confidence is also influenced by the verbal messages and social persuasions students receive from other students or lecturers, whether these are intentional or accidental. These messages can help a student to exert the extra effort and persistence required to succeed, resulting in the continued development of skills and of his/her academic confidence. Or they can be powerfully disheartening.

Persuaders play an important part in the development of a student's academic confidence. Effective persuaders must cultivate people's beliefs in their capabilities while at the same time ensuring that the envisioned success is attainable. And, just as positive persuasions may work to encourage and empower, negative persuasions can work to defeat and weaken academic confidence. Physiological and emotional states such as anxiety and stress, along with one's mood, go a long way in influencing a student's academic confidence. Typically, optimism or a positive mood enhances academic confidence, whereas depression, despair, or a sense of despondency diminishes it.

2.1.2 Academic motivation

Motivation comes from the word 'moveo', meaning to move, stir, agitate, provoke or affect. Motivation answers the questions 'why do people act? Why do they behave in a given manner? Why do they continue or discontinue their behaviours?' Motivation can be defined as the process responsible for the initiation, intensity and persistence of behaviour. Motives are causes that produce certain effects or actions (including inaction). Academic motivation therefore refers to the cause of behaviours that are in some way related to academic functioning and success, such as how much effort students put forth, how effectively they regulate their work, which career they choose to pursue and how persistent they are.

Pannell (2012) opined that motivation, conceptually defined, is the reason for goal-oriented behavior, which may be intrinsic or extrinsic. Students will thrive when they are motivated in doing so and when they see results for the future that they desire. People will not act on something if they believe they will not get the desired effects of their actions. "Such beliefs influence aspirations and strength of goal commitments, level of motivation and perseverance in the face of difficulties and setbacks, resilience to adversity, quality of analytic thinking, casual attributions for successes and failures, and vulnerability to stress and depression," (Bandura, 1996). This makes it easy to see how one's lack of knowledge about college and family support can play a major role in whether someone is motivated to enroll in college. A key factor of intelligence and success seems to be motivation (Carey, 1995). Within motivation hides self-efficacy, or an individual's belief in his or her ability to succeed. During the formative years, motivation and level of efficacy will affect interest in his or her preparation educationally, persistence, and level of success in his or her academic career (Bandura, 1996).

The concept of motivation is used in many different disciplines to analyze the 'what and why' (Deci and Ryan, 2000) of human action. A vast body of literature exists on the relationship

of motivation and performance in professional work and organization settings (e.g. Osterloh, Frey & Homberger, 2011; Gagné & Deci, 2005). Motivation is widely acknowledged to enhance performance and efficiency of staff (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Beyond work settings motivation may influence performance in academic settings and among university students.

Academic Motivation focuses on the works of Vallerand, Pelletier and Koester (2008) or Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal and Vallieres (1992) who developed the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) by drawing on the self-determination theory (SDT) proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985). 'Motivation' is operationalized as the underlying "why" of behavior" (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal & Vallieres, 1992). Academic motivation asks the question "Why do you go to college?" (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal & Vallieres, 1992). Thus, academic motivation can be understood as the motivation to decide for and continue with university studies.

Deci and Ryan basically identify "several distinct types of motivation" (Ryan and Deci, 2000). These types of motivation root in the perceived locus of causality, which can be internal, external or impersonal. Motivation for the behavior can range from a motivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment. According to self-determination theory, SDT, these different motivations reflect differing degrees to which the value and regulation of the requested behavior have been internalized and integrated.

Deci and Ryan (2000) apply a very narrow definition of intrinsic motivation. A person is intrinsically motivated if an activity is done for itself and for the pleasure that derives from doing the activity. The development of intrinsic motivation is dependent on the degree in which the innate psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence are supported by the social environment. In turn, if behavior is not restricted by external forces, people can experience their actions as self-determined. Intrinsic motivation "refers to doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself" (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Keywords that describe intrinsic motivation are interest, enjoyment, and inherent satisfaction. Individuals engage freely in activities where they experience these phenomena.

In contrast, extrinsic motivation is related to behavior that is not done for its own sake but for external reasons. These external reasons can be rewards or punishments: "People behave to attain a desired consequence such as tangible rewards or to avoid a threatened punishment." (Deci & Ryan, 2000), the more external regulation is internalized the more actions are experienced as autonomous, that is, self-determined. Ryan and Deci (2000) developed a continuum of self-determination with amotivation at one end, different types of extrinsic

motivation in the middle, and intrinsic motivation at the other end. Amotivation describes the situation where the actor perceives his or her behavior as being determined by external forces completely out of his or her own control (Cokley 2000).

The self-determination theory SDT, serves Vallerand and his colleagues (1992, 2008) as the theoretical underpinning to investigate students' academic motivation. They developed the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) to measure students' motivation, which was again further validated by Cokley (2000). Academic motivation is close to the term 'motivation to learn'. Following Krapp (1993) motivation to learn, deals with psychological processes which explain the appearance and evolvement of learning activities and its effects. Classical research fields are classroom settings and instruction. Obviously it is also part of academic learning. Learning as well as achieving play certainly a role for motivation to study, learning processes are naturally a part of university education and of academic motivation. A whole body of literature from school and educational psychology exists on learning motivation with emphasis on learning and instruction. Many studies deal with students' motivation regarding their learning aspirations and their psychological processes of learning (e.g. Murtonen, Olkinuora, Tynjala and Lehtinen. 2008, Paulsen & Feldman, 2005; Valle, Canabach, & Nunez 2003,; Salili, Chi-yue & Ying-yi 2001; Bures, Abrami & Amundsen 2000). Nevertheless, learning motivation is not to be confused with academic motivation for the latter focuses exclusively on reasons why individuals decide for and continue with university studies.

Considering the influence of impact factor on motivation, non-traditional students are academic learners who were traditionally widely excluded from higher education for various reasons. The traditional university student of the past was financed by parents, studied full time, and started university directly after a high school diploma had been acquired. Due to vast changes in higher education from elite to a mass system, this is not an adequate pattern of the contemporary academic reality anymore (OECD 2010). Nevertheless, Students who go to university at a later life cycle stage have more life experience, work experience, and perhaps more self-reflection on the reasons why to study. From the perspective of human capital theory, non-traditional students have less time in their life to yield profit from their educational investment because they are older than other students already. Therefore, we assume that extrinsic motivation like financial payoffs do not play a prominent role regarding their reasons to study. Additionally, if a student has to work more than 20 hours a week for his or her livelihood during semester, there has to be strong intrinsic motivation to continue with the studies.

The second factor assumed to have an influence on academic motivation is the field of study. Certain occupational fields imply higher future salaries to students than others. Alumni of business administration or engineering earn much more in the average than graduates from social sciences (Graduate Employment Survey 2011). Financial rewards are perceived to enlarge extrinsic motivation (Frey & Osterloh, 2002); the same can be supposed for income prospects. This leads to the assumption that students from different study fields show different academic motivation. The higher the expected salary associated with a certain discipline the more students in this field of study are extrinsically motivated.

Thirdly, taking the stage of studies into consideration when investigating academic motivation. Undergraduates study because all other peers study as well or because the parents expect it. Especially students in the first two semesters study because their environment expects that. That implies that undergraduate students perceive the locus of control for their behavior outside themselves and thus are more extrinsically motivated. Older students are less dependent from their family and peers in their behavior and therefore more likely to be interested in the field of studies itself and therefore more intrinsically motivated.

Another factor influencing academic motivation is the social background of students; particularly the educational background of the parents is here important. Drawing on Boudon's (1974) distinction between primary and secondary effects of social origin, a lot of studies confirm that these effects are responsible for the under representation of working class children at universities (Becker 2009; Schindler & Reimer, 2010; Schindler & Lörz, 2011). The majority of these studies emphasize that primary effects play only a minor role for explaining discrimination of lower class children, whereas secondary effects can better explain social inequalities. These secondary effects can not only explain general decisions for or against a university study but also the transition from Bachelor to Master programs (Ausprung & Hinz, 2011). Schindler explains the differences between both effects as follows:

“Since students from lower status families can rely on less cultural resources than their classmates from higher status families, their school achievement will on average be lower than that of their peers. At the same time, even if we were to compare students with the same achievement levels, we could observe additional (secondary) social background effects in that students from higher status families would aspire to higher levels of education more often than their lower status counterparts. Social differences in educational aspirations are seen as the outcome of cost-benefit considerations, while both the costs and benefits attached to continuing education differ between social backgrounds.” (Schindler 2010).

The social background influences academic motivation. In families where at least one parent acquired a university qualification, children grow up in an atmosphere that promotes academic thinking and academic behavior in general. It is believed that students from a higher-class background are more focused on scientific topics because for these families, academic thinking is a value in itself (Boudon 1974; Becker 2009).

This attitude in the family home to value academic thinking as such has the potential to promote intrinsic academic motivation. Students' environment, Organizational and structural side of studying. We lean on the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) from Hackman and Oldham (1980) to shed light on organizational requirements for motivation. The approach shows how job characteristics influence work satisfaction and motivation which are in turn believed to influence job performance positively. The model contains five core job dimensions that encourage motivation and job satisfaction: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback. Intrinsic motivation is believed to occur when three critical psychological states are present in the individual. The JCM found support for the proposed relationships between job characteristics and psychological states as well as motivational outcomes in various studies (Fried and Ferris, 1987). The core job dimensions generate the psychological states as follows:

- A job perceived as providing skill variety, task identity, and task significance leads to the experience of meaningfulness.
- Perceived autonomy generates individual responsibility for work outcomes.
- Feedback creates knowledge of the results.

Organizational characteristics of studying at a university can influence motivation in academic settings – analogue to the findings related to the occupational setting. The autonomy (second bullet point) is transferable to academic settings and appropriate to analyze students' reaction to study conditions. A high level of intrinsic motivation is dependent on structured conditions which allow feelings of autonomy and flexibility. Autonomy is defined by Hackman and Oldham as follows: "The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). When a task provides considerable autonomy, the performing person will perceive the work outcomes as depending largely on his or her own effort, initiative, and decision. The outcomes are not attributed to external institutions like instructions from a supervisor or a personal set of regulations. Transferred to academic settings, autonomy is perceived when the organization of studies provides students freedom of decision-making. If students have enough room for alternative

activities and thus perceive autonomy in their acting, intrinsic motivation can arise. Students with a high level of autonomy perceive freedom in scheduling their studies according to their own requirements and feel independent in determining study procedures. This can also include aspects like deciding freely on examination modes and examination timings and not being limited to few inflexible set examination dates. Autonomy and decision freedom in university contexts can also mean having the possibility to attend classes at unusual times (example, at evenings or weekends) or to integrate practical orientation and projects into their studies. Students who have the possibility to work more independently from class schedules can better attribute study outcomes to their own effort than students who have to follow a strict curriculum. In contrast, fixed regulations and unalterable procedures hinder the development of autonomy. Active participation in the studies has also the potential to generate the feeling of autonomy. If the faculties provide students with the opportunity to participate directly in the development of classes and their content, the feeling of autonomy is more likely to be generated and intrinsic motivation can evolve.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) also acknowledge moderating influences in their JCM such as the Organizational context. Access to information about studying is often determined by the organizational structure. The easier it is to find information about organizational aspects of the studies (but also about the content), the more certainty students perceive that what they do is right. In this way, the academic situation is comparable to the phenomenon of job security analyzed by Hackman and Oldham. The less time wasted on worrying about aspects like ‘Did I choose the right course?’ the more time students actually have to study. This gives way for the generation of intrinsic motivation. The less the organizational structure creates friction (e.g. information gathering or needing flexibility or desire to participate), the more students are intrinsically motivated.

The next factor deals with the relationship of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and how the two interact. Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is not necessarily additively connected. Moreover, the opposite has been widely discussed in literature (Frey & Osterloh, 2002). If a person is intrinsically motivated, an additional extrinsic incentive has the power to reduce the existing level of intrinsic motivation. Frey (1994) introduced the term crowding-out effect that describes the trade-off between the two motivation types. According to Frey and Osterloh (2002), intrinsic motivation is undermined when external incentives emerge that are perceived as external control of the own behavior. For example, a person, initially used to do a certain job enthusiastically because of the task itself and therefore intrinsically motivated, loses some of that

interest when promised a financial reward. The external intervention is perceived as an external control mechanism that lowers self-determination and corrupts intrinsic motivation. Eventually the person will be unwilling to do the job without being rewarded. Transferred to our subject it means that the above explained motivation types of extrinsic and intrinsic academic motivation may not be found to be coexistent in an individual. If certain study characteristics are perceived as external control mechanisms, they may diminish intrinsic motivation.

Motivation may be also influenced by the students' general expectations towards studying. If the personal goal of studies is primarily vocationally oriented in the sense that the student expects practical knowledge, skills development and a good preparation for the future job, this student is extrinsically motivated. He or she acts because the action goal is in the center of interest. Students of such kind aim to apply acquired knowledge directly to their jobs, example, Murtonen, Olkinuora, Tynjälä and Lehtinen, (2008). Intrinsic motivation is defined in the opposite: means and end of action thematically match (Heckhausen 1991). That means, if students are scientifically oriented and study because dealing with the topic itself and scientific thinking in general is of interest, these students are intrinsically motivated. Acting and the action goal are thematically corresponding.

First of all, these students are interested in learning and not in qualifications (although in a certain sense scientific thinking and acting is also vocational training in the job of a scientist). A person with expectations towards vocational training is extrinsically motivated because the academic qualification serves mainly as a means to enter the labour market. In contrast, expectations about dealing with scientific contents lead to intrinsic motivation.

2.1.3 Emotional intelligence

The first use of the term "Emotional Intelligence" is attributed to Wayne Payne's doctoral thesis, *A Study of Emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence* published in 1985 (Barrett, Salovey, 2002). As a result of the growing acknowledgement by professionals of the newly born construct, the research on the topic continued in the 1990s.

The publication of Daniel Goleman's best seller —*Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can matter more than intelligent quotient (IQ)* made the term widely popularized. In his bestseller, Goleman argued that in today's rapidly evolving world a person's emotional intelligence, (EI) or "emotional quotient" (EQ) is the most important predictor of success. Later, Goleman published a follow-up book called —*Working with Emotional Intelligence*, which focuses on how emotional intelligence (EI) factors, affect success in the workplace. The concepts of emotional

intelligence (EI) and emotional quotient (EQ) become ever more important as we shift from a manufacturing to a service-based economy. More and more researchers in the emotional intelligence (EI) related areas of study confirm that emotional intelligence (EI) helps predict personal and professional success (Hein, 2007). Intelligence is a rather tricky and multifaceted concept. Unlike abstract intelligence, which refers to the ability to understand and manipulate symbols, or concrete intelligence, which is measured with intelligent quotient (IQ) tests. Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to understand and relate to people.

Researchers have been defining EI differently depending on the field of their study and the depth of their research. Emotional intelligence is generally defined as an individual's ability to accurately perceive reality so as to understand and regulate their own emotional responses as well as adapt and respond to others (Mayer, Salovey, 1997; Pellitteri, 2002). Later, Mayer and Salovey defined EI more specifically as —the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer, Salovey, 1997) The most recent definition that attempts to cover the whole construct of emotional intelligence (EI) describes it as the ability, capacity, skill, or potential to feel, use, communicate, recognize, remember, describe, identify, learn from, manage, understand and explain emotions (Hein, 2007).

Based on the definitions mentioned above, emotional intelligence can be understood as a person's ability to:

1. Become self-aware (to recognize his/her own emotions when experiencing them)
2. Detect emotions in others
3. Manage emotional cues and information

Emotional intelligence describes the ability, capacity, skill, or self-perceived ability to identify, assess, and manage the emotions of one's self, of others, and of groups. People who possess a high degree of emotional intelligence know themselves very well and are also able to sense the emotions of others. They are affable, resilient, and optimistic. Surprisingly, emotional intelligence is a relatively recent behavioral model: it was not until the publication of *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than intelligent quotient (IQ)* by Daniel Goleman that the term became popular. (Oliver Serrat, 2009). The concept of Emotional Intelligence received more research attention in this review because of its relationship with negative emotion and emotions in general. P. Salovey and J.D. Mayer, the leading researchers on emotional

intelligence since 1990s proposed a model that identified four different factors of emotional intelligence:

1. Perceiving Emotions—the ability to correctly identify how people are feeling. The initial, most basic, area has to do with the nonverbal reception and expression of emotion. Evolutionary biologists and psychologists have pointed out that emotional expression evolved in animal species as a form of crucial social communication. Facial expressions such as happiness, sadness, anger, and fear, were universally recognizable in human beings. Emotions researchers, evolutionary biologists, specialists in nonverbal behavior, and others, have made tremendous inroads into understanding how human beings recognize and express emotions. The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face or voice of others provides a crucial starting point for more advanced understanding of emotions.

2. Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought—the ability to create emotions and to integrate your feelings into the way you think. The second area appeared every bit as basic as the first. This was the capacity of the emotions to enter into and guide the cognitive system and promote thinking. For example, cognitive scientists pointed out that emotions prioritize thinking. In other words: something we respond to emotionally, is something that grabs our attention. Having a good system of emotional input, therefore, should help direct thinking toward matters that are truly important. As a second example, a number of researchers have suggested that emotions are important for certain kinds of creativity to emerge. For example, both mood swings, and positive moods, have been implicated in the capacity to carry out creative thought.

3. Understanding Emotions—the ability to understand the causes of emotions. Emotions convey information: Happiness usually indicates a desire to join with other people; anger indicates a desire to attack or harm others; fear indicates a desire to escape, and so forth. Each emotion conveys its own pattern of possible messages, and actions associated with those messages. A message of anger, for example, may mean that the individual feels treated unfairly. The anger, in turn, might be associated with specific sets of possible actions: peacemaking, attacking, retribution and revenge seeking, or withdrawal to seek calmness. Understanding emotional messages and the actions associated with them is one important aspect of this area of skill.

Once a person can identify such messages and potential actions, the capacity to reason with and about those emotional messages and actions becomes of importance as well. Fully understanding emotions, in other words, involves the comprehension of the meaning of emotions, coupled with

the capacity to reason about those meanings. It is central to this group of emotionally intelligent skills.

4. Managing Emotions—the ability to create effective strategies that use your emotions to help you achieve a goal.

Finally, emotions often can be managed. A person needs to understand emotions convey information. To the extent that it is under voluntary control, a person may want to remain open to emotional signals so long as they are not too painful, and block out those that are overwhelming. In between, within the person's emotional comfort zone, it becomes possible to regulate and manage one's own and others' emotions so as to promote one's own and others' personal and social goals. The means and methods for emotional self-regulation has become a topic of increasing research in this decade. According to these researchers, the four factors are, "arranged from more basic psychological processes to higher, more psychologically integrated processes. For example, the lowest level branch concerns the (relatively) simple abilities of perceiving and expressing emotion. In contrast, the highest level branch concerns the conscious, reflective regulation of emotion (Salovey, Sluyter, 1997). Thus, these factors are developed in a chronological way through continuous effort and training.

2.1.4 School connectedness

School connectedness, a sense of belonging to the school environment, is an established protective factor for child and adolescent health, education, and social well-being. A sense of connection and belonging to the school environment is widely recognized as promoting children's and adolescents' mental and emotional well-being (Bond, Butler, Carlen, Glover, Bowes & Patton 2007; Hawkins, Kosterman, Catalano Hill, & Abbott 2005; Resnick, Bearman, Blum, Bauman, Harris, Jones & Udry, 1997; Rutter, Maughan, Moretimore, Ouston & Smith 1979) and protecting against health-compromising behaviours such as substance use, violence, sexuality, heavy alcohol use, and intention to drink alcohol (Bisset Markham and Aveyard, (2007); Kliewer and Murrelle, (2007); Patton, Bond, Carlin, Thomas, Butler, Glover, Catalano and Bowes, 2006; Springer, Parcel, Baumler, & Ross 2006). Most recently, a sense of connectedness and school engagement has also been associated with health-promoting behaviours among secondary school students, including physical activity, nutrition, and use of bicycle helmets (Carter, McCee, Taylor, & William 2007).

Children's and adolescents' perceptions of belonging to a school community are positively associated with academic achievement and engagement (Bond, Butler, Carlen, Glover,

Bowes & Patton, 2007; Lonczak, Abbott, Hawkins, Kosterman, & Catalano, 2002; Pittman and Richmond, 2007), the completion of secondary school (Bond, Butler, Carlen, Glover, Bowes & Patton 2007), and positive development into adulthood (Youngblade, Theokas, Schulenberg, Curry, Huang & Novak, 2007). School connectedness is increasingly recognised as an important characteristic of a school's social environment (Bond, Butler, Carlen, Glover, Bowes & Patton, 2007; Carter, McGee, Taylor, & Williams 2007), as is the need for positive reinforcement in multiple contexts, such as in family and community settings. All of these factors influence child and adolescent health (Youngblade, Theokas, Schulenberg, Curry, Huang & Novak 2007) and their perceptions of their school environment (Shochet, Smyth & Homel, 2007). Thus, contemporary theory conceives and defines school connectedness as an ecological concept (Rowe, Stewart & Patterson 2007).

An ecological view of school connectedness takes into account the quality of connections among multiple groups in the school community and recognizes the cohesiveness among different groups, such as students, families, school staff, and representatives of health and community agencies. This cohesiveness is characterized by strong social bonds, featuring high levels of interpersonal trust and norms of reciprocity, otherwise known as social capital (Kawachi & Berkman, 2000; Putnam, 1995; Wilkinson, 1996). Social capital is a feature of social relationships in a school community that provides the building blocks for connectedness. Accumulation of social capital has been shown to lead to an elimination or reduction in social conflict (e.g. bullying), an abundance of associations that bridge social divisions (for example, tolerance of diverse cultures), and the presence of systems that promote conflict management (example, a fair behaviour management system whereby processes for resolving disputes involve investigation and/or discussion) (Kawachi & Berkman, 2000). Although school connectedness is widely accepted as important, how to promote it remains poorly understood. Following several attempts to implement piecemeal strategies in order to promote connectedness, it now appears that a comprehensive whole-school approach to promoting school connectedness holds the most promise.

2.1.5 Academic self-concept

According to Wilson (2009), academic self-concept represents how students feel about themselves as learners in school contexts and has implications for both student achievement and well-being. As a measure of students' confidence in their abilities, it informs their opinions about not only their current tasks and school-related activities, but also their future goals and academic

aspirations. If students have low academic self-concept, they may choose academic and career paths that are less rigorous, challenging, or fulfilling, which creates a potential loss of skills and advancement for both the individual and society.

Self-concept is a general view about oneself across various sets of specific domains and perceptions based on self-knowledge and evaluation of values formed through experiences in relation to one's environment (Eccles, 2005). Academic self-concept is referred to as a person's self-evaluation regarding specific academic domains or abilities (Trautwein, Ludtke, Koller & Baumet, 2006). In other words, academic self-concept is how students do school work or feel about themselves as learners (Guay, 2003; Harter, 1998). Academic self-concept studies were pioneered when Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton, (1976) developed a multifaceted hierarchical model of self-concept in which they divided the self-concept into academic and non-academic self -concepts (Marsh & Parker, 1984; Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976).

According to research it has been noted that as students grow older their academic self-concept becomes more stable (Guay, Marsh & Boivin, 2003). In a study by Liu and Wang (2005) it was noted that academic self-concept tends to decline from early to mid - adolescence and also extends to adulthood. Marsh (1989) explained that academic self-concept reaches its lowest point in middle adolescence, but also, he found out that academic self-concept increase through early adulthood. Academic self-concept varies as students move through grades in which their academic self-concept tends to rise in the direction of their academic achievement (Liu & Wang, 2005; Jacob, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles & Wigfield., 2002), whereas other studies highlight that it tends to become weaker (Marsh, Ellis, & Craven, 2002; Marsh & Yeung, 1997). It has been discovered that academic self-concept has a relationship with academic achievement (Awad, 2007; Tan & Yates, 2007; Marsh, 2004; Cokley, 2000). However, although various researchers concur with the academic self-concept's correlation with academic achievement, only a few studies have been done to highlight whether there is a difference in the subscales of academic self-concept on academic achievement across gender, levels of study, and faculties in which the students study in the universities

The construct of self-concept is derived from the self-worth theory (Peixoto 2003). Self-concept is associated with a wide range of performance indicators (Peixoto, 2003; Jackson, Thomas, and Marsh, 2001). These include sets of characteristics, attributes, qualities and deficiencies, capacities and limits, or values and relationships that the subject knows to be

descriptive of him/herself and which he/she perceives as data concerning his/her identity (Marchargo, 1991). Self-concept is also composed of the academic, social, emotional, and physical dimensions (Lewis & Knight, 2000; Mui, Yeung, Low & Jin, 2000). The domain-specific perceptions of self-concept (academic, physical, and social) are organized in a hierarchical structure with the general self-concept at the top of the hierarchy (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2002; Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976). More contemporary researches in the field of self-concept have also been directed towards academic self-concept and its development (Trautwein, Ludtke, Koller & Baumet, 2006; Marsh, Ellis, & Craven, 2002; Ty, Hubner & Stanton, 2001; Cheng & Watkins, 2000).

In several studies on gender differences in academic self-concept, it has been reported that males and females possess different beliefs about their academic competencies (Ireson & Hallana, 2001); Wigfield, Battle, Keller & Eccles, 2001; Marsh, 1989), with males showing higher academic self-concept than females (Kling, Hyde, Showers & Buswell, 1999). Different studies have also posited that males tend to have higher academic self-perceptions in science courses while females have higher academic self-perceptions in non-science courses (Harter, 1999; Marsh, 1989). Jacob, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles and Wigfield, (2002) highlighted that gender differences in academic self-perceptions start as early as elementary school and remain stable through adolescence to adulthood. In reference to this situation, most of the university students are adults whose academic self-concept can be highlighted in the same way. In a paper by Marsh (2006), he highlighted that small stereotype gender differences linearly decline in mean levels of academic self-concept with age and modest differentiation between academic competencies. Also, this is the same situation in other groups defined by academic self-concept on academic achievement (Worrel, Lotto, & Perlinski 1999).

2.1.6 Academic resilience

The term resiliency is originally derived from Latin roots *resiliens* that is used to refer to the pliant or elastic quality of a substance (Greene, 2002). The term also means “to jump (or bounce) back.” The Random House Dictionary (1967) says that resilience is “the power or ability to return to the original form or position after being bent, compressed, or stretched.”

Throughout the past three decades resilience research has grown in popularity and various models and data have emerged as well as criticisms about the usefulness of this construct in psychology (Masten, 2001). Resilience typically refers to the development of competence in the

face of adversity. More specifically, it refers to a dynamic process of positive adaptation and development while simultaneously facing a significant amount of adversity (Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000). The idea of resilience being a “dynamic process” stands in contrast with the previously held belief that invulnerability to stress was an inherent and stable trait in resilient children (Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000). This perspective has largely been abandoned because research has shown that resilient children do not possess invulnerable or invincible qualities; rather some aspect of normal working adaptation systems have been preserved in spite of these children’s exposure to adversity (Masten, 2001).

The study of resilience originally grew from intriguing observations that some children function competently despite noticeable risks and adverse conditions (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). From the start, research on resilience has focused on ways of understanding what distinguishes resilience in some children, with the ultimate goal of developing and promoting those traits or factors once revealed. Throughout research on resilience, the operationalization of both competence and adversity has varied considerably within the literature. This has been both a criticism of resilience studies and a positive attribute. Some researchers have argued that the considerable variation in defining key constructs has undermined the interpretability of the subsequent results; others have contended that some variation in methodology is essential in expanding our knowledge of this construct (Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000).

Despite these inconsistencies in the research on resilience, several studies have uncovered a core set of factors that have consistently been shown to promote competence despite adversity.

These factors include relationships with caring prosocial adults, good problem solving skills, and good intellectual functioning (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). These traits are important in promoting competence in normal development and it appears that the systems that promote competence in normal development are operating to protect a child against the threats posed by adversity (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

The term has also been defined by Webster’s New Twentieth Century Dictionary of the English Language (1958) as “the ability to bounce back or spring back into shape, position after being pressed or stretched or the ability to recover strength, spirits, good humor, etc., quickly”, and by The Heritage Illustrated Dictionary of the English Language (1973) as “the ability to recover quickly from illness, change, or misfortune”. Although there is no consensus about its definition and the varied meanings of the concept, the definitions presented below allow for a full understanding of the conception of resilience: “Resilience is a global construct that deals with how a child copes with stress and recovery from trauma.

Resilience, like competence and adaptation as outcomes of coping, concerns with positive growth, orientation toward future and hope (Murphy, 1987).”

Rutter (1990) defines resilience “as a positive pole of ubiquitous phenomenon of individual differences in people’s response to stress and adversity, as well as hope and optimism in the face of severe risk or adversity.”

Begun (1993) states that “resilience is not defined in terms of the absence of pathology and not to be confused with heroic self-determination. Instead, it is defined as the ability to cope with adversity, stress, and deprivation.”

The term resilience has often been used to describe a stable personality trait or ability that protects individuals from the negative effects of risk and adversity (Hollister-Wagner, Foshee & Jackson, 2001; Howard & Johnson, 2000; Walsh, 2002). Resilience has also been conceptualized as a positive outcome, the criteria for which commonly include positive mental health or absence of psychopathology, social competence, positive self-concept and self-esteem, academic achievement, and success at age-appropriate developmental tasks despite exposure to risk (Hauser, 1999; Masten, Best, & Garmezy, 1990). Increasingly, researchers have come to regard resilience not as a fixed attribute or specific outcome but more as a dynamic process that evolves over time (Luthar & Cicceh, 2000; Olsson, Bond, Burns, Vella, Brodrick & Sawyer, 2003; Richardson, Neigner, Jensen and Kumpfer 1990; Richman and Fraser, 2001; Rutter, 1987, 2001). Rather than being an invariant trait that a person either has or does not have, resilience can more accurately be viewed as a normal part of healthy development that can be enhanced throughout the life cycle (Baldwin & Baldwin, Kasser, Taz, Samerolf, & Seifer, 1993, ; Drummond, Kysela, Alexander, McDonald & Query, 1997; Jackson, Born, & Jacob, 1997).

Resilience refers to the process of overcoming the negative effects of risk exposure, coping successfully with traumatic experiences, and avoiding the negative trajectories associated with risks (Allison, Zannolli & Narayan, 1999). A key requirement of resilience is the presence of both risks and promotive factors that either help bring about a positive outcome or reduce or avoid a negative outcome. Resilience theory, though it is concerned with risk exposure among adolescents, is focused on strengths rather than deficits. It focuses on understanding healthy development in spite of risk exposure. The promotive factors that can help youth avoid the negative effects of risks may be either assets or resources (Vaupel, 2002). Assets are the positive factors that reside within the individual, such as competence, coping skills, and self-efficacy. Resources are also positive factors that help youth overcome risk, but they are external to the individual. Resources include parental support, adult mentoring, or community organizations that

promote positive youth development. The term resources emphasizes the social environmental influences on adolescent health and development, helps place resilience theory in a more ecological context, and moves away from conceptualizations of resilience as a static, individual trait. It also stresses that external resources can be a focus of change to help adolescents face risks and prevent negative outcomes. Instead of focusing on individual deficit, several researchers focused on individual strengths. Thus, the concept of resilience emerged. Benard (1991) defined resilience as a set of qualities, or protective mechanisms that caused successful adaptation despite the presence of risk factors during the course of development. Similarly, Linqanti (1992) described resilience as the quality in children who, though exposed to significant stress and adversity in their lives, do not succumb to the school failure, substance abuse, mental health, and juvenile delinquency problems they are at greater risk of experiencing.” (Linqanti, 1992)

Masten, Best, & Garmezy, (1990) explained resilience in broader terms. They saw it as the process of, capacity for, or outcome of successful adaptation despite challenging or threatening circumstances. However, resilience was not a distinct characteristic that children either possessed or did not possess. Furthermore, children were resilient at different points in their lives based on the interaction and accumulation of individual and environmental factors. As indicated by Rutter (1990), “Resilience cannot be seen as a fixed attribute of the individual. If circumstances change, the risk alters”. Resilience suggested an “in-spite of” response (Rubin, 1996; Wolin & Wolin, 1993). Resilience is inherent in the way human beings deal with life changes and other complex life situations (Rutter, 1985). Moreover, resilience is viewed as the ability to respond positively to life conditions, stress, and trauma in such a way that enabled the individual to bounce back and to approach life with positive actions.

Several researchers described the attributes of resilient individuals. Joseph (1994) indicates that a resilient person is one who is “responsible, positive, self-reliant, committed, and socially skillful”. Resilient children usually have four attributes in common (Benard, 1991; 1993; 1995):

- a. Social competence (the ability to elicit positive responses from others, thus establishing positive relationships with both adults and peers);
- b. Problem-solving skills (planning that facilitates seeing oneself in control and resourcefulness in seeking help from others);
- c. Autonomy (a sense of one's own identity and an ability to act independently and exert some control over one's environment); and

- d. A sense of purpose and future (goals, educational aspirations, persistence, hopefulness and a sense of a bright future).

2.1.7 Goal-setting

According to Anthony (2012), goal setting involves the development of an action plan designed to motivate and guide a person or group toward a goal. Goal-setting can be guided by goal-setting criteria (or rules) such as Smart criteria. Goal setting is a major component of personal development and management of literature. Goals that are deemed difficult to achieve and specific tend to increase performance more than goals that are not. A goal can become more specific through quantification or enumeration (should be measurable), such as by demanding increase productivity by 50%," or by defining certain tasks that must be completed. Setting goals affects outcomes in four ways:

Choice: goals narrow attention and direct efforts to goal-relevant activities, and away from perceived undesirable and goal-irrelevant actions.

Effort: goals can lead to more effort; for example, if one typically produces 4 widgets an hour, and has the goal of producing 6, one may work more intensely towards the goal than one would otherwise.

Persistence: someone becomes more likely to work through setbacks if pursuing a goal.

Cognition: goals can lead individuals to develop and change their behavior.

The concept of goal-setting is closely related to self-regulation. Self-regulated learning occurs when students activate and sustain cognitions and behaviors systematically oriented toward attainment of learning goals. Self-regulated learning processes involve goal-directed activities that students instigate, modify, and sustain (Zimmerman, 1989). These activities include attending to instruction, processing and integrating knowledge, rehearsing information to be remembered, and developing and maintaining positive beliefs about learning capabilities and anticipated outcomes of actions (Schunk, 1989). Self-regulatory skills require that students' goals be realistic challenging but attainable. With realistic goals, students can monitor progress and decide on a different task approach if their present one is ineffective. Self-efficacy is increased as students note progress, attain goals, and set new challenges. Goals set too high or too low do not enhance self-regulated learning or achievement beliefs. Students perceive little progress toward lofty goals, which lowers self-efficacy and leads them to work halfheartedly and give up readily when they encounter difficulty.

Easy goals do not produce high self-efficacy because they do not inform students about what they are capable of doing. The effects of goals on behavior depend on their properties: specificity, proximity, and difficulty level (Bandura, 1988; Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham, 1981). Goals incorporating specific performance standards are more likely to enhance learning and activate self-evaluations than general goals (i.e., "Do your best"). Specific goals boost performance by greater specification of the amount of effort required for success and the self-satisfaction anticipated. Specific goals promote self-efficacy because progress is easy to gauge. Proximal goals result in greater motivation than distant goals. It is easier to gauge progress toward a proximal goal, and the perception of progress raises self-efficacy. Proximal goals are especially influential with young children, who do not represent distant outcomes in thought. Goal difficulty, or the level of task proficiency required as assessed against a standard, influences the effort learners expend to attain a goal. Assuming requisite skills, individuals expend greater effort to attain difficult goals than when standards are lower. Learners initially may doubt whether they can attain difficult goals, but working toward them builds self-efficacy.

2.1.8 Socio-economic status

The socio-economic status of a child is mostly determined by combining parent's educational level, occupational status and income level (Jeynes, 2002). Studies have repeatedly found out that socio-economic status affects students' performance (Jeynes, 2002, Majoribanks 2003). Socio-economic status has been a strong predictor of student achievement. Coleman asserted that the influence of student background was greater than anything that goes on within schools. Socio-economic status emerged as a concept because of observation that students of parents with low income, low educational attainment or working in low- status jobs performed more poorly in schools and on test that reflected school achievement. Numerous studies over the years have attempted to provide an explanation for why an explanation on socio-economic status correlates with academic outcomes. The Winsconsin model developed by William H. Sewell and colleagues (Sewell, Haller & Portes, 1969), based on the Blau and Duncan model (1967), was one of the first attempts to account for educational and occupational attainment by proposing a recursive model personal aspirations, the influence of peers, educational attainment, parents socio-economic status and cognitive ability. Along these lines, socio-economic status is related to the kind of school and the kind of classroom a student attends (Reynolds & Walberg, 1972), with schools differing characteristically in the kind of instruction offered, materials provided,

teacher experience and access to teachers (Wenglinsky 1998) as well as the kind of relationships that exist between school staff members and parents (Watkins, 1997).

It may not be family income or poverty per se that drives the relationship between socio-economic status and achievement and life success (Mayer 1997). Spaeth (1997) suggested that socio-economic status might indicate the complexity of a child's cognitive environment and that exposure to cognitively challenging home environments prepares students better for the challenges at school. Levin and Belfield (2002) suggested several pathways or home environment variables through which socio-economic status might affect student achievement. These include the learning environment, language and literacy, parent and child interactions and daily routines. Low socio-economic status children are less likely to have a school-like home and follow a daily routine, they have weaker language interaction with parents, weaker literacy engagement and more conflicting interactions. Walpole (2003) noted that low socio-economic status students also tend to have less access to cultural capital (specialized or insider knowledge not taught in schools) and social capital (contact in networks that can lead to personal or professional gains Coleman 1988) which have been argued to be key components of a student's educational success.

Socio-economic status plays an important role in the life of a person. The status opens the ways for his progress. Intelligence, attitudes, aptitudes and even interests are patterned by socio economic background of the individual. The socio economic status pays rewards and punishment both to a person. Chaudary, Das Al, Ranjan John, & Ramadasan, (1998). Socio-economic status refers to the position that an individual and family occupies with reference to prevailing average standards, cultural possession and participation in group activity of community.

According to Chain (1944), socio- economic status includes both the social and economic status of the individual in the group. The variations in achievement are also due to the differences in socio- economic status of the children, differential treatment given by parents, parent's educational level, influence of the surroundings and so on. The influence of socio-cultural factors on various aspects of individual's development has particularly caught the attention of educationists. Individual success and failure can also be judged by facilities and environment provided for his study, self-concept and study habits. As pointed out by survey and Telford (1964) children belonging to higher socio-economic status are not only brilliant but also are provided better opportunities for developing intellectually, physically and emotionally. The type of intellectual environment in the home will definitely have an impact on the school achievement of the child and this intellectual environment in turn is determined by intellectual

level of parents, parent's education, occupation, income, size of the family etc. During the lifespan of an individual adolescence is a stage highly influenced by so many things around the world. Adolescents are highly influenced by society, socio-economic status, self-concept, study habits, emotional maturity etc., which may enhance the academic achievement of adolescence or may disturb the academic achievement of adolescence in high school period.

Parents are the most important influence on children's socialization. They act, for example, as both providers of experiences for their children and interpreters of children's everyday reality. They also determine the economic and social resources available to their children. However, a number of factors can influence the aspirations that parents hold for their children. We consider these as parent characteristics and cognitions/behaviour. Characteristics include demographic variables such as socioeconomic factors, age of first birth (i.e., teenage parenting), gender, and ethnicity.

Cognitions include perceptions of their own parenting abilities as well as the abilities of their child, and behaviour includes involvement. Family background variables including parental education, parental income, social class and minority status have been shown to influence parents' aspirations for their children (Kao and Tienda, 1998; Schoon and Parsons, 2002, and Schoon, Martin, & Ross, 2007). Two theoretical approaches are useful for interpreting the effects of family background on aspirations: the 'class structurationist' model and the 'blocked opportunities' framework.

2.1.9 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Three theories are discussed but this research work is anchored on Self-Determination Theory.

2.2.0 Goal -setting theory

One of the most widely supported theories from the field of organizational behavior is goal setting theory. Hundreds of studies have supported the basic premise that individuals committed to specific, difficult goals and who are provided feedback will have higher performance than those with easy or vague goals (Kanfer 1991; Locke & Latham 1990, 2002).

The focus in goal setting theory is on motivational processes toward the attainment of

performance outcomes, and the extant literature has consistently found that performance is a function of both ability and motivation (Locke and Latham 1990). Recently, researchers have explored the determinants that cause individuals to set higher goals (e.g., Diefendorf 2004; Phillips & Gully 1997). In particular, efforts have been made to integrate individual difference variables with motivation constructs. Goal orientation theory, which has its origins in educational psychology, has received attention by organizational behavior researchers who examine self-regulatory processes (Phillips and Gully 1997; Radosevich, Vaidyanathan, Yeo, Seijts, Latham, Tasa, & Latham 2004).

Goal orientation refers to the goals individuals implicitly pursue while attaining performance outcomes (Dweck & Leggett 1988). Theorists over the past few decades have proposed a two- (Dweck 1986; Dweck & Leggett 1988), three- (e.g., Elliot & Harackiewicz 1996; Middleton & Midgley 1997; Vande Walle 1997), and most recently four-factor model (Elliot and McGregor 2001) of goal orientation. Although goal orientation theory and goal setting theory seem to be related, there has not been enough effort to integrate these two research streams. Thus, the primary purpose of this study is to examine the effects of the four goal orientation constructs on self-efficacy, self-set goals, and performance.

Motivation researchers have become very interested in children's achievement goals and their relation to achievement behavior (Ames 1992, Anderman, & Freeman 2004, Covington 2000, Dweck 1999, Pintrich 2000b). Several different approaches have emerged. For instance, Bandura (1997) and Schunk (1990) have shown that specific, proximal, and somewhat challenging goals promote both self-efficacy and improved performance. Other researchers have defined and investigated broader goal orientations (e.g., Ames 1992, Blumenfeld 1992, Butler 1993, Dweck 1999, Nicholls 1984). For example, Nicholls and his colleagues (e.g., Nicholls, Cobb, Yackel, Wood, & Wheatley 1990) defined two major kinds of motivationally relevant goal patterns or orientations: ego-involved goals and task-involved goals. Individuals with ego-involved goals seek to maximize favorable evaluations of their competence and minimize negative evaluations of competence. Questions like "Will I look smart?" and "Can I out-perform others?" reflect ego-involved goals. In contrast, with task-involved goals, individuals focus on mastering tasks and increasing their competence. Questions such as "How can I do this task?" and "What will I learn?" reflect task-involved goals. Dweck and her colleagues provided a complementary analysis (Dweck, 1999) distinguishing between performance goals (like ego-involved goals) and learning goals (like task-involved goals). Similarly, Ames (1992) distinguished between the association of performance goals (like ego-involved goals) and

mastery goals (like task-focused goals) with both performance and task choice. With ego-involved (or performance) goals, children try to outperform others, and are more likely to perform tasks they know they can do. Task-involved (or mastery-oriented) children choose challenging tasks and are more concerned with their own progress than with outperforming others.

An important advance in this area is the distinction between performance-approach and performance-avoid goals (Elliott & Church 1997, Midgley, & Urdan, 2001.; Skaalvik 1997). This distinction arose in part because of some inconsistent evidence about the effects of performance goals on various outcomes. As the name implies, performance-approach goals imply engagement in achievement tasks for performance reasons, whereas performance-avoid goals concern disengagement in order not to appear stupid. Generally, performance-approach goals appear to have more positive consequences on motivation and achievement than do performance-avoid goals (Anderman, & Freeman 2004). However, there is some disagreement among goal theories about the positive consequences of performance-approach goals (Midgley, & Urdan, 2001). This distinction is quite similar to the distinction originally made by Atkinson (1964) between the approach and avoidance components of need-achievement motivation.

Other researchers (Ford 1992, Wentzel 1991) have adopted a more complex perspective on goals and motivation, argueration, than on mastery versus performance criteria of success. Wentzel has demonstrated that both social and academic goals relate to adolescents' school performance and behavior (Juvonen & Wentzel 1996). For instance, Wentzel (1991) has found that the goals related to school achievement include seeing oneself as successful, dependable, wanting to learn new things, and wanting to get things done. Higher-achieving students have higher levels of both social responsibility and achievement goals than lower-achieving students (Wentzel 1993, 1994). Similarly, Wentzel (1994) documented the association among middle school children's pro-social goals of helping others, academic pro-social goals such as sharing learning with classmates, peer social responsibility goals such as following through on promises made to peers, and academic social responsibility goals such as following the teacher's instructions. Prosocial goals (particularly academic prosocial goals) related positively to peer acceptance. Interestingly, academic responsibility goals related negatively to peer acceptance but positively to acceptance by teachers. Further, positive prosocial and academic goals related positively to prosocial behaviors (as rated by teachers) and negatively to irresponsible behaviors. Finally, the pursuit of positive social goals was facilitated by perceived support from teachers and peers.

2.2.1 Social cognitive theory

Social cognitive theory (SCT) refers to a psychological model of behavior that emerged primarily from the work of Albert Bandura (1977; 1986). Initially developed with an emphasis on the acquisition of social behaviors, SCT continues to emphasize that learning occurs in a social context and that much of what is learned is gained through observation. SCT has been applied broadly to such diverse areas of human functioning as career choice, organizational behavior, athletics, and mental and physical health.

Social cognitive theory also has been applied extensively by those interested in understanding classroom motivation, learning, and achievement (Pajares, 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; 1998). Social cognitive theory rests on several basic assumptions about learning and behavior. One assumption concerns triadic reciprocal-ity, or the view that personal, behavioral, and environmental factors influence one another in a bidirectional, reciprocal fashion. That is, a person's on-going functioning is a product of a continuous interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and contextual factors. For instance, classroom learning is shaped by factors within the academic environment, especially the reinforcements experienced by oneself and by others. At the same time, learning is affected by students' own thoughts and self-beliefs and their interpretation of the classroom context.

A closely related assumption within social cognitive theory is that people have an agency or ability to influence their own behavior and the environment in a purposeful, goal-directed fashion (Bandura, 2001). This belief conflicts with earlier forms of behaviorism that advocated a more rigorous form of environmental determinism social cognitive theory does not deny the importance of the environment in determining behavior, but it does argue that people can also, through forethought, self-reflection, and self-regulatory processes, exert substantial influence over their own outcomes and the environment more broadly.

A third assumption within SCT is that learning can occur without an immediate change in behavior or more broadly that learning and the demonstration of what has been learned are distinct processes. One reason for this separation is that SCT also assumes that learning involves not just the acquisition of new behaviors, but also of knowledge, cognitive skills, concepts, abstract rules, values, and other cognitive constructs. This division of learning and behavior is a shift from the position advocated by behavioral theories that defined learning stridently as a change in the form or frequency of behavior. It also means that students can learn but not demonstrate that learning until motivated to do so.

The reciprocal nature of the determinants of human functioning in social cognitive theory makes it possible for therapeutic and counseling efforts to be directed at personal, environment or behavioural factor. Strategies for increasing well-being which in turn will enhance academic confidence can be aimed at improving emotional, cognitive or motivational processes, increasing behavioural competencies or altering the social conditions under which students learn.

Using social cognitive theory as a framework, teachers can work to improve the students' emotional states, and to correct their faulty self-beliefs and habits of thinking (personal factors), improve their academic skills and self-regulatory practices (behaviour), and alter the school and classroom structures that may work to undermine student success (environmental factors). Working on these three factors may help to boost the students' academic confidence.

SCT integrates a large number of discrete ideas, concepts, and sub-processes into an overall framework for understanding human functioning. Five of the central concepts are described below.

Observational Learning/Modeling. From its inception one core premise within SCT has been that people learn through observation. This process is also described as vicarious learning or modeling because learning is a result of watching the behavior and consequences of models in the environment.

Although observational learning is dependent upon the availability of models, who or what can serve this role is defined broadly. Live demonstrations of a behavior or skill by a teacher or classmate, of course, typify the notion of modeling. Verbal or written descriptions, video or audio recordings, and other less direct forms of performance are also considered forms of modeling. There also distinctions among different types of models.

Mastery models are proficient when demonstrating a skill whereas coping models struggle, make mistakes, and only eventually show proficiency.

Abstract modeling occurs when the skill or knowledge being learned is conveyed only indirectly, and cognitive modeling occurs when a model verbalizes her thoughts while demonstrating a cognitive process or skill.

According to social cognitive theory, observational learning of novel behaviors or skills is dependent on four inter-related processes involving attention, retention, students must attend to a model and the relevant aspects of behavior in order to learn. Retention refers to the processes necessary for reducing and transforming what is observed into a symbolic form that can be stored for later use. Production processes are necessary when students draw on their stored codes and make an effort to perform what they have observed.

Finally, motivational processes are key for understanding why students engage in the prior sub-processes, including whether they ever attempt to use or recreate the new skills they have observed. Each of these processes, furthermore, are affected by factors such as the developmental level of the learner and characteristics of the model and modeled behavior.

Beyond new learning, modeling is also important for understanding when or why previously learned behaviors are exhibited. Students' may inhibit their engagement in a behavior if they observe a model suffer consequences they would prefer to avoid. For instance, if a teacher glares at one student who is talking out of turn, other students may suppress this behavior to avoid a similar reaction. In a related fashion, students may disinhibit or engage in a behavior they had initially suppressed when they fail to see any negative consequences accrue to a model. For example, students may refrain from shouting out answers unless they are called upon only until they see others do so without repercussions. Finally, through a process labeled response facilitation, models can simply prompt others to behave in known ways.

Outcome expectations reflect individuals' beliefs about what consequences are most likely to ensue if particular behaviors are performed. For instance, children may believe that if they get a hit during a baseball game the crowd will cheer, they will feel good and will be admired by their teammates. These beliefs are formed enactively through students' own past experiences and vicariously through the observation of others. Outcome expectations are important in social cognitive theory because they shape the decisions people make about what actions to take and which behaviors to suppress. The frequency of a behavior should increase when the outcomes expected are valued, whereas behaviors associated with unfavorable or irrelevant outcomes will be avoided. Perceived Self efficacy, Self-efficacy also has emerged as a prominent and influential concept within social cognitive theory. Self-efficacy reflects individuals' beliefs about whether they can achieve a given level of successful at a particular task (Bandura, 1997).

Students with greater self-efficacy are more confident in their abilities to be successful when compared to their peers with lower self-efficacy. Self-efficacy has proven useful for understanding students' motivation and achievement in academic contexts. Higher levels of perceived self-efficacy have been associated with greater choice, persistence, and with more effective strategy use (Pajares, 1996).

Consistent with the tenets of SCT, self-efficacy is viewed as a product of individuals' own past performances, the observation and verbal persuasion of others in the environment, and individuals' on-going physiological state these sources of information are weighed and filtered

through a process known as cognitive appraisal. For instance, a prior failure may not be detrimental to self-efficacy if students believe there was some no-longer relevant reason for the poor performance (e.g., prior sickness). Interventions based on SCT and designed to increase self-efficacy in school-aged children have proven effective (Pajares, 1996).

Goal setting is another central process within social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986; Schunk, 1990). Goals reflect cognitive representations of anticipated, desired, or preferred outcomes. Hence, goals exemplify the agency view within SCT that people not only learn, they use forethought to envision the future, identify desired outcomes, and generate plans of action. Goals are also closely related to other important processes within SCT. For instance, models can provide goals in the form of specific behavioral outcomes or more general standards for acceptable levels of performance. Goals also are intricately related to students' outcome expectations and their perceived self-efficacy. Goals are a function of the outcomes students expect from engaging in particular behaviors and the confidence they have for completing those behaviors successfully. Finally, goals are an important prerequisite for self-regulation because they provide objectives that students are trying to achieve and benchmarks against which to judge progress.

Research on self-regulation or, when applied to academic contexts, self-regulated learning, blossomed in the 1980s and continued into the early 2000s to expand. Explanations for students' management or control of their own learning behaviors have arisen from within many distinct theoretical perspectives (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). Many of the most common models, however, have strong roots in social cognitive theory. Social cognitive theory models of self-regulation assume that self-regulation is dependent on goal setting, in that students are thought to manage their thoughts and actions in order to reach particular outcomes (Schunk, 2001; Zimmerman, 2000). SCT views of self-regulation initially emphasized three sub-processes (Bandura, 1986; 1991).

Self-observation reflects students' ability to monitor or keep track of their own behaviors and outcomes. Self-judgment is the process through which students' evaluate whether their actions are effective and allow them to make progress toward their goals. Finally, self-reaction occurs when students' respond to the evaluations they have made by modifying their behavior, rewarding it, or discontinuing it.

Self-regulation is a prominent and increasing aspect of social cognitive theory that exemplifies the underlying assumptions regarding agency and the influence of personal factors on behavior and the environment. As noted above, self-regulation is also dependent on other

processes within social cognitive theory, including goal setting and self-efficacy. Unless students have goals and feel efficacious about reaching them, they may not activate the processes needed for self-regulation.

Modeling can also affect students' self-regulated learning. The skills needed to manage one's behavior, as well the beliefs and attitudes.

2.2.2 Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a macro theory of human motivation and personality, concerning people's inherent growth tendencies and their innate psychological needs. It is concerned with the motivation behind the choices that people make without any external influence and interference. Self-determination theory (SDT) focuses on the degree to which an individual's behavior is self-motivated and self-determined.

Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991), when applied to the realm of education, is concerned primarily with promoting in students an interest in learning, a valuing of education, and a confidence in their own capacities and attributes. These outcomes are manifestations of being intrinsically motivated and internalizing values and regulatory processes. Research suggests that these processes result in high-quality learning and conceptual understanding, as well as enhanced personal growth and adjustment.

Human learning is a complex phenomenon, and motivation is an essential part of it (Sikhwari 2004). Various theoretical approaches have been used to define and operationalise motivation. Areepattamanil and Freeman (2008) declare that researchers have used a variation of motivational approaches, such as the expectancy-value theory (Berndt & Miller 1990), the goal theory (Meece & Holt 1993), and the self-efficacy theory (Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons 1992) to examine the relationship between academic motivation and academic achievement. Other motivation theories include the cognitive dissonance theory, the attribution theory, the evaluation theory and Maslow's self-actualising theory (Crous, Roets, Dicker & Sonnekus 2000). It is an empirically based theory of human motivation, development and wellness (Deci & Ryan 2008). According to Ryan, Kuhl and Deci (in Areepattamannil & Freeman 2008), the self-determination theory is an approach to human motivation that highlights the importance of the psychological need for autonomy. Although the initial work leading to the self-determination theory dates back to the 1970s, research on the self-determination theory has truly mushroomed during the past decade (Deci & Ryan 2008).

In the self-determination theory, focus is on qualitative, rather than on quantitative differences in motivation. This means that they rather focus on the quality and type of motivation than on the amount of motivation. This finding is reiterated by Deci and Ryan (2008) when they reveal that the theory focuses on types, rather than merely on the amount of motivation, paying particular attention to autonomous motivation, controlled motivation and amotivation as predictors of performance and well-being outcomes. Central to the self-determination theory, is the distinction between autonomous and controlled motivation (Areepattamannil and Freeman 2008). Deci and Ryan (in Areepattamannil & Freeman 2008) state that only autonomously motivated behaviors are considered fully self-determined, because these motivations are either innate to the person or have been fully assimilated with the core 'self' through the process of integration. This type of motivation is also referred to as intrinsic motivation. Self-determination refers to the experience of freedom in initiating behavior; this is called autonomous behavior (Mnyandu 2001) or intrinsic motivation.

The self-determination theory distinguishes between different types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action (Ryan & Deci 2000). The self-determination theory distinguishes between three types of motivation, namely intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be valuable to students. The self-determination theory heavily emphasizes the role of the self-perception of competence as an antecedent of autonomous academic motivation (Ahmed & Bruinsma 2006) or intrinsic motivation. This implies that the self-determination theory points out that for intrinsic motivation to be present in a student, the student needs to have a positive academic self-concept. In this theory of motivation, three types of motivation have been recognised. They are as follows:

Intrinsic motivation refers to actions performed because people want to perform them, and for which they do not need external incentives (Crous, Roets, Dicker & Sonnekus, 2000). Deci (in (Crous, Roets, Dicker & Sonnekus, 2000) declares that intrinsic motivation entails a drive to experience a sense of competence and self-actualization.

Extrinsic motivation refers to actions that are performed for the external rewards that these actions will bring. These rewards may include praise, approval or remuneration. Persons who are extrinsically motivated are not intrinsically motivated, but in some cases extrinsic motivation can lead to intrinsic motivation (Crous, Roets, Dicker & Sonnekus, 2000).

Amotivation can best be described as having no motivation. It is a feeling of helplessness and incompetence. Ahmed and Bruinsma (2006) state that amotivation occurs when an

individual does not perceive contingencies between their action and its outcome. This type of motivation is the opposite of self-determined behaviour. Sikhwari (2004) states that motivation is an essential part of the complex process of human learning and yet, despite its importance, there is much that remains unknown about it.

Individuals high in achievement motivation and low in achievement-related anxiety (fear of failure) were classified as realistic in their vocational choices with respect to ability and interest, while individuals low in achievement motivation and high in achievement-related anxiety were unrealistic.

Kolb noted evidence in the research supporting a “small but positive significant relationship between achievement motivation and academic performance in high school” (1965). He investigated the effects of an achievement motivation training program on underachieving

The three innate psychological needs which are competence, relatedness and autonomy may go a long way in enhancing students’ academic confidence. When a student has the ability to master and control his/her environment, able to relate well with his/her fellow students and lecturers and has the free will to initiate actions and also know the result of the action, such a student’s academic confidence will rise.

2.2.3 EMPIRICAL REVIEW

2.2.4 Emotional intelligence and academic confidence

Salami & Ogundokun (2009), in a study of emotional intelligence and self efficacy as predictors of academic performance, reported that emotional intelligence is positively related to academic achievement among students. The authors further found that students who possess high emotional intelligence could perceive and understand their own emotions and emotions of others and these students are able to manage their emotional behaviour and perform well in their academic work. This study is well situated and can be said to be very relevant to the current study based on the opinion that when students have favourable academic achievement, they tend to have high academic confidence.

Adeyemo (2006) studied the effect of emotional intelligence on the adjustment of secondary school children in transition, and found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and adjustment. He also found that emotional intelligence contributes to social and academic adjustment of school children. The place of the study in the current research is justified; one can infer that a well adjusted student has the tendency to feel confident when

dealing with academic activities. By this, Kaur (2003) found that high confident and low confident child differs significantly on adjustment.

Al-rfou (2012) in his study that investigated the relationship between the emotional Intelligence and academic achievement of Tafila Technical University students reported that statistically significant relation between the emotional intelligence and academic achievement for female students. The study is further authenticated by Al-Gharaibeh's (2011) study which was conducted to reveal the Emotional Intelligence of intermediate High achievers and intermediate ordinary students of the Saudi area of Al-Qaseem. The sample consisted of (144 High achievers and 72 ordinary students). The study revealed that the emotional intelligence of high achievers was high.

Difabio & Palazzeschi (2009) study aimed at exploring the ability of a number of variables, such as Emotional Intelligence and personality traits, to predict academic performance. The sample of the study consisted of (124) Brazilian secondary students who had completed Eysenck's personality scale, Bar-On's scale and Mayer and Salovey's scale.

Qulter, Whiteley, Morely & Dudiac's study (2009) was conducted to determine the relationship between the level of Emotional Intelligence and success at university. The sample of the study consisted of (465) students from an Australian university. The study revealed that students who have high levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to succeed academically. The study also showed that students whose Emotional Intelligence is developing become more academically successful.

Al-Omran and Punmaki (2008) studied Emotional Intelligence and its relation with gender differences and age. The sample of the study consisted of (312) Bahraini adolescents who were chosen randomly. Results showed that there is a significant positive correlation between gender and Emotional Intelligence in the case of female students.

Al-Masri's study (2007) aimed at exploring the individual differences in emotional intelligence between high achievers and ordinary students. The sample of the study consisted of (25 male and 73 female) students chosen from the Faculty of Education from Al- Isra' Private University. The study revealed that female students achieved better in the compassion dimension. It also showed that there is a significant positive correlative between the gender variable and emotional intelligence in favor of the female students. No significant differences were noticed in Emotional Intelligence between high achievers and ordinary students.

Hummayoun, Saif and Khalil (2008) examined the impact of emotional intelligence on service quality in banking sector. They found emotional intelligence a significant predictor of

service quality. Farooq (2003) examined the effect of emotional intelligence on academic performance of 246 adolescent students and found that students with high emotional intelligence show better academic performance than the students with low emotional intelligence. The study conducted by Rozell, Pettijohn, and Parker, (2002) revealed relationship between emotional intelligence and CGPA of undergraduate students of Mid- Western University. Abraham (2006), after reviewing recent researches studying emotional intelligence in relation to university students, concluded that career success and fulfillment requires training in appropriate emotional skills. Jaeger and Eagan (2007) found three composite scales of BarOn EQi (Short form) — Interpersonal, Stress Management and adaptability — significant predictors of academic performance of students in the first year of university. The overall model of the study including emotional intelligence and demographic characteristics accounted for almost 40% variance in the first year GPA of students ($R^2 = .40$).

Gabel, Dolen and Cerdin (2005) found a significant correlation between interpersonal component of emotional intelligence and specific performance ($r = .35$) on international assignment. Their study also showed significant correlation between emotional intelligence and two adjustment dimensions: work adjustment ($r = .31$) and interaction adjustment ($r = .28$). The study was conducted on 67 internationally assigned managers and their supervisors. They suggested that in addition to traditional selection measures, emotional intelligence should also be taken into consideration for the selection of internationally assigned managers.

Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan, and Majeski (2004) found emotional intelligence a predictor in identifying academically successful and academically unsuccessful students during transition period. Emotional intelligence scores also rightly distinguished the students who would continue university education and who would not. The study conducted by Qualter, Whiteley, Hutchinson, and Pope, (2007) revealed that higher levels of emotional intelligence facilitate students' ability to cope with the transition.

Engelberg and Sjoberg (2004) conducted a study on 282 applicants to the Stockholm School of Economics to find relationship between emotional intelligence, affect intensity and social adjustment. They concluded that emotional perception, as a basic component of emotional intelligence, is essential for adaptation on social level. Sjoberg (2001) found a relation between emotional intelligence and successful life adjustment in a group of 153 respondents that was roughly representative of the population. Marquez, Martin and Brackett (2006) found emotional intelligence, as measured by MSCEIT (Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test)

predictive of high school students' final grades having correlation coefficient. Emotional intelligence was also found to be moderately correlated with social competencies.

Chen, Lin and Tu (2006) found statistically significant positive correlation between life adjustment and emotional intelligence of senior high school students from Taiwan and Anhui ($r = .53$ and $.75$ respectively). The study of Mestre, Guil, Lopes, Salovey and Gil-Olarte (2006) on 127 Spanish adolescents supported the hypothesis that emotional abilities have a positive relationship with the indicators of social and academic adaptation to school. Kerr, Johnson, Gans and Krumrine (2004) conducted a study on 56 incoming college students to investigate contribution of alexithymia, stress, and psychological symptoms to college adjustment. Their results provided support for a link between alexithymia (deficient emotional processing) and college adjustment. The students with more difficulty in recognizing and discussing their emotions had greater adjustment problems. They concluded that emotionally confused and overwhelmed students who felt uncertain about their emotions were the most maladjusted.

The student's successful transition into a university is evidenced to be associated with other variables or a combination of variables consisting of academic and non-academic factors. Emotional intelligence is one of these factors and is gaining more and more attention from scholars and educators alike. Although it is a relatively new concept in the educational and psychological fields, appearing only in the beginning of 1990s, it has motivated the interest and scrutiny of many scholars in various scientific fields. The theory of emotional intelligence proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1990, 1997) posits that the ability to recognize, understand, use, and manage emotions contributes to adaptation in various realms of life. Goleman (1998) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to identify, control one's emotions, use feeling to generate self-motivation, empathized with others and build a good relationship with others. Emotional intelligence is relatively new and growing area of behavioral investigation, having matured recently with the aid of previous studies related to this concept. A large number of studies with adolescents further suggest that the capacity of to decode, understand, and regulate emotions, interaction with other people, manage relationship associated with social and academic adjustment (Saarni, 1999; Jensen, 2007; Low & Nelson, 2005; Goleman, 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Chan, 2003; Vela, 2003). Among university students, emotional abilities are positively associated with the quality of social interactions (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz, Sellin & Salovey, 2004; Paulo, Croucher, Sohanpal, Muirhead & Seymour, 2004) and prosocial behavior (Brackett & Mayer, 2003), perform effectively under stress (Baumeister, Heatherton & Tice, 1994) positive mood and higher self-esteem (Schutte, Malouff, Simunek & Hollander,

2002), social adjustment (Chan, 2003), and academic achievement (Abdallah, Elias, Mahyuddin & Uli, 2004). It is important to note that different authors have proposed conceptualization of emotional intelligence and the asserted to the prominent role of it to assist student's success during their study at the university.

2.2.5 School connectedness and academic confidence

Resnick (2000) reported in his study of the influence of school factors on academic outcomes that young people who are not engaged with learning or who have poor relationships with peers and teachers are more likely to use drugs and engage in socially disruptive behaviors, report anxiety/depressive symptoms, have poorer adult relationships, and fail to complete secondary school. Therefore, the potential consequences for young people of becoming disconnected from school are far reaching. Negative school experiences largely account for young people becoming alienated or disconnected from school. Research focusing on connectedness to school emphasises the importance of the quality of relationships (peer and teacher) on engagement in learning, and on health and well-being (Russell, 2002). Such experiences highlight different social experiences including, for example, being bullied, not getting along with teachers, feelings of not belonging, not doing well at school, and feeling under stress. Schools are accessible and relatively stable sites within which to locate interventions to promote adolescent connectedness at a time of multiple transitions, during which identity and relationships with family, peers, and school change (Willms, 2003).

Olin (2002) found that youths whose primary affections and engagement are with peers and friends engage in more unconventional, illicit behaviours and are more likely to denounce school and other conventional contexts and relationships. In contrast, youth who are actively involved in, enjoy, and feel positively about school are less likely to engage in violent behavior, substance use, and other related problems that interfere with academic success. For this reason, promoting active engagement in school and positive feelings about school (viz., connectedness to school) should be at least one of the primary targets of school-based violence prevention programs. Promoting connectedness to friends who engage more in conventional, prosocial behaviors, such as by encouraging students to participate in extracurricular activities, clubs and organization where friendships grow in the context of conventional activities, should be another target of counselors.

Doll & Hess (2001), Marcus & Sanders-Reio (2001) and Barclay & Doll, (2001) in their studies regarding the influence of school connectedness and its outcomes, the studies reported

that there was a temporal relationship between school connectedness and substance use. While substantial research has been conducted both from health and educational perspectives, there is clearly a need to better understand what affects connectedness to school, how we can effectively measure this, and how and when we can best intervene. Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1980) and models such as the social development model have been used to explain these relationships. Attachment theory proposes that a sense of secure emotional connection to key individuals provides a base for psychological and social development. The social development model builds on this, proposing that connectedness to family, schools, peers, and community, combined with experiences of positive socialization is protective against substance use and antisocial behavior. While the contemporaneous associations between these factors and mental health have been established less is known about the associations between social connectedness and school connectedness in early adolescence and emotional well-being in later adolescence, nor has the nature of the relationship between school and social connectedness been examined.

Promoting connectedness in the school setting can serve to counterbalance the increasing importance of connectedness to peers, friends, and romantic partners during adolescence by providing an opportunity for conventionally disconnected youth to form connections with others in this conventional world. A sense of connection and belonging to the school environment is widely recognized as promoting children's and adolescents' mental and emotional well-being (Bond, Butler, Thomas, Carlin, Glover, Bowes & Patton, 2007; Hawkins, Kosterman, Catalano, Hill & Abbott 2005) and protecting against health-compromising behaviours such as substance use, violence, sexuality, heavy alcohol use, and intention to drink alcohol (Bisset Markham & Aveyard, 2007; Kliewer & Murrelle, 2007; Patton, Bond, Carlin, Thomas, Butler, Glover, Catalano & Bowes, 2006). Most recently, a sense of connectedness and school engagement has also been associated with health-promoting behaviours among secondary school students, including physical activity, nutrition, and use of bicycle helmets (Carter, McGee, Taylor & William, 2007). Children's and adolescents' perceptions of belonging to a school community are positively associated with academic achievement and engagement (Bond, Butler, Carlen, Glover, Bowes & Patton 2007); Pittman & Richmond, 2007), the completion of secondary school (Bond, Butler, Carlen, Glover, Bowes & Patton 2007), and positive development into adulthood (Youngblade Theokas, Schulenberg, Curry, Huang & Novak., 2007).

2.2.6 Academic self-concept and academic confidence

Vialle, Heaven and Ciarrochi (2005) conducted a study on 65 high-ability secondary school students. The sample was drawn from a longitudinal study of more than 900 students. The research demonstrated that there was no correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement in the gifted group. There were no differences in the measured self-esteem between the gifted and non-gifted students. Although the study by Vialle, Heaven and Ciarrochi (2005) focused on self-esteem and not on self-concept, both these constructs are very closely related and are often used as synonyms. Vialle, Heaven and Ciarrochi (2005) declared in their study that the terms, self-esteem and self-concept, are frequently used interchangeably in everyday contexts – and sometimes in the research literature.

Nagy, Berninger & Abbott (2006) reported in a study that students' academic self-concept is significantly correlated with their future goals. The study further showed that students' self-concept in a particular course influenced their choices for the subsequent year in course selection. Additionally, in a study including a sample of students at selective schools in England, there was a link between confidence in one's own intelligence and educational aspirations. In another study on school effectiveness, Marsh (1991) found that the mediating effect of academic self-concept on educational aspirations did not overcome the negative effect that school-level achievement had on educational aspirations (Marsh, 1991). In other words, the overall achievement level of the school that the student attended had a stronger effect on the future goals of the student than the student's academic self-concept. Despite the possible implication of Marsh's study, academic self-concept does appear to have an effect on the students' future goals in the majority of studies. This underscores the value of research into the factors that affect academic self-concept.

Lui (2009) did a study that focused on 126 first year college students. The students were placed into groups according to their ability in English. Students in the lower ability-level had a significantly lower perceived academic self-concept than their average and above average counterparts. Lui's study indicated (2009) that a low academic self-concept results in less academic confidence, and students with low self-concepts are less motivated to put in an effort to learn, and therefore achieve less satisfying results.

In a study by Lau and Chan (2001), they found that students with low or negative self-concepts were under-achievers. These students had a low attainment value in learning and had deficiencies in using effective learning strategies. The most consistent finding in literature indicates to the poor self-concept of under-achievers (Lau & Chan 2001). Lau and Chan (2001) state that in general, as under achievers do not believe that they have the ability to achieve, they

will spend little effort in studying, and will easily give up when facing difficulties. Due to the failures in academic achievement, under achievers lose their academic confidence in respect of learning, and as a result demonstrate a poor self-concept. This negative relationship between academic self-concept and academic achievement becomes a vicious cycle (Lau & Chan 2001).

Marsh (2004) reported that there is a robust collection of research to support a positive relationship between ability and academic self-concept his research has found similar findings under a variety of contexts. For example, research conducted in Africa (Akande, 1997), Finland (Hotulainen & Shofield, 2003), Canada (Pyryt & Mendaglio, 1994), Germany (Ziegler, Heller & Broome, 1996), and Australia (Marsh, 2004) have demonstrated that students with higher abilities have higher academic self-concept. In addition, these studies have varied according to how and if the students are provided programming for the gifted.

Despite all of these differences between the studies, they show the positive correlation between ability and academic self-concept, providing evidence of the strong research base in this area. Studies also varied in how they investigated the relationship between ability and academic self-concept. Some researchers used a regression framework to study direct and/or indirect relationships between the constructs (Ludtke, Koller & Baumer, 2005; Marsh, 2004). Other studies grouped students together by ability to compare their academic self-concepts (e.g., Kelly & Jordan, 1990; Pajares & Graham, 1999; Ziegler, Heller, & Brown 1996).

Mwamwenda (in Dambudzo, 2009) found that educators generally believe that an understanding of self-concept and what it involves is essential if education is to achieve its ultimate goal of developing the individual's highest possible potential. In addition, an awareness of the role self-concept plays in human behaviour and development will enable educators to deliberately introduce ways of maximizing self-concept as an integral part of whatever they do in their interactions with learners. Marsh (in Areepattamannil & Freeman 2008) declares that a higher self-concept is associated with greater academic achievement among students. There is also evidence to the contrary, namely that humble self-assessments are more conducive to academic achievement, according to Ocshe (2003), Yoon, Eccles and Wigfield (1996) and Trusty, Watts and House (1996). Despite much research, there are no conclusive studies that clearly indicate the link that joins academic self-concept and academic achievement (Sanchez and Roda 2003).

Existing theory and research of Deci and Ryan (in Mnyandu 2001) have shown that self-determination (intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation) plays a prominent role in the academic performance of learners. Kushmand, Sieber and Harold (in Broussard 2002)

declare that a high level of motivation and engagement in learning has consistently been linked to a reduction in the number of drop-outs, and to increased levels of student success. In any academic setting, whether it be elementary, secondary or higher education, a student's motivation for learning is generally regarded as one of the most important determinants, if not the premier determinant, of the success and quality of the learning outcome (Mitchell in Broussard 2001). However, the relationship between motivation and academic achievement remains complex (McCoach & Siegle 2001). Mnyandu (2001) declares that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, are prerequisites for academic achievement. Mnyandu (2001) considers it imperative that educators acquire a broad understanding of these different forms of motivation in order to help the learner to make use of the specific type of motivation that will facilitate his/her success in achieving the set goals.

Barker, Dowson and McInery (2005) also pronounce that studies have repeatedly shown moderate to strong correlations between academic achievement and academic self-concept. Damrongpanit (2009) found, in a study done on 820 Grade 9 students, an extremely strong relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. In a quantitative study done by Sikhwari (2004) on 200 randomly selected second year students at the University of Venda, it was found that there was a significant correlation between academic achievement and self-concept. Kumar (2001) indicated in a study on 318 distance learners that there exists a moderate positive and significant correlation between academic performance and academic self-concept.

2.2.7 Gender and academic confidence

Coffman (2014) found that women are less confident about questions outside their field of expertise. The author also reported that, even within occupation or field of study, women are hesitant to share their ideas with their colleagues. Using lab experiment to look at the implications of the confidence gap when it comes to "speaking up", she finds that women do not contribute their ideas when tasks are stereotyped as male (e.g. math and science) even when they know that they are the group's expert on the topic. Similarly, men are less likely to contribute ideas when tasks are stereotypically female.

Mobius, Muriel, Paul and Tanya (2015) conducted a lab experiment to document individuals' biases in assessing their own ability. They find that women are more conservative when updating their beliefs over their ability in the face of positive signals. This leads high ability women to be less confident than high ability men which could again explain why we see fewer women in high ranking positions.

Niederle and Vesterlund (2007) demonstrate in a lab experiment that confidence is a driving factor in women's occupational choices. Conducting an experiment in which men and women choose to participate in a task with tournament (competitive) or piece-rate (non-competitive) pay, they find that women are far less likely to choose the tournament than men are. However, this is not due to differences in preferences for competition but in differences in confidence. Men are overconfident, selecting the tournament more than they should while women are underconfident, selecting the tournament less often than they should.

Chenoweth (2003) found that the strongest predictors for college attendance for males were perceived intelligence, college plans of friends, and parent education level. For females, the strongest predictors were high school curriculum and perceived intelligence. Mau and Bikos (1998) found that female students had significantly higher educational aspirations than male students at both the 1st and 2nd year. Similarly, Mau and Bikos (2000) reported higher educational aspirations for females not only at the 1st and 2nd year, but also at the post-graduate level. Female rural high school students were found to have higher educational aspirations than their male counterparts in a study conducted by Dunne et al. (1981). In a study using data from the NCES High School and Beyond Study, Hanson (1994) investigated educational expectations that fall short of educational aspirations, lowered educational expectations, and educational expectations that exceed later achievement. She found that women were more likely to aspire to but not expect a college degree and those men were more likely to have reduced educational expectations and unrealized educational expectations. Sadker and Sadker (1994) describe adolescence as a "tightening corset" for girls, who begin to "restrict their interests, confine their talents, and pull back on their dreams.

For disadvantaged young people, the fulfillment and realization of their aspirations may be more difficult than for their more advantaged peers (Armstrong and Crombie, 2000; Hanson, 1994 & Trusty, 2002). Although aspirations significantly predict attainment, regardless of socio-economic background, they may be stronger predictors of achievement for more advantaged young people. Schoon (2006) examined the predictors of exam performance at 16 and adult social status for high and low-risk young people in two British cohorts, 1958-NCDS and 1970-BCS70. High versus low risk status was based on an index of social and economic indicators. Results demonstrated that educational aspirations were significant predictors for both low and high-risk young people, but had a stronger relationship with the exam performance of low-risk than high-risk individuals. In both cohorts, moreover, the effect of exam performance

on adult social status was higher for high-risk than for low-risk individuals, particularly in the later-born cohort.

According to Schoon (2006), future-orientated aspirations may buffer the detrimental impact of socio-economic disadvantage; however, young people from disadvantaged backgrounds seem to have to bring a little extra and do especially well in their exams in order to achieve. Disadvantaged young people have very clear understandings of the barriers which may prevent them from realizing their aspirations. The Prince's Trust (2004) explored the aims and aspirations of young people from both disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged backgrounds, as well as the obstacles that prevented them from achieving their aspirations. Of the disadvantaged sample, 41 per cent identified lack of qualifications as a block on their aspirations. Amongst 14 to 17-year-olds, 39 per cent of boys felt held back by their bad behaviour and 37 per cent by their lack of confidence. This increased to 48 per cent of girls feeling hampered by a lack of confidence but only 28 per cent feeling held back by their bad behaviour. Only 5 per cent of disadvantaged young people said that nothing held them back, compared with 13 per cent of those in the non-disadvantaged group. In support of the theory of Circumscription and Compromise (Gottfredson, 2002), when young people near the age that they are able to realize their aspirations, their opportunities may be limited by the pathways they have already taken, such as leaving education, getting a criminal record, or becoming a parent. For these disadvantaged young people, the most important time for intervention occurs at these critical junctures during life-changing transitions.

There is also evidence to suggest that teenage parenthood plays a role in parents' aspirations for their children. Adolescent mothers represent a distinct group as they often need to focus on their own aspirations for their education as well as for their children. In this sense, their two types of aspirations are intertwined (Camerana, Minor, Melmer & Ferie, 1998). For example, a US study found that when a teenage mother aspired to go beyond high school in her child's first year of life, the likelihood of her child dropping out from high school was decreased significantly 20 years later (Brooks-Gunn, Guang and Furstenberg, 1993). Most teenage mothers, however, reduce their own aspirations for their education following their pregnancy (Beutel, 2000). This is often the result of the multiple difficulties facing young mothers such as socio-economic disadvantage, poor physical and psychological health, single parenthood, low educational outcomes, poor employment prospects, and social exclusion (Hallam & Creech, 2007). Although teenage pregnancy and motherhood is viewed as problematic, evidence suggests that teenage mothers aspire to be good mothers and want to give their children the best care

despite their less than ideal circumstances. In their review of teenage motherhood, Hallam and Creech (2007) conclude that “teenage mothers need to be supported in sustaining their personal and parental aspirations. Long-term programmes which work to mothers’ strengths and that recognize cultural differences and offer attentive listening and coaching are needed.”

Research also suggests that parental aspirations may be more important for socially disadvantaged young people. In comparing socio-economically advantaged and disadvantaged individuals, Schoon, Parsons and Sacker (2004) found that parents’ educational aspirations were more important for fostering the achievements of young people from socioeconomically disadvantaged backgrounds compared with their more privileged counterparts. In support of the ‘class structurationist’ model, these findings suggest that decisions about the future may be based on more careful negotiations with parents about the pros and cons of additional education and the available family resources in socio-economically disadvantaged families because of the potential risks involved. The authors also suggest that parental support for additional education is crucial if young people from more disadvantaged backgrounds are to realize their full academic potential.

Verma and Sinha (1990) studied cognitive ability, academic achievement and study habits of socially advantaged and disadvantaged adolescent students of 12th grade in Uttar Pradesh, India. Socially advantaged group was comprised of 50 students of high castes while, two socially disadvantaged groups were comprised of 50 students of backward caste and 50 students of scheduled caste. The significant’ values for cognitive ability, academic achievement and study habits indicated that all the three factors were definitely affected by social disadvantage. Socially advantaged group exhibited higher levels of intelligence, academic achievement and good study habits.

Kaur (1991) studied the effect of home and school environment on study habits of 80 male and 80 female high school students in India. Self-designed questionnaire was used. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of information such as age, class, father’s education and occupation, mother’s education and occupation, family type, etc. The second part consisted of questions regarding study habits, home environment and school environment, percentages were calculated to analyze the data. It revealed that 85.00 per cent of boys studied at home according to a planned schedule. Among girls who had more house work responsibilities than did boys 82.50 per cent used a planned schedule 72.50 per cent of parents of girls and 68.75 per cent of parents of boys were interested in their children’s home-work. Wnagoo and Khan (1991) conducted study on socio economic status and academic achievement, a comparative study of

government and private school students. The sample of 180 female students from 10 government and 10 private schools within the age group of 13 years were selected from Srinagar. Kapoor's socio-economic status scale was administered and the mean of two annual examination results was considered as the criterion for the academic achievement. The results revealed that government and private school students differed significantly, so far as their socio-economic status is concerned. Significant difference in academic achievement was found between students from private and government schools. The relationship between academic achievement and socio-economic status when computed on total sample was statistically significant.

Choudhary and Muni (1995) reported that parental support had positive effect on their children's academic performance. They carried out a study on the role of parental support in children's need satisfaction and Academic achievement. Singh and Singh (1995) investigated the study habits of advantaged and disadvantaged college students. Based on socio-economic status criteria family income, education and occupation of the parents, caste, rural urban residence 150 advantaged and 150 disadvantaged male college students were identified. The study habits questionnaire used was developed by the authors. The chi-square test indicated significant difference between two groups. The advantaged group compared to disadvantaged group, had better study mechanisms, regularity in study, attentiveness in the classroom and habit of seeking help from teachers and classmates.

Patel (1997) investigated into the causes of underachievement in mathematics among pupils having high numerical ability. Based on scores of subjects on marks obtained in mathematics in terminal examination, a sample of 35 high achievers and 40 low achievers was selected by stratified cluster sampling method. The investigator collected information from pupils as well as parents. The chi-square test showed that parental income, occupation and education had a large impact on the academic achievement. Chaudary, Das Al, Ranjan John, & Ramadasan, (1998) conducted experimental study to see the effect of teaching strategies Synectics Models (SM), Gaming Strategy (GS) and Traditional Method (TM) and socio-economic status towards self-concept. A sample of 162 learners of VI grade was divided into two experimental and one control group. The experiment was carried out for the period of 4 months. Three treatments namely Synectics model, Gaming strategy and traditional method of teaching were taken as independent variables. Intelligence and age were taken as controlled variables. Khan and Jemberu (2002) studied the influence of family socio-economic status on educational and occupational aspirations of high and low achieving adolescents. The present study was an attempt to investigate the influence of socio-economic status on the academic

confidence among university undergraduates. Khan and Jemberu (2002) conducted a study, the sample consisted of 80 students, selected from four groups – middle status / high achieving, middle status / low achieving, lower status /high achieving and lower status / low achieving occupational and educational aspiration scales were administered for data collection and data were analyzed by means of ANOVA. Results showed that the impact of socio-economic status on education aspiration was minimal; its influence on occupational aspiration was larger. Achievement highly influenced educational aspirations, but its impact on occupational aspiration was insignificant.

Devi and Mayuri (2003) reported that a study of family and school factors that affect the academic achievement of residential school children studying IX and X classes. The sample consisted of 120 children of Hyderabad city. An interview schedule was developed by the investigator to study the family factors; the questionnaire administered to the teachers was developed by the second author to study school factors. The result indicated that girls were superior to boys. Family factors like parental aspirations and socio-economic status significantly contributed to academic achievement. Research has shown that students, whose parents have attended college, are more likely than those students whose parents have no postsecondary education to have his or her parents be more involved in preparation for college. These parents participate in several planning activities such as attending programs on educational opportunities, seeking information on financial aid and even going with his or her children to school visits in helping them to decide where to apply (Choy, 2001). In regards to college enrollment rates, parent's educational attainment plays a considerable role. Eighty-two percent of high school students, who graduated in 1999, whose parents held a college degree, were motivated to immediately enroll into college after graduation (Choy, 2001). These numbers were noticeably lower, only 54 percent for those recent high school graduates whose parents did not attend college after high school graduation. The rates were even lowest, 36 percent, for those students whose parents did not complete high school (Choy, 2001). Data has shown that there is a significant link between a parent's education and a child's motivation for college enrollment. Other research suggests, for first-generation students, the motivation to enroll in college is a deliberate attempt to improve his or her social, economic, and occupational standing (Ayala & Striplen, 2002).

First-generation students often attempt this, as well; however, the rationale is to better control the possible direction of his or her life. However, unlike non-first-generation, lacking motivation to complete the attempt is what creates the challenge. Educational goals vary by

parents' education level, with only fifty-five percent of 1992 high school graduates, whose parents had not attended college, aspired in eighth grade to obtain a bachelor's degree, compared to ninety-one percent for those whose parent(s) had a bachelor's degree or higher. Girls tend to have higher educational and occupational aspirations than do boys and constitute an increasing share of the workforce. However, many women choose not to follow careers in fields traditionally dominated by males, such as science and technology. These gender disparities are especially striking as males and females do not differ in tests of their quantitative abilities (Betz & Hackett, 1981).

Moreover, girls have been found to show lower levels of academic confidence in their abilities and in their mathematical aspirations, even when matched with males of equivalent talent or test scores (Eccles, 1987; Wilgenbusch & Merrell, 1999). Women's career trajectories are also more complex than males' because of multiple family and work related roles (Vondecacek, Lerner, Schulenberg, 1986). Career choices and attainment of females may also be constricted by gender role stereotypes, perceptions of sexism, and age of entry into motherhood (Eccles, 2005; Lucas, Wanberg & Zytowski, 1997; Schoon, Martin & Ross, 2007, and Swanson & Woike, 1997). Research indicates that early parenthood reduces the likelihood of attaining a high occupational status and these effects are stronger for women than for men (Schoon, Martin & Ross, 2007) Thus, one explanation for the gap between women's strivings and their occupational achievement may be their transition into parenthood, which usually occurs earlier for them than for men (Schoon, Martin & Ross, 2007)

Singh (1984) made a survey of the study habits of high, middle and low achieving adolescents in relation to their sex, intelligence and socio economic status and found that study habits of boys and girls differed significantly at different levels of academic achievement. Vijayalaxmi and Natesan (1992) studied factors influencing academic achievement. From Coimbatore, 100 students studying in XI standard were selected for the study of which 50 were boys and 50 were girls. To assess the socio economic status of the subjects, the socio economic status scale developed by Vandal (1981) was used. To assess the academic achievement of the subjects, the total marks obtained by the subjects in the quarterly and half yearly examination was taken. Findings showed that girls had a higher mean academic achievement compared to boys. However, Kaur and Gill (1993) revealed that achievement in English and total achievement was independent of sex, but boys scored higher than girls in achievement in Punjabi, Mathematics and Science. Ahmed (1998) reported that the influence of sex on achievement motivation was found to be statistically non-significant. He carried out a study on

“Achievement Motivation differences among adolescent boys and girls of various ordinal positions. The study was conducted on sample of one hundred and twenty students belonging to the age group of 13-18 years, studying in co-educated English medium institutions confined to the suburbs of Mumbai city. The tool used for data collection was Shafi’s “Achievement Motivation Scale”. The find out the influence of various variables, the technique analysis of variance was used.

The literature is replete with evidence emphasizing the importance of elementary and middle school experiences on students’ later educational aspirations, and that these experiences differ by gender. As students approach their middle school years, effects of gender differences become more apparent. Boys and girls experience education differently, which impacts their educational aspirations. These impacts last long after students complete middle school indeed, lasting through high school and postsecondary education (Gassin & Kelly, 1993). Pottorff, Phelps-Zientarski, and Skovera (1996) suggest that reading is predominantly viewed as a female activity. Trusty (2000) reports that gender influences educational choice. In their longitudinal study, they found that for women enrolled in postsecondary institutions, their eighth-grade academic performance in reading was the strongest predictor of their choice of major and the weakest predictor was their academic performance in eighth-grade mathematics. Conversely, for males, they found eighth-grade math as their strongest predictor of choice of major, with eighth-grade reading the weakest predictor.

2.2.8 Academic resilience and academic confidence

De Baca (2010), in his study of connection between resilience and academic success, reported that academic resilience can significantly affect school and life outcomes for youth, including academic success, even for students who are faced with great adversity. Furthermore, these skills can be learned, measured, and have lasting effects on academic performance.

Parsons, Croft and Harrison (2009) study found that students’ confidence in their ability in mathematics was shown to have significant relations with academic performance. Students with the lowest grades in school were generally least confident and least successful in mathematics. However, optimists suggest that there is always room for improvement. Support needs to be provided for the students with the least confidence as well as those with high confidence.

Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, (2004) have found that the juncture of three domains allows effective learning to take place. First, students need to be able to receive and process information, a process known as cognition. Second, students need to be able to physically

communicate their knowledge, a process relating to their psychomotor skills. And third, students need to possess affect, the desire to learn and understand why their participation is beneficial to them (this is also called social emotional learning). Reyes and Jason (1993) designed a study to understand successful high school students in an inner-city school. Two groups of Latino students were identified as being either at low or high risk for dropping out of school; all students shared a similar socioeconomic status, parent-student involvement, and parental supervision. They found that the low risk students reported strong resiliency, an attribute that the high risk students were significantly lacking.

Hanson and Austin (2003) conducted a longitudinal study of students in California and found that nearly every measure of resilience was positively related to concurrent test scores. The highest increases in test scores occurred in schools where the students reported high levels of resilience. Moreover, resilience development proved to be equally beneficial for successive test score improvements in both low and high performing schools. In his work to pinpoint the aspects of resiliency most closely linked to academic performance, Solberg, Carlstorm, Hamann, Felch, Johnson, Lantorn and Torres (1998) identified six key skills as the foundations of educational resiliency: building confidence, making connections, setting goals, managing stress, increasing well-being, and understanding motivation. Studies conducted by Solberg in Milwaukee Public Schools between 1998 and 2004 show that when students learn about and cultivate these six skills, their school performance improves significantly. Equivalently, in his Breaking Barriers study, Toldson (2008) examined the social, emotional, and cognitive factors contributing to the academic success of African American males (n=6000).

Wang, Haertel & Walberg (1994) reported that resilience is a multifaceted, complex phenomenon which enables an individual to succeed despite adverse conditions or outcomes. Although a relatively new area of study, the research base describing resilience is fairly well-developed. Studies from this area have commonly identified children as "at-risk" based on the presence of many factors proven to be correlated with adverse circumstances (e.g., poverty, minority status, and drug addiction), then examined groups of children who have shown success despite these negative circumstances. In examining at-risk populations, these studies have identified factors which moderate the effects of individual vulnerability or environmental hazards and enable at-risk children to "beat the odds" and succeed despite a situation which usually implies failure. Such factors include environmental factors, physical factors, socio-emotional factors and cognitive factors (Wang, Haestel &Walberg 1994) and can be more

generally identified as personal factors and environmental factors (Garmezy, 1991; Rutter, 1987).

There is possibility for overlap between the tenets of educational resilience and the study of factors influencing the education of dropouts. Wang, Haestel, & Walberg (1994) noted that educational resilience is not a product of innate characteristics or a life event, but is the result of continual interaction between individuals and their environment. This premise operates in concert with the perspective that dropping out is but one step on the educational continuum for these students. Because efforts to identify factors which promote the degree attainment in high school dropouts fit well within the framework of the study of educational resilience, viewing the degree-attaining dropout as a resilient student should broaden the knowledge surrounding degree attainment in dropouts.

2.2.9 Age and academic confidence

Mary and Shalini (2013) found in their study that age groups of secondary school students had significant influence on their Academic Behavioural Confidence. However, the authors reported that there was no significant difference between the different ages of the students and the Academic Behavioural Confidence score. Dabaj (2009) revealed that the older students are more likely to attend the traditional face-to-face classes in university than online education. Besides, he also pointed out that older students have difficulty of the nonverbal communication and incompetence of using technology. As the rapid changing in the technology, older students may not adapt the changes and then it will lower their motivation in using technology for learning. However, recent study shows that older student can use the technology to learn than younger students (Maria and Hefer, 2011). Yau and Cheng (2012) also reported that age difference is another personal factor that influences students' motivation in using technology for learning. Age difference in using technology has been reported in some researches. Because of the time constraint and other restrictions of life, distance education becomes popular for people to enhance their knowledge in their area of interest, especially for adults who cannot continue traditional face-to-face classroom education (Dabaj, 2009). Educational technology seems to solve the distance limitation problem.

According to Hannula, Maijala and Pehkonen (2004) gender differences favouring males in confidence in mathematics are well recorded. From an early age, boys estimate themselves to be better than girls in mathematics (Bohlin 1994; Hannula & Malmivuori 1997; Pehkonen 1997;

Vanayan, White, Yuen and Teper, 1997; Matoti & Junquiera 2009). Leedy, Lalonde and Runk (2003) further found that the traditional gender confidence in mathematics prevail even in mathematically talented (intelligent) students. According to Robins and Trzesniewski (2005) global self-esteem changes across the lifespan at key developmental periods. The developmental changes in global self-esteem reported by Robins and Trzesniewski (2005), which are based on a total of 88 published articles, suggest that for both males and females, global self-esteem is higher for younger teenagers, below the age of 18, than for those in the 18–22 age groups. Global self-esteem appears not to change as a function of age between 23 and 49. Global self-esteem then rises steadily during the 50s and 60s before it drops for both men and women who are in their 70s and 80s. In addition to changes in global self-esteem across the lifespan there are also gender differences in global self-esteem at certain points across the lifespan. Robins and Trzesniewski (2005) report that males have higher global self-esteem than females in adolescence and throughout adulthood. This gender difference was not observed in childhood and it narrows, before disappearing, in older age. Robins and Trzesniewski (2005) report that global self-esteem for boys in the 13–17 age group is higher than in boys in the 18–22 age group. The data reported in the current sample show the opposite effect in domain-specific dance confidence, such that dance-related domain-specific self-esteem starts at a low level and then goes up, as boys get older. Also Robins and Trzesniewski (2005) report that in men over the age of 65, global self-esteem goes down over the next two decades.

2.3.0 Goal setting and academic confidence

Brett & VandeWalle, (1999) studied and reported a strong link personality between goal setting process, Campbell (1982) reported that personality factors could affect several aspects of goal-setting behaviour: (1) the propensity to set goals; (2) the content of the goals set; (3) the stability of set goals over time; (4) the typical specificity of goals set; and (5) the typical difficulty of goals set. Cropanzano, James, and Citera (1992) conceptualized a goal hierarchy model of personality and motivation in which personality is proposed to direct the way the individual uses goals to focus and organize their behaviour. Within this goal hierarchy, individuals are proposed to hold different levels of goals that interact with one another to govern various motivational processes. At the top of the hierarchy are abstract direction orientations, such as a tendency to approach positive stimuli or avoid negative stimuli. These abstract direction orientations are mapped on to distinct response styles, or self-regulation tactics, which determine the types of goals that individuals will set at other levels of the goal hierarchy (e.g,

values, self-identities, personal projects). At the base of this goal hierarchy are performance oriented goals that refer to specific behaviors that ultimately serve to attain important values and desired self-identities. As such, this framework proposes that the specific performance goals chosen by an individual in a given situation are likely to be partially determined by his or her dispositional orientation (i.e., their personality). According to Dweck (1989), individuals displaying a learning goal orientation are more likely to seek challenging situations, regardless of their perceived level of ability or expectations of success. Even when faced with failure, learning goal oriented individual view the situation as a learning opportunity for personal growth (Bandura & Dweck, 1985). In this context, failure is seen as useful feedback simply meaning that the current strategy is insufficient for the particular task and that more effort and ingenuity is needed for mastery (Elliot & Dweck, 1988). In contrast to performance goal orientation, high effort in a learning goal framework does not engender cognitive or affective distress. Instead, effort is seen as a means to increasing one's ability to master a particular task, which leads to increased persistence towards their performance goal (Dweck, 1989).

Vandewalle, Brown, Cron, Slocum (1999) examined the influence of goal orientation on self-regulation tactics (goal setting, intended planning, intended effort) and sales performance across a three-month span. Participants were sales people working for a medical supplies distributor participating in a product promotion offered by the organization in conjunction with the supplier. The results of the study indicated that learning goal orientation was positively related to sales performance through its effects on goal setting and effort individuals holding a strong learning goal orientation were more likely to set higher goals and expend more effort in pursuing those goals than individuals with a weak learning goal orientation.

Donovan and Swander (2000) examined the impact of learning goal orientation on students' self-efficacy and goal choice during the course of a full academic semester. Once again, learning goal orientation demonstrated a positive relationship with class-related self-efficacy. However, the results of this study indicated that learning goal orientation was not significantly correlated with the level of goals set by individuals. Although such findings seem to contradict previous research concerning this relationship, supplemental analyses conducted by Donovan and Swander (2000) revealed the absence of a relationship between these two variables was primarily due to range restriction on the goal choice exhibited by individuals.

2.3.1 Socio-economic status and academic confidence

Ajila and Olutola (2007) reported that home has a great influence on the students' psychological, emotional, social and economic state. The state of the home affects the individual since the parents are the first socializing agents in an individual's life. This is because the family background and context of a child affect his reaction to life situations and his level of performance. Although, the school is responsible for the experiences that make up the individual's life during school periods, yet parents and the individual's experiences at home play tremendous roles in building the personality of the child and making the child what he is.

Ichado (1998) reported that the environment in which the student comes from has great influence his performance at school. Although, the home environment or family has been recognized as having a lot of influence on the academic performance of students. Previous studies have been concentrated on the area of socio-economic status of parents. Other aspects of parental environment such as the structure of the family have been grossly neglected. Ichado (1998) stated that parent's constant disagreement affects children emotionally and this could lead to poor academic performance in school. The family lays the psychosocial, moral and spiritual foundations in the overall development of the child. While the mother's significant role in this cannot be over-emphasized.

Agulanna (1999) found that the presence of a father in the home influences significantly the development of a child. Thus, parenthood is a responsibility requiring the full cooperation of both parents who must ensure the total development of their offspring(s). Structurally, a family is either broken or intact. A broken family in this context is one that is not structurally intact for various reasons; death of a parent, divorce, separation, dissolution and illegitimacy in which case, the family was never completed. This analysis becomes necessary because life in a single parent family can be stressful for both the child and the parent. Such families are faced with the challenges of diminished financial resources (Children's Defence Fund, 1994), assumptions of new roles and responsibilities, establishment of new patterns in intra-familial interaction and reorganization of routines and schedules (Agulanna, 1999). These conditions are not conducive for effective parenting. This is because when the single parent is overburdened by responsibilities and by their own emotional reaction to their situation; they often become irritable, impatient and insensitive to their children's needs.

2.3.2 Emotional intelligence and academic motivation

Animasaun (2007) found that teaching prison inmates' emotional intelligence raised their positive life skills. An immediate concern in this study is that, in the last ten years,

attention has further shifted to generic skills like creativity and emotional intelligence, believed to be better predictors of success. In fact, many studies (Goleman, 1995; Hemphill, 2004; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) are now pointing to the fact that creativity and emotional intelligence promote success more than the generic intelligence. Goleman (1995) argued that I.Q contributes only about 20% of life success. This implies that the remaining 80% of such success is accounted for by the other aspect of intelligence such as personality traits, Emotional Intelligence and creativity. This suggests that Emotional Intelligence and creativity can be good predictors of academic achievement and if taught and or enhanced could positively affect academic achievement in schools. Lirias (2009) indicated that with a caring environment, students showed better achievement and the ones who were able to achieve were those who attained high achievement motivation. Mahyuddin, Elias and Noordin (2009) also found a significant but low positive correlation between students' achievement motivation and their academic achievement.

Emotions provide people with valuable information about themselves and how they relate to others. Emotions are meaningful to education; they drive attention, which drives learning and memory (Sylwester, 1994). Boud, Keogh & Walker (1985) state that negative feelings can form negative attitudes towards learning. Clarify if it's emotions in a general sense or negative emotions can distort perceptions, lead to false interpretations of events, and can undermine the will to persist. Positive feelings and emotions can greatly enhance the learning process; they can keep the learner on the task and can provide a stimulus for new learning. Emotional intelligence is much more complex and integrative than acknowledging affective components within a learning environment (Jaeger, 2001). Emotions trigger cognitive activities and direct actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Researchers (Barris, Kielhofner, & Bauer, 1985; Geiger and Pinto, 1991; Mentkowski and Strait, 1983; Pinto, Geigerm and Boyle (1994) noted that an individual's experiences and environmental factors may lead to changes in learning style preferences. These experiences and environmental factors may be directly or indirectly related to an individual's emotions and feelings, thereby creating a critical role for emotions in learning (Jaeger, 2001).

Pool (1997) stated that emotional well-being is a predictor of academic achievement. Achievement is influenced by various cognitive, non-cognitive, personal and environmental factors. According to Goleman (1995), IQ alone is no more the measure of success. It only accounts to 20% and the rest goes to emotional and social intelligence and luck. Emotional intelligence is comprised of emotional reasoning about our feelings and emotions. It can help to

channelize the feelings in constructive direction because feelings affect motivation, learning, memory, attention, concentration, oral expression, written expression and academic success (Kusche & Greenberg 1994).

2.3.3 School-connectedness and academic motivation

According to a research by Anderman and Freeman, (2004) school connectedness was found to predict more academically motivated students especially in tertiary institutions and increased academic success. A good numbers of studies have found that school connectedness could predict reduced substance use (Wang, Matthew, Bellamy & James, 2005); reduced aggressive behavior (Brookmeyer, Fanti & Henrich, 2006); less likely of dropping out of school (Miltich, Hunt & Meyers, 2004); higher levels of overall life satisfaction, (You, Furlong, Felix, Sharkey & Tanigawa 2008), and students that connected to school are more able to envision meeting their future goals, (You, Furlong, Felix, Sharkey & Tanigawa (2008).

Students who feel more connected to school tend to perform better in the classroom. Just as societal interactions impact the success of adults in the working world, the school atmosphere impacts students' ability to be academically successful. Booker (2004) states that "student academic achievement is a direct result of dynamic interactions occurring between individuals in their social contexts." In the case of students in school, the school setting is the social context. One's sense of self-worth has been shown repeatedly to have an effect on one's ability to be successful, and this is no different in the school setting. The school environment has an impact unmatched by any other on students' sense of belonging and, therefore, will affect their academic success. In addition to impacting classroom performance, school connectedness also has an impact on other aspects of life including school behavior, attendance, and involvement, as well as potential to engage in behavior that may compromise one's health. Furthermore, the presence of physical aggression, relational aggression, and victimization in schools has also been linked to school connectedness, and the higher the presence of these destructive forces, the lower the feelings of school connectedness (Wilson, 2004). Additionally, the presence of aggression at school, regardless of the form, detracts from the safety of school. Blum (2005) further states that students who feel connected at school are not as likely as their less-connected counterparts to use substances, demonstrate emotional anguish, be involved in violent or deviant behavior, attempt suicide or entertain suicidal thoughts, use a weapon, engage in sexual intercourse at an early age, or become pregnant.

Blum (2005) found that nearly one half of all high school students feel disconnected from school and feel disenchanting with their school experiences. Factors that contribute to these

feelings include isolation from peer group and feeling unsafe at school. Feeling connected to the primary learning environment is important at any school level, but it is especially important during adolescence. Given that so many changes are occurring within adolescents during these years, it is very important that other forces in their lives be stable so that they may have meaningful and educationally purposeful experiences. So much of adolescents' lives are spent in school, and, for many, much of their senses of self-worth comes from their feelings about their success or lack thereof in the school setting. Students will carry forward what they learn during this time in their lives, so it is crucial to their development that they learn how to connect with others, that they are valuable and capable members of society and that they can be successful. In a 2003 study of peer harassment, school connectedness, and academic achievement, Eisenberg, Neumark-Stainer and Perry (2009) found that adolescents who experience maltreatment from their peers at school are less likely to want to be in school, and therefore less likely to experience school connectedness. That same study also suggested that those students who do not like school are more likely to be subjected to peer harassment and that 'B' students are among the least likely to experience mistreatment at school. This further illustrates that feelings of safety and belonging at school are key to student success. Safety, whether it is physical or emotional, is key to feeling connected to any environment, and school is no exception. If students do not feel safe at school, they will not feel connected to the school, and this will lower the likelihood that they will be able to focus or be engaged in the learning process.

Van Ryzin, Gravely and Roseth. (2009) found peer-related belongingness had a positive effect on engagement in learning and perceived peer support had a direct link with student hope. These results suggest that "the effects of peer support in school may be multi-faceted, in which peer factors such as modeling and socialization may contribute to engagement in learning, while other factors such as peer regard and acceptance influence psychological adjustment and self-esteem" Van Ryzin, Gravely and Roseth, (2009).

McNeely, Nonnemaker and Blum. (2004) found a direct association between a harsh and punitive discipline climate and lower school connectedness. McNeely, Nonnemaker and Blum (2004) also discussed the importance of autonomy and student self-management in developing a positive classroom management climate since school connectedness is lower in schools with difficult classroom management. Croninger and Lee (2001) found that students who graduate as compared to those who dropout are likely to spend more time studying after school and come to class prepared, differences can be seen even more dramatically as early as eighth grade. Teachers can promote the importance of education and serve as a vital resource for students who enter

high school with academic difficulties. “When adolescents trust their teachers and informally receive guidance from teachers, they are more likely to persist through graduation,...especially for socially at risk students who enter high school with low educational expectations and a history of school-related problems” (Croninger & Lee, 2001).

When discussing the classroom social environment, Ryan and Patrick (2001) suggested one of the important dimensions of the classroom is encouraging students to interact with one another during academic activities. Students should be encouraged to interact and exchange ideas, which will cause them to justify their answers and give them a greater array of resources to draw upon than if they were working individually. In the study, Ryan and Patrick found promotion of student interaction on academic work was correlated with motivation and engagement of students in the classroom. This commitment to education through interactions among classmates led students to engage in more adaptive patterns of learning, which is associated with motivation, engagement, and ultimately achievement.

Ryan and Patrick (2001) found teachers are also an important part of the classroom social environment as well. Teacher support was one of four proposed dimensions of the classroom social environment. Ryan and Patrick defined teacher support as “the extent to which students believe teachers value and establish personal relationships with them”, which usually involves characteristics such as “caring, friendliness, understanding, dedication, and dependability”. The presence of teacher support was found to be especially important in increasing students’ efficacy for communicating and getting along with their teacher and in increasing their engagement in more self-regulated learning. Teacher support also lead to less off-task and disruptive behaviors among students (Ryan & Patrick, 2001).

2.3.4 Academic self-concept and academic motivation

Altmann & Dupont (1988) reported in the study of self-concept on motivation that future goal attainment is related to academic self-concept. McCoach and Siegle (2003) found that there was a strong positive correlation between academic self-concept and grade point average (GPA) scores. It was also found that students with higher GPAs had statistically higher academic self-concept scores than students with lower GPAs. In a study by Kobal and Musek (2001), French students turned out to be more successful in school than Slovenians and it is further stated that the findings support the possibility that the higher academic achievement of French students is mostly related to their higher academic self-concept. Chowdhury and Pati, in Awan, Noureen & Naz (2011) assert that self-concept plays a significant role in the educational process when a

child is accepted, approved, respected and liked and one will have an opportunity to acquire an attitude of self-acceptance and respect for oneself.

McCoach and Siegle (2003) point out that academic self-concept involves a description and an evaluation of one's perceived academic abilities and encompasses beliefs of self-worth associated with one's perceived academic competence. These authors state further that students compare their own performance with that of their classmates (an internal comparison). This implies that students' academic self-concepts are determined by their perceptions of their academic ability in an area as well as their assessment of their academic standing relative to their classmates.

A study by Barker et al. in Awan, Noureen & Naz (2011), a positive and statistically significant correlation was found between self-concept and academic achievement. McCoach (2002) indicates that academic self-concept is a significant predictor of academic achievement. The same author further states that as much as one third of the variance in achievement can be accounted for by academic self-concept alone. In a study to investigate the relationship between self-beliefs, academic back-ground and achievement of adolescent Asian-American students in post-secondary education (House 1997), academic self-concept was found to be a significant predictor of Asian-American students' subsequent academic performance. In another study, academic self-concept was found to be directly and significantly related to the deep rather than the surface learning approach (Drew and Watkins 1998).

Green, Nelson, Martin and Marsh (2006) indicate that various studies have attempted to explain whether academic self-concept and motivation lead to an increase in academic achievement. According to them, a number of studies have examined the causal relations between academic self-concept and academic achievement, as well as academic motivation and academic achievement. Green, Nelson, Martin and Marsh (2006) furthermore mention that less integral to research, however, has been the investigation into the relationship between both academic self-concept and academic motivation, and their combined effect on academic achievement. Although the literature suggests that motivation and self-concept are related to each other, only a small number of studies have examined the effects of both of these factors in order to assess the relative salience of each of them to academic achievement (Green, Nelson, Martin & Marsh 2006).

2.3.5 Gender and academic motivation

In addition to family cohesion, age and gender have been identified as potential predictors of motivation for change. Many studies found that women are more likely than men to complete treatment for both drug and alcohol use (Barnet, 2006; Maglione, 2000; Freyer, Tonigan, Keller, Rumpf, John & Hapke 2005). An analysis of college students receiving treatment for heavy alcohol use found that women were more likely than men to consider changing their drinking habits. Men were also more likely than women to drop out of substance abuse treatment within 90 days of beginning treatment (Barnett, 2006). Similarly, Maglione (2000) found out that 39.4% of women remained in substance abuse treatment for at least 90 days while only 27.6 % of men remained in treatment.

Similar to gender, age affects treatment participation, as both treatment completion and participation increase with age (Martinez-Raga, Marshall, Keaney & Ball 2002; Maglione, 2000). An alcohol detoxification treatment study of 482 participants found that those who prematurely ended treatment were on average three years younger than those who completed treatment (Martinez-Raga, 2002). Furthermore, older participants were more likely to complete treatment than younger participants (Maglione, 2000; Freyer, Tonigan, Keller, Rumpf, John & Hapke 2005). Similarly, methamphetamine users participating in drug and alcohol treatment ages 24 and older had significantly higher rates of treatment completion than younger participants (Maglione, 2000).

2.3.6 Academic resilience and academic motivation

In their article regarding academic persistence, Bird and Morgan (2003) particularly evaluated issues, themes, and concerns of prospective adult distance education learners. Among others, motivation was listed as a key theme. The motivational factors influential in persistence were clearly defined goals, belief in one's ability to achieve such goals, and the anticipation of significant meaning when the goal is accomplished. In total, their survey of adult learners and their enrollment decisions in DE uncovered six themes: fears, motivation, family support, academic preparedness, suitability of programs, and identity change. The persistent online learner appears to need not only certain academic qualities and environmental support, but also a high motivation level (Morris, Finnegan & Wu 2005). Aviv (2004) presents various reasons distance learners appreciate the online learning environment. The most frequent reasons specified included studies, career, week day, family/ work, interaction, and online. For the most

part, the learners appreciate the online learning environment for factors that are associated with their own life situations and personal motivation.

The role of emotion in motivational resilience is seen most clearly in the study of emotional reactivity in the face of stress, in which children's coping and emotion regulation are shaped by the intensity of their initial negative emotional reactions to stressful events. Consistent with decades of work on emotion regulation (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012) research on academic coping has found that, when students show high levels of distress, it is more difficult for them to cope constructively with stressful academic events in school. For example, in one study of third to fifth graders, students' initial emotional reactions to academic stressors predicted changes in their subsequent coping across the school year, with students who reported high distress reactions in fall showing decreases in the use of constructive coping and an increasing reliance on maladaptive coping as the year progressed (Christenson, Reschly & Wylie, 2012).

Gayles (2005) approached the topic of educational resiliency through his study entitled "Playing the Game and Paying the Price: Academic Resilience among Three High-Achieving African American Males." He examined themes of academic resilience using a qualitative, ethnographic approach to data collection. He conducted several interviews with three identified African American males from non-affluent homes, all of whom had attended the least affluent high school in their city. The three boys were the only African American males to graduate with honors from their high school, and the first to graduate with honors and attend college from their individual families. All three boys worked many hours at part-time jobs (Gayles).

The data indicated that these boys thrived due to the presence of distant and diminished achievement, and utilitarian achievement as a source of resiliency. Distant and diminished achievement was the ability of each of the boys to downplay their academic success; it allowed their school identification to come from other sources, instead of being based on their high academic achievement. This phenomenon stemmed from the belief that success in socially cultivated and high academics does not delineate success in certain cultures, but rather the opposite, successful failure. Often times, students of high ability choose to succeed at being a failure as a result of their culture and social standards. The three boys in this study chose to diminish their accomplishments in order to survive within the expectations of their environment (Gayles, 2005).

In another study that used academic grades as criteria for resiliency, Gonzalez and Padilla (1997) examined factors that contributed to the academic resilience and achievement of 133 resilient and 81 non-resilient Mexican American high school students. From a population of over

2000 Mexican American students from three high schools in California, they identified “resilient students” as students who reported that their grades so far in high school were “Mostly A’s.” They identified “non-resilient students” as those who reported that their grades in high school were “Mostly D’s” or “Mostly below D’s.” They found that resilient students had significantly higher perceptions of family/peer support, teacher feedback, positive ties to school, value placed on school, peer belonging, and familism than non-resilient students did. Researchers also found that students’ sense of belonging to school was the only significant predictor of academic resilience.

2.3.7 Age and academic motivation

According to Pintrich and Schunk (2002), motivation influences learning and performance and what students do and learn influence their motivation. It is assumed, however, that people differ in their need to achieve in situations that call for excellence (Muola 2010). Gesinde, in Muola (2010), argues that the urge to achieve varies from one individual to the other. He adds that those who have high achievers as their role models in their early life experience would develop a high need for achievement, while those who have low achievers as their role models will hardly develop the need for achievement. According to Tella (2007), the issue of motivating learners is seen as an important aspect of effective learning. Fontana, in Tella (2007), argues that satisfactory school learning is unlikely to take place in the absence of sufficient motivation to learn.

Some studies have made several attempts to empirically uncover the nature of the processes responsible for changes in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. For instance, the Lepper, Corpus and Iyengar (2005) study has tried to determine if social desirability is responsible for the age effects on motivation. Results revealed that it did not. Gottfried, Marcoulides, Gottfried and Oliver (2009) showed that the more the parents used task-intrinsic practices, the less the children showed a decrease in intrinsic motivation. These authors did not assess extrinsic motivation. Finally, Corpus, McClintic-Gilbert and Heyenga 2009 showed that positive fall-to-spring changes in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were predicted by an increase in students’ perceptions of the school context as being mastery-oriented and performance-oriented, respectively.

One other factor that could mediate the age effect on school motivation is the social context prevalent in children’s education domain. A key social factor deals with the autonomy support (Deci & Ryan 1985) that adults provide children. Autonomy support is said to be present

when parents or teachers take the children's perspective and provide opportunities for choice and participation in decision making, while minimizing the use of pressure (Grolnick & Ryan 1989). Much research has shown that while autonomy support from teachers and parents fosters intrinsic motivation and self-determined forms of extrinsic motivation, it also decreases non self-determined extrinsic motivation and amotivation (Grolnick & Ryan 1989; Guay & Vallerand 1997; Vallerand, Fortier & Guay 1997). Furthermore, autonomy support and provision of choice from teacher and parents seem to decrease as a function of age, while there is an increase in teacher control in the classroom (Eccles 1993). This decrease in autonomy support in high school comes at a time when students feel that they should be getting more, rather than less, say in their schooling (Eccles & Midgley 1989) thereby exacerbating even more the loss in autonomy and consequently the potential loss in intrinsic motivation and self-determined extrinsic motivation.

A final conclusion on the age-school motivation relationship is that other mediators may be at play. Indeed, in spite of the significant mediating role of teacher autonomy support, age was found to directly and positively predict intrinsic motivation, but to directly and negatively predict non self-determined extrinsic motivation. Past research has shown that parents, and especially mothers (Grolnick & Ryan 1989), as well as teachers (Taylor & Ntoumanis 2007) who show high involvement and who provide structure with respect to children's education, have a positive effect on children's motivational processes. Thus, being involved with children's schooling and providing structure (Connell & Wellborn 1991) may represent likely mediators of the age-school motivation relationship. Another potential mediator is psychological maturity. Indeed, an increasing amount of research has shown that with age, one's motivation to engage in important but non interesting activities such as tidying one's room and obeying authorities, becomes more self-determined in nature (Chandler & Connell 1987; Sheldon, Kasser, Houser, Marko, Jones & Turban 2005). Furthermore, additional research by Sheldon and Kasser (2001) has shown that with age, one's psychological maturity increases. It is thus possible that psychological maturity mediates the age-school motivation relationship. Finally, research by Corpus and colleagues (2009) reveals that school-promoted goal context can also influence children's school motivation. Future research is needed to determine if involvement and structure, as well as psychological maturity and goal-school context, represent additional mediators of the age-school motivation relationship.

Padrón, Waxman, Brown, and Powers (2002) asserted that "some English language learners (ELLs) do well in school despite coming from school and home environments that

present many obstacles for learning”. Researchers explained that research that is conducted from an educational resilience context allows researchers to focus on the predictors for academic success, rather than on academic failure, for English language learners. Furthermore, Padrón, Waxman, Brown, and Powers (2000) stated that when research focuses on the resilience of English language learners it “enables us to specifically identify those ‘alterable’ factors that distinguish successful from less successful students”. The body of research that focuses on resilience in English language learners does not only ask us to challenge deficit model perspectives, but it also asserts that students can achieve academic success if educators focus on factors that they can change. Building up their research, these researchers employed one of the few experimental studies focusing on resilience in school settings. In 2002, Padrón and colleagues designed, implemented, and tested the Pedagogy for Improving Resiliency Program (PIRP), a program created to embolden resilience for English language learners.

2.3.8 Goal setting and academic motivation

Emmons and Diener (1986) found that goal attainment was strongly correlated with positive affect among under-graduates (and that the lack of goal attainment was correlated with negative affect, although somewhat less strongly) (Karakowsky & Mann, 2008). They also discovered that the mere presence of self-rated important goals was as strongly correlated with positive affect as actually attaining those goals. Brunstein (1993) demonstrated, similarly, that perceived goal progress could act as a catalyst for increased feelings of well-being. Levels of perceived self-efficacy are also likely to increase as progress is made and the sense of well-being rises (Latham & Seijts, 1999). If participating in goal setting improves self-efficacy, then individuals are not only encouraged to set further goals but are also likely to develop higher expectations of success.

Awan Noureen and Naz (2011) state that girls have been found by several studies to be more motivated and to be higher achievers than boys. Hotulainen and Schofield, in Awan et al. (2011), explain the same results in their study that girls were found to generally outperform boys and that boys consistently showed lower levels of academic competence and lower GPAs than their female counterparts. In another study whose aim was to examine the motivational differences between male and female students, females were found to be more motivated than males in all motivational subscales.

Studies by Edwin A. Locke and his colleagues have shown that more specific and ambitious goals lead to more performance improvement than easy or general goals. As long as

the person accepts the goal, has the ability to attain it, and does not have conflicting goals, there is a positive linear relationship between goal difficulty and task performance. Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham (1999) examined the behavioural effects of goal-setting, concluding that 90% of laboratory and field studies involving specific and challenging goals led to higher performance than did easy or no goals. Locke and Latham (2006) argue that it is not sufficient to urge employees to "do their best". "Doing one's best" has no external referent, which makes it useless in eliciting specific behavior. To elicit some specific form of behaviour from another person, it is important that this person has a clear view of what is expected from him/her. A goal is thereby of vital importance because it helps an individual to focus his or her efforts in a specified direction. In other words, goals canalize behaviour.

Realistic goal setting often requires training. In the context of an individualized, mathematics instructional program, Sagotsky, Patterson and Lepper (1978) found that self-monitoring of progress enhances time spent working on materials and number of problems solved, whereas setting session goals offers no advantages. Children may have had difficulty setting realistic goals because problem difficulty varied within and between units. Goal setting is appropriate only when task difficulty remains relatively constant. There is rich, historical literature addressing factors that influence goal setting and training. Lewin, Dembo, Festinger and Sears (1944) explored the construct "level of aspiration," or goal-setting behaviors within a range of difficulty. Various factors influenced the level of aspiration: prior successes and failures, group standards, upper and lower goal limits, and expectations for success and failure. Achievement motivation training programs also focused on goal setting (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell, 1953); de Charms (1976) worked with teachers, who trained students to take personal responsibility for their learning outcomes. Goal setting was an important training component; in one activity, students chose easy, moderate, or difficult words to learn to spell.

Teaching realistic goal setting can be done in different ways. Schunk (1985) set upper and lower limits on students' goals. Limits can be removed when students understand the nature of the task and their immediate capabilities. Tollefson (1984) acquainted students with goal setting using games. Over trials, students selected a distance from a wastebasket, predicted how many shots they would make, made their tosses, and recorded scores. In a baseball game, teachers prepared four word lists for each student; each list contained easy (single), moderate (double or triple), and difficult (home run) words. For each inning, students chose the hit they wanted, an assistant read the word, and the student spelled it. Correct spellings were "hits," incorrect ones were "outs." Goal-setting conferences also are useful (Gaa, 1973, 1979). By

meeting individually with teachers, students learn to assess goal difficulty and present skills. Conferences also provide students with control over learning outcomes, which can enhance self-efficacy for learning (Schunk,1989). Though Gaa (1973) found that goal-setting conferences led to lower certainty of goal attainment, conferences raised accuracy of goal setting. Over time, certainty of goal attainment should improve as students perceive progress in skill development.

2.3.9 Socio-economic status and academic motivation

OECD/UNESCO (2003) reported that family characteristics are a major source of disparity in students' educational outcomes. More family financial resources, which are associated with parents' occupation and educational attainment, often imply increased learning opportunities both at home and in school. Better-educated parents can contribute to their children's learning through their day-to-day interactions with their children and involving themselves in their children's school work. Freijo (2006) reported that various aspects of the family economic, social and cultural conditions have a consistent impact on the literacy performance of students in all countries. Students whose parents have better jobs and higher levels of educational attainment and who are exposed to more educational and cultural resources at home tend to have higher levels of literacy performance.

Prabhu and Thomas (2014) conducted a study on the influence of parental factors on entrepreneurial attitude of some selected high school students. Findings revealed that interest in becoming an entrepreneur for school students whose parents are entrepreneurs was significantly greater than that of those students whose parents are not entrepreneurs. It was concluded in the study that high school students' entrepreneurial intentions were largely influenced by the parental factors such as parental role modelling, access to Business network of parents, entrepreneurial family culture, educational qualification of parents and family standard of living.

Onyejiaku (2001) reported that the behaviour patterns and training which the child learns from the family often determines his job perception and subsequent occupational decision. In the same study, the author also found that there was positive relationship between children's early rearing experiences and their occupational choice, since children spend most of their years at home and they naturally regard the family as their reference group with parents as significant figures.

Crant, (1996) reported in a study that being raised in a family that is entrepreneurial significantly impacts individuals' intentions to start their own businesses. The study further

revealed that male students are being influenced by entrepreneurial family orientation. Students that have role models have more tendencies in wanting to start a business than those that have no role model. Birley and Westhead (1994) found that self employed parents tend to be especially relevant as mentors and guides for children starting their own businesses.

Higher levels of parental education and socio-economic variables have inverse relationship with tobacco use and use of other psycho-active substances among adolescents. Prevalence of smoking is more common in families which are with low socio-economic educational status of the society. Children using inhalants generally hail from low socio-economic status, engaged in menial work with unstable family income. Marital discord, divorce among parents, single parenting, is associated with drug abuse among adolescents. Parents having poor monitoring of their children are likely to have their children abusing drugs.

Parenting plays a significant role in determining student motivation. According to research parental support is beneficial in that it helps to offer a sense of security and comfort in an unpredictable society as the adolescent strives for growth and self-development. Parental involvement is important to a student's educational success all the way to the high school level (Eccles & Harold, 1993 cited in Spurling, 2010). Relationships have been found to exist between parental involvement and such student variables as academic achievement, sense of well-being, attendance, homework readiness, grades, and emotional aspirations. Specifically, the types of parental involvement examined were assisting the student with homework, attending school programs, watching the student in sports or other extracurricular activities, helping the student to select courses and remaining informed of the student's progress in school (Gonzalez, 2002).

Additional studies show parental involvement to be positively related to high school students' academic achievement, time spent on homework, favorable attitudes toward school, likelihood of staying in school, and educational aspirations beyond the high school level. Permissive parenting style and a lack of parental involvement tend to force at-risk adolescents to turn to their peers. As a result, the lack of parental control and excessive peer influence may lead to improper social attitudes and behaviors, as well as a host of negative outcomes including disciplinary problems, low grades, and drug use (Rumberger, 2005). While authoritative parenting and parental involvement were effective preventive and intervention strategies for elementary and secondary students, one must look deeper to change the university student's motivation and self-efficacy. One instructional variable, verbal praise has often been identified as

an important mediator in the enhancement of students' motivation in the classroom (Bergin, 1999). Verbal praise impacts students' classroom achievement, homework habits, and motivation to learn (Hancock, 2002).

To understand why verbal praise might impact college/university students' motivation, we turn to Bandura's social cognitive theory. It stands in clear contrast to theories of human functioning that overemphasize the role of environmental factors in the development of human behavior and learning. William James argued, "Introspective observation is what we have to rely on first and foremost and always." Bandura's view of human behavior depicted the beliefs of people about themselves as critical elements in the exercise of control and personal agency. These personal beliefs influence people's aspirations, self-efficacy beliefs, personal standards, emotional states, and other self-regulatory influences. For Bandura, the capability that is most "distinctly human" is self-reflection, hence it is a prominent feature of social cognitive theory. Through self-reflection, people make sense of their experiences, explore their own cognitions and self-beliefs, engage in self-evaluation, and then alter their thinking and behavior accordingly.

According to Kimberly (2010) Motivation is definitely an area where resilient and non-resilient students differ. This difference, it seems, varies by ethnic groups. Resilient African-American adolescents differ from their counterparts and resilient Hispanic adolescents differ from their counterparts. However, the differences vary across ethnic groups as well. The difference in cognitive motivation is not surprising for either the African American or Hispanic ethnic group. What is surprising is that the resilient African American adolescents were superior on all four motivational dimensions (ability, environmental support, control, and importance/emphasis). This means that their cognitive motivational pattern was a lot stronger. The African-American adolescents had a robust cognitive motivational pattern. This means that they were firm in purpose and outlook. This motivational pattern was associated with their resilience status and their academic achievement. This made their motivational pattern stronger than the non-resilient African American adolescents and the resilient Hispanic adolescents. The key element here is that the resilient African American youth believed that their environment supported their cognitive ability.

The resilient Hispanic adolescents had a tenacious motivational pattern in the cognitive sphere. Although this was not as strong as the resilient African American adolescents, it was stronger than the non-resilient Hispanic adolescents who had a vulnerable motivational pattern. The non-resilient Hispanic adolescents' motivational pattern made them vulnerable in times of

stress. The resilient Hispanic adolescents' motivational pattern was enough to differentiate them from the non-resilient students. It was also enough to keep them resilient and help them to achieve academically. Differences existed in material gain for resilient and non-resilient African American adolescents. Both groups of adolescents had a vulnerable motivational pattern, but the resilient students placed more emphasis here. This suggests that for the resilient students, their lack of ability and the neutrality of environmental support in the area of material gain bothered their self-concept more. It also suggests that they believed this to be an important area even though, they didn't believe in their own ability or their environmental support. The resilient students truly believed in the importance of material gain. It could be that they are preparing themselves for college by saving money.

It could mean that they are contributing to their family's financial situation. It could also mean that they have bought into the idea of American capitalism. More qualitative research is needed to know for sure. Differences also existed in extra-curricular activities for the resilient and non-resilient African American adolescents. Both the resilient and non-resilient African American adolescents had a vulnerable motivational pattern in the extra-curricular activity area. However, the resilient adolescents placed more emphasis and importance here. This means that their self-concept was more impacted by their beliefs than their non-resilient counterparts. This could mean that they realize how important these activities are for the development of skills. It could also mean that they realize that participation in these activities might aid them in the college admissions process. The resilient Hispanic adolescents place less of an emphasis on belongingness than their non-resilient counterparts. Both groups of students have a tenacious cognitive pattern; the difference lies in the amount of emphasis.

HYPOTHESIS

Hypothesis 1:

There is no significant relationship that exists among the independent variables (Emotional intelligence, Academic resilience, Academic self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental Socio-economic status) and the dependent variable (Students' Academic confidence).

Hypothesis 2:

There is no the composite influence of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status) on the dependent variable (Students' Academic Confidence).

Hypothesis 3:

There is no the relative contribution of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self- concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status) on the dependent variable (Students' Academic Confidence).

Hypothesis 4:

There is no significant relationship that exists among the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, gender and Parental Socio-economic status) and the dependent variable (Academic Motivation)

Hypothesis 5:

There is no composite effect of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status) on the dependent variable (Academic Motivation).

Hypothesis 6:

There is no relative effect of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self- concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status) on the dependent variable (Academic Motivation).

CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY

This section presents methodology for the study under the following headings; research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, instruments, procedure for data collection and data analysis.

3.1 Research design

This study adopted correlational type of design. The goal of correlational research is to identify predictive relationships among two or more variables, whereby the results obtained would have implications for decision-making and further studies. Therefore, the main thrust of the study was to examine psycho-personological factors (Emotional intelligence, Academic resilience, Academic self-concept, School connectedness, Goal-setting, Gender, Age and Socio-economic status) as predictors of academic confidence and motivation among undergraduates in Southwestern Nigeria.

3.2 Population

The population for this study comprised of all Federal University undergraduates in Southwestern Nigeria. This comprised of Federal University in Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo state.

The population of the undergraduates in the selected Universities as at the time of the study were as follows; Federal University of Agriculture Abeokuta, 15,359, Federal University of Technology Akure, 13,000, Obafemi Awolowo University Ile-Ife, 32,500 and University of Ibadan, 33,481 students.

3.3 Sample and sampling technique

A total of one thousand one hundred and fifty participants (1,150) were selected using proportionate sampling method from four federal Universities (Federal University of Agriculture, Abeokuta (285), Federal University of Technology, Akure, (235), Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife (310), and University of Ibadan, (320). The students who served as participants were selected across various faculties and levels. Approximately 1% of the total population of Obafemi Awolowo University and University of Ibadan and 1.8% of the total population of Federal University of Agriculture Abeokuta and Federal University of Technology Akure were selected for this study.

Multi-stage sampling procedure was employed to select respondents. Purposive sampling technique was used to select four states (Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo) in Southwestern Nigeria

3.4 Instrumentation

Eight (8) instruments adapted and revalidated were used for this study. The instruments are as follows;

Academic Confidence scale by Sander, Arias, Stevenson and Jones (2011).

Academic Motivation Scale developed by Pintrich and DeGroot (1990)

Emotional Intelligence Scale by Schutte N.S. (1998)

School Connectedness Scale developed by Agu. Omenyi and Odimegwu (2010)

Academic Self- Concept Scale developed by Liu and Wang(2005)

Academic Resilience Scale developed by Gail M.Wagnild &Heather M. Young (1993)

Goal setting Scale developed by Elliot and Murayana (2008)

Parental Socio-Economic Status Scale developed by Salami (2000)

SECTION A

This section consists of several items purposely designed to measure certain respondent's demographic variables such as gender and age.

Academic confidence scale

This section comprise of questionnaire items on academic confidence of university students. It was adapted from the adapted work and questionnaire by Sander, Arias, Stevenson and Jones (2011). This scale is designed to measure academic behaviours that depict the confidence level in respect to University academic activities. It is a self-administrated multidimensional scale to measure students' level of academic confidence. The scale consists of (22) items on 5- point Likert-type scale (1 = strong ly disagree to 5= strongly agree which has been distributed on four domains: academic adjustment, social adjustment, emotional adjustment and commitment to achieve goals. Sample of items on the scale are as follows: “How confident are you that you will be able to ask lecturers questions about the material they are teaching, in a one-to-one setting” “How confident are you that you will be able to understand the material outlined and discussed with you by lecturers”. A reliability analysis was carried out on the scale using pilot test and Cronbach Alpha method. The reliability coefficient was 0.84

Academic motivation scale

The academic motivation was measured using the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) developed by (Pintrich & DeGroot 1990). It is a 14-item inventory on 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree) that measures two different types of scales: motivation and learning. Motivational scales include: Intrinsic goal orientation, extrinsic goal orientation, task value, control beliefs about learning, self-efficacy, and test anxiety. Learning scales include: rehearsal, elaboration, organization, critical thinking, peer learning, help seeking, meta-cognition, effort management, time and study environment. Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie (1993) used this inventory in a study to show predictive validity of school achievement. In this study, they found that intrinsic goal orientation, along with other variables, was positively related to achievement. This inventory is effective in comparing motivational and learning factors within and outside of the inventory. However, there

are only four questions each that assess intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. With all the factors involved in both areas, these sections could not possibly measure student goals in the classroom.

Samples of items are “During class time I often miss important points because I’m thinking of other things”, “When reading for this course, I make up questions to help focus my reading”, “When I become confused about something I’m reading, I go back and try to figure it out” among others. A pilot test was carried out to determine the reliability analysis of the items on the scale, the reliability coefficient using Cronbach Alpha was 0.69.

Emotional intelligence scale (eis)

This scale was adapted from the work Schutte, N.S. (1998) “Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence, Personality and Individual Differences”. The Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) is a method of measuring general Emotional Intelligence (EI), using four sub-scales: emotion perception, utilizing emotions, managing self-relevant emotions, and managing others’ emotions. The SSEIT is structured off of the EI model by Salovey and Mayer (1990). The SSEIT model is closely associated with the EQ-I model of Emotional Intelligence. The SSEIT includes a 33-item self-report using a 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree) scale for responses. Each sub-test score is graded and then added together to give the total score for the participant. It consists of 33 items. The items on the measure are self-rated on a 5- point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree). Sample of items on the scale are as follows: “I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.” “When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.” “I easily recognize my emotion as I experienced them”. A pilot test was carried out to determine the reliability analysis of the items on the scale, the reliability coefficient using Cronbach Alpha was 0.78.

School connectedness scale

The school connectedness was measured using Students Campus Connected Questionnaire (SCCQ) developed and validated by Agu, Omenyi and Odimegwu (2010). The scale was developed with resources from literature review which include such works as that of Edens (2006), Libbey (2003), amongst others. It consists of 10 items with five point likert type scale of Strongly disagree- 1, Disagree- 2, Undecided-3, Agree-4 and Strongly agree-5. Sample of items on the scale include the following. “I feel comfortable sharing my problems and thoughts with my lecturer”, “I feel my friends care about me”, “I am happy with my school management”. The scale was considered appropriate considering that most of the works on students’ connectedness were in elementary and high schools and considering also that students in tertiary institutions have a wider interaction networked community that comprised, the teachers, the other students, the support of staff and the Management. After the scale had been pilot tested, the reliability analysis was carried out using Cronbach Alpha method, the value of reliability coefficient was 0.65.

Academic self-concept questionnaire

The Academic Self-Concept Questionnaire (ASCQ) was developed by Liu and Wang (2005) which was designed with reference to the Academic Self-Esteem subscale (Battle, 1981), the School Subjects Self-Concept (Marsh, Relich & Smith, 1983) and the General and Academic Status scale (Piers & Harris, 1964), and was also designed specifically for a CHC value system. Sixteen items were selected from the established instruments and four additional items were constructed, guided by a general understanding of the students and the cultural context in Singapore. Several items were reworded so that the questionnaire contained both positive and negative items. Negatively worded items are included in questionnaires to disrupt a response set where subjects respond favourably or unfavourably to all items (Marsh, Barnes, Cairnes & Tidman, 1984). The original ASCQ consisted of two 10-item subscales: students’ academic

confidence (10 items) and students' academic effort (10 items). The academic confidence (AC) subscale assessed students' feelings and perceptions about their academic competence. Example items included 'I am good in most of my school subjects' and 'Most of my classmates are smarter than I am' (negatively worded). The academic effort (AE) subscale assessed students' commitment to and involvement and interest in schoolwork. After the scale had been pilot tested, the reliability analysis was carried out using Cronbach Alpha method, the value of reliability coefficient was 0.80

Academic resilience scale

This research instrument was adapted from the work Gail M. Wagnild and Heather M. Young. It was originally a 25-item scale. It is self-reported summated rating scale, with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Scoring and interpretation was in the following pattern: 25-100 very low resilience; 101-115 low resilience; 116-130 moderately low resilience; 131-145 moderately high resilience; 145-160 high resilience; 161-175 very high resilience, Wagnild and Young (1993) reported reliability co-efficient of .91 for the scale, while for the present study an Alpha reliability co-efficient of .861 was established, both indicating that the resilience scale is reliable. It was measured on a 5-point likert-type scale where 1="Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Undecided, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree". The scale measured the level of how students cope in the face of adversities. It contains items like "When I make plans, I follow through with them" "I can usually find something to laugh about". After the scale had been pilot tested, the reliability analysis was carried out using Cronbach Alpha method, the value of reliability coefficient was 0.71

Goal -setting scale

This scale was adapted from Achievement Goal Questionnaire (AGQ) Items by Elliot and Murayama (2008). This research instrument measured goal- setting behaviour. It contains 13 items with 5- point likert –type scale ranging from strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. Strongly Agree carries 5marks, Agree carries 4marks, Undecided carries 3marks, Disagree carries 2marks while Strongly Disagree carries 1mark. The original scale contains 12 items with subscales of Performance-approach goal items, Mastery-avoidance goal items, Mastery-approach goal items, and Performance-avoidance goal items. Samples of items on the adapted scale include the following; “My goal in the class is to get a better grade than most of the other students”, “I am often concerned that I may not learn all that is to be learnt in the class” and “It is important for me to understand the content of the course as thoroughly as possible”. After the scale had been pilot tested, the reliability analysis was carried out using Cronbach Alpha method, the value of reliability coefficient was .76

Parents’ socio-economic status scale

The parents socio-economic status of adolescents was measured by socioeconomic status (SES) developed by salami (2000a). It was developed to measure the educational, occupational and social status of the adolescents’. The items in the scale requested for data of the participants also. These items include parents’ occupation, parents’ level of education parents’ residence, parents’ possession of necessary and luxury items. The scores of all these were summarized, the result of which indicates whether the participant’s family socio-economic background is high or low. It consists of 7 sections. After the scale had been pilot tested, the reliability analysis was carried out using Cronbach Alpha method, the value of reliability coefficient was 0.70

3.5 Procedure of administration

A letter of introduction was obtained by the researcher from the department of Counseling and Human Development Studies, University of Ibadan to the selected Federal Universities in South-West Nigeria.

On presentation of the introductory letter, the researcher was granted the permission to administer the instruments to the students by the authorities of the selected Universities before commencing the research work. The researcher sought for research assistants to assist in the administration and collection of the instruments. Students were contacted, and the essence of the study was explained to them before the administration of the instruments. Thereafter, the questionnaires were collected for scoring.

3.6 Method of data analysis

The data collected was analyzed with the aid of Pearson Product Moment Correlation and multiple regression to answer the research questions stated earlier at 0.05 level of significance. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to establish the relationship among the independent variables and the dependent variables, while multiple regression was used to establish the joint and relative effect of independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental Socio-economic status) on dependent variables (Academic confidence and Academic motivation)

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This chapter presents the result of the findings. Six hypotheses were tested. The summary of the findings are presented below:

Hypothesis 1:

There is no significant relationship that exists among the independent variables (Emotional intelligence, Academic resilience, Academic self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental Socio-economic status) and the dependent variable (Students' Academic confidence).

Table 4.1: Mean, Standard Deviation and Inter-correlations among the Variables

Correlations

| Variables | Mean | Std. Dev | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|-------------------------------|---------|----------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Students' Academic Confidence | 94.74 | 16.41 | 1.000 | | | | | | | | |
| Emotional Intelligence | 75.29 | 12.88 | .550* | 1.000 | | | | | | | |
| Academic Resilience | 69.67 | 11.88 | .604* | .144 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| Academic Self concept | 68.15 | 12.90 | .425* | .119 | -.101 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| Goal-setting | 21.51 | 4.71 | -.191* | -.140 | -.180 | .142 | 1.000 | | | | |
| School-connectedness | 36.03 | 7.91 | .481* | .169 | .103 | .119 | .086 | 1.000 | | | |
| Age | 21.06 | 2.19 | -.046 | .103 | .012 | .018 | -.122 | .088 | 1.000 | | |
| Gender | 1.25 | .431 | .025 | .083 | .024 | .050 | .084 | .096 | -.084 | 1.000 | |
| Parental SES | 2878.04 | 299.31 | .131 | .027 | -.010 | .067 | .021 | .042 | .035 | -.074 | 1.000 |

Table 4.1 presents correlation between the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age and Parental Socio-economic status) and academic confidence. The table shows that students' academic confidence was positively correlated with emotional intelligence ($r = 0.550$, $p < .05$), academic resilience ($r = 0.604$, $p < .05$), academic self-concept ($r = 0.425$, $p < .05$) and school connectedness ($r = 0.425$, $p < .05$). Students' academic confidence had negative significant correlation with goal setting of the students ($r = -0.191$, $p < .05$). However, there was no significant relationship between age ($r = -0.046$, $p > .05$), gender ($r = 0.025$, $p > .05$), parental

socio-economic status ($r = 0.131$, $p > .05$) of the students and their academic confidence. The inter-correlation that exists between the independent variables were low, and not significant, which implies that the variables were independent of each other.

Hypothesis 2:

There is no the composite influence of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status) on the dependent variable (Students' Academic Confidence).

Table 4.2: Multiple Regression Analysis on Students' Academic Confidence behaviour

| Multiple R | = 0.685 | | | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------|------|----------------|---------|------|
| Multiple R ² | = 0.470 | | | | |
| Multiple R ² (Adjusted) | = 0.466 | | | | |
| Standard Error of Estimate | = 11.991 | | | | |
| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean of Square | F-Ratio | P |
| Regression | 145247.385 | 8 | 18155.923 | 126.280 | <.05 |
| Residual | 164047.453 | 1141 | 143.775 | | |
| Total | 309294.838 | 1149 | | | |

The results on table 4.2 showed that the combination of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age and Parental Socio-economic status) accounted for 46.6% of the total variance in the prediction of Students' Academic Confidence (adjusted $R^2 = 0.466$). This points to the explained variances of the independent variables on students' academic confidence, while the rest unexplained variances (53.4%) were variables out of the context of this study. The coefficient of prediction (R) between the independent and dependent variables was 0.685, which

implies that the variables jointly predicted students' academic confidence. The analysis of variance of the multiple regression data yielded an F-ratio value which was found to be significant at 0.05 Alpha level ($F = 126.280$, $P < 0.05$).

Hypothesis 3:

There is no the relative contribution of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self- concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status) on the dependent variable (Students' Academic Confidence).

Table 4.3: The Predictive Effects of each of the Independent Variables on the Outcome Measure

| | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | T | Sig. |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| (Constant) | 31.446 | 4.787 | | 6.569 | .000 |
| Emotional Intelligence | .183 | .043 | .144 | 4.240 | .000 |
| Academic Resilience | .519 | .046 | .376 | 11.379 | .000 |
| Goal-setting | -.116 | .080 | -.033 | -.1444 | .000 |
| Academic Self-concept | .076 | .035 | .060 | 2.189 | .029 |
| School-connectedness | .488 | .053 | .253 | 9.166 | .000 |
| Age | -.488 | .165 | -.065 | -2.968 | .003 |
| Gender | 1.106 | .832 | .029 | 1.329 | .184 |
| Parental SES | .001 | .000 | .126 | 5.817 | .000 |

a Dependent Variable: Students' Academic Confidence

The result displayed on table 4.3 indicates the contributions of each of the independent variables to the prediction of students' academic confidence. In terms of magnitude of the contribution, academic resilience contributed the most to the prediction of students' Academic Confidence ($\beta = 0.376$; $t = 11.379$; $p < 0.05$). This was followed by school connectedness ($\beta = 0.253$, $t = 9.166$; $p < 0.05$), emotional intelligence ($\beta = 0.253$, $t = 9.166$; $p < 0.05$), parental

socio-economic status ($\beta = 0.126$, $t = 5.817$; $p < 0.05$) and academic self-concept ($\beta = 0.060$, $t = 2.189$; $p < 0.05$). Age of the students ($\beta = -0.065$, $t = 2.968$; $p < 0.05$) had negative contribution on students' academic confidence while goal-setting of the students ($\beta = -0.033$, $t = -.1444$; $P < 0.05$). Finally, gender ($\beta = 0.029$, $t = 1.329$; $p > 0.05$) did not have relative contribution on students' academic confidence.

Hypothesis 4:

There is no significant relationship that exists among the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, gender and Parental Socio-economic status) and the dependent variable (Academic Motivation)

Table 4.4: Mean, Standard Deviation and Inter-correlations among the Variables
Correlations

| Variables | Mean | Std. Dev | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|------------------------|----------|----------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Academic Motivation | 53.16.74 | 9.92 | 1.000 | | | | | | | | |
| Emotional Intelligence | 75.29 | 12.88 | .668* | 1.000 | | | | | | | |
| Academic Resilience | 69.67 | 11.88 | .586* | .144 | 1.000 | | | | | | |
| Academic Self-concept | 68.15 | 12.90 | .388* | .196 | -.101 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| Goal-setting | 21.51 | 4.71 | -.219* | -.119 | -.180 | .142 | 1.000 | | | | |
| School-connectedness | 36.03 | 7.91 | .349* | .169 | .103 | .119 | .086 | 1.000 | | | |
| Age | 21.06 | 2.19 | -.030 | .103 | .012 | .018 | -.122 | .088 | 1.000 | | |
| Gender | 1.25 | .431 | -.030 | .083 | .024 | .050 | .084 | .096 | -.084 | 1.000 | |
| Parental SES | 2878.04 | 299.31 | -.001 | .027 | -.010 | .067 | .021 | .042 | .035 | -.074 | 1.000 |

Table 4.4 presents correlation between the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, gender and Parental Socio-economic status) and academic motivation. The table shows that students' academic motivation was positively correlated with emotional intelligence ($r = 0.668$, $p < .05$), academic resilience ($r = 0.586$, $p < .05$), academic self-concept ($r = 0.388$, $p < .05$) and school connectedness ($r = 0.349$, $p < .05$). Students' academic motivation was negatively correlated with

goal setting of the students ($r = -0.219, p < .05$). However, there was no significant relationship between age ($r = -0.030, p > .05$), gender ($r = 0.030, p > .05$), parental socio-economic status ($r = -0.001, p > .05$) of the students and their academic motivation. The inter-correlation that exists between the independent variables were low, and not significant, which implies that the variables were independent of each other.

Hypothesis 5:

There is no composite effect of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status) on the dependent variable (Academic Motivation).

Table 4.5: Multiple Regression Analysis on Academic Motivation behaviour

| Multiple R | = 0.694 | | | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------|------|----------------|---------|------|
| Multiple R ² | = 0.481 | | | | |
| Multiple R ² (Adjusted) | = 0.478 | | | | |
| Standard Error of Estimate | = 7.171 | | | | |
| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean of Square | F-Ratio | P |
| Regression | 54424.173 | 8 | 6803.022 | 132.310 | <.05 |
| Residual | 58667.066 | 1141 | 51.417 | | |
| Total | 113091.239 | 1149 | | | |

The results on table 4.5 showed that the combination of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence Academic Resilience, Academic Self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental Socio-economic status) accounted for 47.8% of the total variance in the prediction of Students' academic motivation (adjusted $R^2 = 0.478$). This points to the explained variances of the independent variables on students' academic motivation, while the rest unexplained variances (52.2%) were variables out of the context of this study. The coefficient of prediction (R) between the independent and dependent variables was 0.694, which implies that the variables jointly predicted students' academic motivation. The analysis of variance of the multiple regression data yielded an F-ratio value which was found to be significant at 0.05 Alpha level ($F = 132.310, P < 0.05$).

Hypothesis 6:

There is no relative effect of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self- concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status) on the dependent variable (Academic Motivation).

Table 4.6: The Predictive Effects of each of the Independent Variables on the Outcome Measure

| | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | T | Sig. |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| (Constant) | 19.200 | 2.863 | | 6.706 | .000 |
| Emotional Intelligence | .391 | .026 | .508 | 15.169 | .000 |
| Academic Resilience | .139 | .027 | .166 | 5.095 | .000 |
| Academic self-concept | .006 | .021 | .008 | .312 | .755 |
| Goal-setting | -.206 | .048 | -.098 | -4.298 | .000 |
| School-connectedness | .069 | .032 | .055 | 2.176 | .030 |
| Age | -.204 | .098 | -.045 | -2.070 | .039 |
| Gender | .526 | .498 | .023 | 1.056 | .291 |
| Parental SES | -.005 | .000 | -.006 | -.006 | .791 |

sa Dependent Variable: Academic Motivation

The result displayed on table 4.6 indicates the contributions of each of the independent variables to the prediction of students' academic motivation. In terms of magnitude of the contribution, emotional intelligence contributed the most to the prediction of students' academic motivation ($\beta = 0.508$; $t = 15.169$; $p < 0.05$). This was followed by academic resilience ($\beta = 0.166$, $t = 5.095$; $p < 0.05$), school connectedness ($\beta = 0.055$, $t = 2.176$; $p < 0.05$). Goal setting ($\beta = -0.098$, $t = 4.298$; $p < 0.05$) and Age of the students ($\beta = -0.045$, $t = 2.070$; $p < 0.05$) had negative contribution on students' academic motivation while academic self-concept of the students ($\beta = 0.008$, $t = .312$; $p > 0.05$) while gender ($\beta = 0.023$, $t = 1.056$; $p > 0.05$) and

parental socio-economic status ($\beta = -0.006$, $t = 0.006$; $p > 0.05$) did not have relative contribution on students' academic motivation.

Summary of Result

1. Academic confidence had significant correlation with Emotional intelligence, Academic resilience, Academic self-concept and School connectedness, while it showed negative correlation with goal setting of the students, with no significant relationship between Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status.
2. The independent variables, Emotional intelligence, Academic resilience, Academic self-concept, Goal setting, School connectedness Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status had significant combined effect on students' Academic confidence.
3. Academic resilience, School connectedness, Emotional intelligence, Parental socio-economic status and Academic self-concept had significant relative contribution to students' Academic confidence, Age of the students had negative relative contribution while goal setting of the students had no relative contribution to students' Academic confidence.
4. Emotional intelligence, Academic resilience, Academic self –concept and school connectedness had significant correlation with students' academic motivation. Students' academic motivation had negative correlation with goal setting of the students, while Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status had no significant relative contribution to students' academic motivation.
5. Emotional intelligence, Academic resilience, Academic self-concept, Goal setting, School connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status jointly predicted students' academic motivation.

6. Emotional intelligence, Academic resilience and School connectedness had significant relative contribution on students' Academic motivation. Goal setting and Age of the students had negative contribution on students' Academic motivation, while Academic self-concept, Gender and Parental socio-economic status had no relative contribution on students' Academic motivation.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter discussed the findings of the study, drew the conclusions for the study, made useful recommendations and also offered suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Discussion of Findings

Findings on the first Hypothesis tested

From the first hypothesis tested, it was found that Students' Academic Confidence was positively correlated with emotional intelligence, academic resilience, academic self-concept and school connectedness. The results further revealed that there was negative correlation between students' academic confidence and goal-setting. There was no significant relationship among age, gender and parental socio-economic status.

Regarding the relationship between academic confidence and emotional intelligence, the justification for this is that understanding one's emotion and that of others is a mark of self-confidence. Self-confidence is a veritable component of emotional intelligence model. Self-confidence is an indicator of the confidence a person feels in his knowledge and abilities, and his ability to convey this confidence to others; understanding one's emotion and other people's emotion and expressing it as such is also a mark of confidence. It can be further justified that understanding one's academic ability is an implication that one has academic confidence and emotional intelligence. In congruence with the finding of this study, Pandey (2005) reported that Emotional Intelligence helps an individual in handling stress and managing feelings. Similarly, Merkowitz and Earnest (2006) found that Emotional Intelligence helps in predicting success of a person as it reflects how a person applies knowledge to its immediate situations. Snyder and

Lopez (2002) stated that EI predicts success in workplace, family functioning and personal relationships. To further corroborate the findings of this study is on Goleman (1998) findings, those individuals with high EI know how to control and direct their own and others' emotions and feelings. EI is a set of personal skills and talents to identify, understand and control the feelings (Goleman, 2007). Salovey and Mayer (1990) also found that emotional intelligence is the ability to assess and control one's own and others' feelings and emotions, and to use this ability to guide others' thinking and actions.

A significant relationship was also found between students' academic confidence and academic resilience. This can be justified based on the fact that students that can still go on in the face of academic adversity would in the long run become academically confident. Such students will be confidently optimistic that they will scale through their academic hurdles. An academically resilient student is not only persistent but also confidently hopeful that the unfavourable academic situation will improve; this assertion could also justify the present finding. In corroboration with this finding, Eley, Cloninger, Walters, Laurence, Synnott and Wilkinson (2013) reported that Resilience was associated with a personality trait pattern that is mature, responsible, optimistic, persevering, and cooperative. Literature has it that students have benefited from a high degree of resilience which helps them cope with the obvious challenges of their profession, such as high workload, emotional and physical demands and expectations (Howe, Smajdor & Stockl 2005; Drybye & Shanafelt 2012).

The result of this hypothesis further showed that academic self-concept had significant relationship with academic confidence. Reason for this is not far-fetched; if one feels confident, then one tends to be confident. The way a person feels about his/her level of confidence goes a long way to determine such person's level of confidence. Academic confidence is an essential component/sub scale in the measurement of academic self-concept. In support of this finding, Matovu (2012) reported a significant influence of academic self-concept on academic achievement among university students across gender and faculties. He also reported academic confidence as an important subscale of academic self-concept, the other being academic efforts. There was also significant relationship between school connectedness and academic confidence. The reason is that a student that is well connected and identified with his school will be confident that school will always be there for him. The reverse is also the case. To justify this, Waters, Cross and Runions (2009) found that students who feel connected to their school are less likely to engage in smoking and drinking. McNeely, Nonnemaker, and Blum (2002) noted students who feel connected to school report higher levels of emotional well-being. Also in 2002,

Anderman (2002) concluded that higher individual levels of connectedness were related to increased optimism and lower levels of depression. Researchers have discovered a positive correlation between school connectedness and emotional well-being. A negative relationship was found between academic confidence and goal-setting. This implies that high level of academic confidence would elicit low level of goal-setting ability. The reason for this could be the unrealistic nature of goals being set by many Nigerian undergraduates. Some goals are not only realistic but also too enormous for university students to attain. This is bearing in mind the socio-economic reality of Nigeria society. In support of this finding, Donovan and Swander (2000) reported the absence of a significant relationship between goal-setting and academic confidence. The reason was primarily due to range restriction on the goal choice exhibited by individuals.

In the same vein, there was no significant relationship between age and academic confidence. This can be justified because age factor may never determine confidence level of an individual. Sometimes, younger students may be more academically confident than their older counterparts. Academic confidence is a function of many other external and internal factors rather than age of an individual. Moreover, a task that is meant for a particular age may not be confidently performed by older group if the required confidence is lacking. This implies age may not help such an older adult. To corroborate this finding, Mary and Shalini (2013) reported that there was no significant difference between the different ages of the students and the Academic Behavioural Confidence score. In a sharp contrast to this finding, Dabaj (2009) revealed that the older students are more likely to attend the traditional face-to-face classes in university than online education. Besides, he also pointed out that older students have difficulty of the nonverbal communication and incompetence of using technology.

Socio-economic background was found not to have significant relationship with academic confidence in this study, the reason for this is not far-fetched; if a high socio-economic status cannot contribute to their academic development, then, such status will not boost academic confidence. The reverse is also the case. A low socio-economic status may not negatively affect academic confidence if the product of such status has other academic requirement to be academically confident. In tandem with the finding of this study, Ford (2013) reported that there was no significant relationship between socio-economic status and culturally diverse students. The author further discovered that culturally diverse students' high socio-economic status had no significant influence on their academic achievement and confidence.

The results of this study also showed that there was no significant relationship between gender and academic confidence. This could be justified based on the fact that the differences created across gender have been based on stereotypical perception by parents and differential treatment in the various societies. Also, people tend to treat female gender with preference and favouritism. However, there are good number of studies that reported findings in contradictory with this finding. For instance, Igbo, Onu and Obiyo (2015) found that gender stereotype has significant influence on students' self-concept and academic achievement in favor of the male students. Wehr-Flowers (2006) reported a significant influence of gender on students' confidence, attitude and anxiety towards learning.

Findings on second hypothesis tested

The result of the second hypothesis tested showed that the combination of the independent variables (Emotional intelligence Academic resilience, Academic self-concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental Socio-economic status) had significant contribution to the prediction of academic confidence. This finding can be justified by virtue of the significant relationship that had been found among academic resilience, academic self-concept, school connectedness and academic confidence. Another reason for this finding is that the predictors are psychological factors and constructs that are personal to the respondents (age, gender, parental socio-economic status). This implies that the factors identified in this study could have bearing on self-belief and self-confidence of the students. One's level of emotional intelligence, ability to persist in the face of adversity, conception of self, social and economic status could go a long way to shape one's level of confidence especially in the academic parlance. The contributions of the potent predictors could have strengthened the joint contributions of the independent measures. Another reason for this finding is that academic confidence is very much related, both in conceptualization and measurement, to persistence, hope, self-concept, self-worth, and achievement. This aptly explains the significant joint contributions of the independent measures. In support of this finding, Kuo (2011) reported that there was significant joint contribution of motivation, self-control and self-regulation on the prediction of academic achievement among 10th grade students. Similarly, Kwek, Bui, Rynne and BBus (2013) found that self-esteem and resilience are significant predictors of academic performance. McConney and Perry (2010) found that both student and school socio-economic status (SES) are strongly associated with student outcomes. They found that the relationship

between mathematical achievement and school SES is slightly stronger for students with higher levels of academic confidence than for their peers with lower academic confidence.

Findings on third hypothesis tested

The third hypothesis was posed to find out relative effect of each of the independent variables (Emotional Intelligence, Academic Resilience, Academic Self- concept, Goal-setting, School-connectedness, Age, Gender and Parental socio-economic status) on Students' Academic Confidence. It was found that academic resilience contributed the most to the prediction of students' Academic Confidence. This was followed by school connectedness, emotional intelligence, parental socio-economic status and academic self-concept. Age of the students had negative contribution on students' academic confidence while goal-setting of the students and gender did not have relative contribution on students' academic confidence. The reason for the potency of academic resilience is that persistence subsumes wisdom, hope and confidence that things will get better even in the face of difficulties. Emotional intelligence is also a potent predictor because to be academically confident without pride requires some level of understanding one's emotion and that of others. When a student is hopeful and optimistic in the face of adversity, it follows that such a student can control his or her emotion and s/he is not negatively driven by emotion. Academic self-concept is also a potent predictor of academic confidence because students' attitude and set of beliefs regarding his academic performance will determine their confidence level and beliefs about themselves cum their academic ability. School connectedness was also a potent predictor of students' academic confidence. This is justified because if schools give sense of belongingness and engagement to students, students will be confident that schools care about them. Goal setting and gender had no relative contribution to the prediction of students' academic confidence. The reason for this is not far-fetched; when university students set unrealistic goals, they may not have required confidence to achieve them. Also societal stereotypic conception of gender difference may not account for influence of gender on students' academic confidence. To justify this finding, Salami and Ogundokun (2009) found that emotional intelligence can predict students' academic achievements and confidence. Bond (2007); Pittman and Richmond (2007) reported that children's and adolescents' perceptions of belonging to a school community are positively associated with academic achievement and engagement. This finding supported the finding of the present study that school connectedness had significant relative effect on the prediction of students' academic confidence. In line with this finding that academic self-concept had relative significant effect on the

contribution of students' academic confidence, Lui's study indicated (2009) that a low academic self-concept results in less academic confidence, and students with low self-concepts are less motivated to put in an effort to learn, and therefore achieve less satisfying results. Olatunde (2010) further found that individuals with a low academic self-concept have shown low commitment to school.

Findings on fourth hypothesis tested

The fourth hypothesis tested showed that emotional intelligence, school connectedness, academic self-concept and academic resilience had significant relationship with academic motivation. Goal-setting was negatively correlated with students' academic motivation. Age, gender and parental socio-economic status had no significant relationship with students' academic motivation. The reason for the significant relationship between emotional intelligence and students' academic motivation is that students' emotion can drive and elicit motivation to make students act in some certain ways. Students can be motivated to achieve academically when properly driven by their emotion. In line with this, Animasaun (2007) found that teaching prison inmates' emotional intelligence raised their positive life skills. The relationship between school connectedness and students' academic motivation can also be justified when one considers the fact that school's programmes and the extent to which they care about students will shape level of motivation among students. The feelings and belief that schools promote students' academic interests and care about their welfare will motivate students to achieve in their academic efforts. In support of this finding, Anderman and Freeman, (2004) reported that school connectedness was found to predict more academically motivated students especially in tertiary institutions and increased academic success. A good number of studies have found that school connectedness could predict reduced substance use (Bellamy & James, 2005); reduced aggressive behaviour (Brookmeyer, Fanti & Henrich, 2006); less likely of dropping out of school. The relationship between academic self-concept and students' academic motivation is justified because a student that has low self-concept, lacks self-beliefs about his academic ability may not be motivated and driven to achieve academically. Students that have positive and high beliefs about their academic ability will be motivated to do more. In corroboration with this finding, Liu (2010) found that university students' self-evaluation of their proficiency level is moderately correlated with academic self-concept and learning motivation, while gender is weakly correlated with these two major variables. In addition, results of this study revealed that academic self-concept serves as a significant and strong predictor of learning motivation among

university students. Age, gender and parental socio-economic status were not significantly correlated with students' academic motivation. This could be because these constructs have no psychological explanations. Motivation is purely a psychological constructs and it was predicted by non-psychological constructs in this study. Liu (2010) reported a weak correlation between gender and academic motivation and academic self-concept among some selected University students.

Findings on fifth hypothesis tested

The fifth hypothesis showed that the independent variables had significant joint effect to the prediction of students' academic motivation. The reason is that emotional intelligence, academic resilience, school connectedness, academic self-concept, age, gender and parental socio-economic status are factors that have always been associated with academic motivation. All these factors can either make or mar students' drive to achieve in their academic efforts. Negative or positive emotion could reduce or increase motive to achieve, it then follows that understanding one's emotion could serve as a tool to be properly motivated to learn and to achieve. Academically resilient students will have strong will that can always enhance their academic motivation and achievement motivation. A favourable and satisfactory sense of belongingness on the part of students with good school connectedness will motivate students to learn and give them a considerable level of confidence. Positive perception of self and positive self-beliefs about self will always motivate students to learn and achieve. Personal factors like age, gender and parental socio-economic status combined with psychological factors can predict students' academic motivation. In concordance with this finding, Dogan (2015) reported a significant joint contribution of students' engagement, academic self-efficacy, and academic motivation on the prediction of academic performance among middle and high students. Similarly, Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) found that academic success positively affects students in a variety of ways: Productivity and success, intellectual skills, personal motivation, the effort on the work, having a prestigious job, and career dynamism are positively related to academic success. Ransdell (2001) discussed the variables affecting academic performance. Examples of these variables were given as verbal and quantitative skills, self-confidence, test-solving skills, willingness to study, family support, and time spent on classroom activities.

Findings on the sixth hypothesis tested

The sixth hypothesis tested the significant relative effect of each of the independent variables to the prediction of students' academic motivation. It was found that emotional intelligence contributed the most to the prediction of students' academic motivation. This was followed by academic resilience and school connectedness. Goal setting and Age of the students had negative contribution on students' academic motivation while academic self-concept of the students and parental socio-economic status did not have relative contribution on students' academic motivation. The reason is not far-fetched; the contribution of emotional intelligence, academic resilience and school connectedness may override potency of goal-setting, gender, age and parental socio-economic status. An emotionally intelligent resilient student that is well connected with his/her school whose academic needs are being taken care of will be motivated not only to learn but also to achieve and perform. Academic self-concept, goal-setting and age were not potent predictors because students have no realistic goals or probably major parts of their goals did not take into consideration academic confidence and motivation. Age was not potent because there is no age when a student cannot be motivated to learn or to achieve. If all other psychological variables are present and in good shape, then age may not significantly correlate or predict academic motivation. In corroboration of this study, Adeyemo (2007) reported emotional intelligence as potent predictor of academic confidence and achievement. Guay, Ratelle, Roy and Litalien (2010) reported that each of, autonomous academic motivation, and academic achievement had significant relative contribution to academic motivation

5.2 Implications of the Study

The study investigated the Psycho-Personological Factors as Predictors of Academic Confidence and Motivation among Undergraduates in Southwestern Nigeria. The study has examined the influence of psychological and personal factors on the prediction of academic confidence and motivation among some Undergraduates. It has been established in this study that factors like academic resilience, emotional intelligence, academic self-concept and school connectedness were potent predictors of students' academic confidence and motivation. Personal factors like age, gender and parental socio-economic status were not potent predictors and not positively correlated with students' academic confidence and motivation. Goal-setting was not positively correlated with students' academic confidence and motivation.

The findings of this study have implications for the practice of counselling and educational psychology. Factors that largely determine students' academic confidence need to be looked into and educational psychologists may have to concentrate their efforts on strengthening

those variables in the school settings. The study holds great implications for university management and counselling units in their bid to ensure that students are properly connected to school and have adequate sense of belongingness to school activities and programmes.

There is the need for the educational psychologists and other stakeholders in the University to ensure that the undergraduates develop psychologically in areas of emotional intelligence, academic resilience, academic self-concept and school connectedness. Emotional intelligence should be inculcated into the school program, students should be trained on how to move on academically in the face of adversity, should be trained to develop positive self-concept and to know that the school is there for them at every point in time.

Teachers are to be trained on how to handle the problems of undergraduates with low emotional intelligence, negative self-concept, low resilience and those who find it difficult to connect with school.

School counsellors and educational psychologists should always intensify their efforts to organize incessant seminars and workshops for the undergraduates, teachers and other significant stakeholders in education, so that the knowledge gained will be utilized effectively to assist in enhancing the students' academic confidence and motivation.

Another implication of this study is that irrespective of parental socio-economic status, age and gender, students' academic confidence and motivation are largely shaped by some psychological factors and school-related factors which can all be put in good condition by school.

Trainings to improve academic resilience, academic self-concept, emotional intelligence, and school connectedness may be a panacea to enhancing students' academic confidence and motivation.

5.3 Contribution to Knowledge

It is pertinent to espouse the contributions of this study to knowledge in the field of educational and counselling psychology. This study has illuminated the understanding of educational psychologists, school counsellors, and counselling psychologists regarding psychological and personal factors that could predict students' academic confidence and motivation. The study has given leeway on variables to be considered in the experts' attempt to enhance students' academic confidence and motivation at University level.

The study has established that students' academic confidence and motivation are being predicted by academic resilience, school connectedness, emotional intelligence, and academic

self-concept. The study further found that gender, age and parental socio-economic status were not positively correlated with both students' academic confidence and motivation. Consequently, age, gender and parental socio-economic status were not potent predictor of students' academic confidence and motivation. The study found that gender and age may not at every-time predict academic outcomes among university students. The findings of this study may stimulate the interest and curiosity of researchers and stakeholders in education parlance to examine psychological, personal and social correlates of academic confidence and motivation among university students. The study has also reported that setting goals may not always guarantee positive academic outcomes for university students. This is especially if the set goals are not measurable and realistic. Goal-setting was not a potent predictor of students' academic confidence and motivation. While academic self-concept was a potent predictor of students' academic confidence, it was not a potent predictor of students' academic motivation. However, academic self-concept was positively correlated with students' academic motivation.

This study has established that students from relatively low socio-economic background can be motivated to achieve, be academically confident if they are well connected with the school, if they are persistent and if relevant interventions on how to be academically resilient, emotionally intelligent are put in place. This is possible their age and gender notwithstanding.

5.4 Recommendations

Drawing from the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made

1. More emphasis on the psychological needs of students is needed through the training of university guidance counsellors.
2. University administrators should appoint specialists in psychology and social supervisors to handle the students' psychological problems specifically, lack of academic confidence among tertiary level students.
3. University students should be enlightened on how to develop positive self-concept and self-beliefs because how they feel about themselves has a long way in enhancing their academic confidence and motivation.
4. University teachers should endeavour to facilitate goal-setting ability of university students so as to help them set realistic and achievable goals.
5. University students should be aware of their emotion and persistence level and push through resistance especially their own, to transform their visions into existence.

6. Undergraduates should be made to do their best to enhance their academic confidence and their motivation to achieve and improve academic performance.
7. Students should try to discover the reasons behind their lack of academic confidence and motivation. Then taking active steps to change this.

5.5 Limitations to the Study

All research theses have one or two limitations without the exception of the present study.

The study examined psycho-personological factors without any consideration for social and environmental factors that could predict students' academic confidence and motivation. The study did not consider the differences in students' academic confidence and motivation across gender, age and socio-economic status.

The study only considered three personolglcal factors and five psychological factors out of so many of these factors.

5.6 Generalization of the Study

This study was conducted in the Nigerian Universities in the Southwestern region of the country. Four federal Universities in Southwestern Nigeria were selected from Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo states. Based on this, the findings of this study could be generalized in the Southwestern region, across the various types of universities, and the country at large.

The study was carried out among all levels of undergraduates in University. This further strengthens the generalisability of the findings on any university student. Also, the outcomes of this study could be generalized on students of other types of higher institutions like Colleges of education and polytechnics that were not captured in this study.

5.7 Suggestions for Further Research

This study investigated psycho-personological factors as predictors of students' academic confidence and motivation among undergraduates in Southwestern Nigeria. Based on this, other studies may be carried out by investigating the same psychological and personal factors as predictors of students' academic confidence and motivation among students in colleges of education and polytechnics. The same studies could also be carried out among secondary school students. Experimental studies that can examine psychotherapies for fostering students'

academic resilience, emotional intelligence, academic self-concept, academic confidence and motivation among university students could be carried out by future researchers.

Descriptive studies could also be conducted to examine personal and environmental factors that could predict students' academic confidence and motivation among university students. Measuring scales for students' academic confidence, goal-setting, academic motivation could be developed for use by Psychometricians and educational psychologists.

REFERENCES

Abdullah, M.C., Elias, H., Mahyuddin, R. & Uli, J. 2009. Adjustment amongst first year students in a Malaysian University. *European Journal of Social Sciences*. Vol 8, No. 3 pp. 496-505

Adeyemo D.A. 2006. The buffering effect of emotional intelligence on the adjustment of secondary students in transition. *Electronic journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, No.6-3(2) pp. 79-90

Agulana, G.G. 1999. Family structure and prevalence of behavioural problems among Nigerian adolescents. *The*

- Ahimavaara, A. & Houston, D.M. 2007. The effects of selective schooling and self- concept on adolescent's academic aspiration. An examination of Dwecks self-theory, *British Journal of educational psychology* 77, (3) 613-632
- Ahmed, W, Bruisma, M. 2006. A structural model of self-concept. Autonomous motivation and academic performance in cross-cultural perspective. *Electronic journal of research in educational psychology*, 10 (4); 551-572
- Ajila C, Olutola A 2000. Impacts of parents' socio-economic status on University students' academic performance
- Akande A, 1994.The role of reinforcement in self monitoring. *Academic journal article. Education.*
- Akers, C., Miller, K., Frazee, S. D., & Haygood, J. D. 2004. A tri-state needs assessment of emotional intelligence in agricultural education. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 45(1), 86-94.
- Albert Bandura, 1986 *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall,), p. 21.
- Allysar R. Gonzalez, 2002. "Parental Involvement: It's Contribution to High School Students' Motivation," *The Clearing House* 75:132-34, n3.
- Almasri, Mohammed, 2007, *Passionate Intelligence: Comparative Study between good achievers and normal ones from undergraduate students* *Journal of Educational Faculty*, 31, Ain shams University.
- AlOmran, J. & Punamaki, R. 2008. Relationship between Gender, Age, Academic Achievement, Emotional Intelligence, and Coping Styles in Bahrain Adolescents. *Individual Differences Research*, 6 (2), 104-116.
- Altman, H.A., & Dupont, S.F. 1988. The relationships between academic self-concept, global self-concept and academic achievement. *Canadian journal of counselling*, 22(3), 170-174
- Alva, 1991. Academic invulnerability among Mexican-American students. The importance of protective resources and appraisals. *Hispanic journal of behavioural sciences*, 13(1) pp. 18-34
- Ames, C. 1992. Achievement goals and the classroom motivational climate. Students perceptions in the classroom, pp. 327- 348, Hillsdale, N.J, Erlbaum
- Ames, C. 1992b. Classroom, structure and students motivation. *Journal of educational psychology*, 84, 261-271
- Amirtha Mary, A. T. & Shalini, J. F. 2013 Assessing the Academic Behavioral Confidence of the Secondary School Students *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)* Volume 8, Issue 1 pp. 41-45

- Anderman, E. M. 2002. School effects on psychological outcomes during adolescence. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94(4), 795-809
- Anderman, L.H. & Freeman, T.M. 2004. Student's sense of belonging in school. In P.R. Pintrich & M.L. Maehr (Eds)). *Advances in motivation and achievement* (Vol. 13, pp. 27-63). Oxford, England; Elsevier
- Angenent, H. 1997. Criminal behaviour of immigrant younger. Burn intro
- Animasahun, R.A. 2007. Effectiveness of Emotional Intelligence education in enhancing positive life skills of Nigerian prison inmates. In I. A. Nwazuke, E. A. Okediran & O. A. Moronkola (Eds.). *Education for social transformation*. (123-130) Ibadan: Faculty of education, University of Ibadan.
- Anthony, G. M. 2012. "An integrated model of goal-focused coaching: an evidence-based framework for teaching and practice". *International Coaching Psychology Review* 7 (2): 146-165 (149).
- Aremu, A.O. 2000. Academic performance 5-factor inventory. Stirling-Horden publishers.
- Areepattamanil, S. & Freeman J.G. Academic achievement, academic self-concept and academic motivation of immigrant adolescents in the greater Toronto Area Secondary schools. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, 19(4),700-743.
- Atkinson, J.W. 1974. The mainstreams of achievement oriented activity. *Motivation and achievement*, pp. 11-39, Washington D.C, Winston
- Ausprung, K., & Hinz, T. 2011. Master für Aik? Der Einfluss sozialer Herkunft auf den Studienverlauf und das Übertrittsverhalten von Barockstudierenden. *Soziale Welt*, 62, 75-99
- Aviv, R. 2004. Why do students take online courses? *Perspectives in quality online education*, 3(10), 5
- Awan RUN, Noureen I, Naz A 2011. A study of relationship between achievement motivation, self-concept and achievement in English and Mathematics at secondary level. *International Education Studies*, 4(3): 72-79
- Awad, G. 2007. The role of racial identity, academic self-concept, and self-esteem in the prediction of academic outcomes for African American students. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 33, 188-207.
- Ayala, Conic & Al striplen 2002. A career introduction model for first generation college freshmen students. (Eric ED, 469996). *Thriving in challenging and uncertain times*, ed, Garrye Waltz
- Baker, J. A. Dilly, L.J., Aupperlee, J.L. and Patil, S.A. 2003, "The developmental context of school satisfaction: schools as psychologically healthy environments", *School Psychology Quarterly*, Vol. 18 No. 2, pp. 206-221.

- Baldwin, A.L., & Baldwin, C.P., Kasser, T. Zax, M. Sameroff, A. & Seifer, R. 1993. Contextual risk and resiliency during late adolescence. *Development and psychopathology*, 5, pp. 741-761
- Bandura, M. M., & Dweck, C. S. 1985. The relationship of conceptions of intelligence and achievement goals to patterns of cognition, affect, and behavior. Unpublished manuscript. Harvard University. Cambridge, MA
- Bandura, A. 2001. Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 1-26.
- Bandura, A. 1991. Social Cognitive Theory of Self-Regulation. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 248-287.
- Bandura, A. 1986, *Social Foundations of Thought and Action*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. 1986. Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. 1997. Self-efficacy. *Harvard Mental Health Letter*, 13, 4-7.
- Bandura, A. 2001. Social Cognitive Theory. Annual Agentic Perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 1-26.
- Barber, B.K., & Olsen, J.A. 1997. Socialization in context: Connection, regulation and autonomy in the family, school and neighbourhood and with peers. *Journal of adolescent research*, 12(2): 287-315
- Barclay, J.R., Doll, B. 2001. Early prospective studies of high school dropout. *School Psychol Quart*; 16: 357- 69.
- Barker, J.A., Terry, T., Bridger, R. and Winsor, A. 1997, "Schools as caring communities: A relational approach to school reform", *School Psychology Review*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 586-603.
- Barnett, L. 2006. Accounting for leisure preferences from within: The relative contributions of gender, race or ethnicity, personality, affective style and motivational orientation. *Journal of leisure research*, 38, 445-474.
- Barris, R., Kielhofner, G., & Bauer, D. 1985. Educational experience and changes in learning and value preferences. *Occupational Therapy Journal of Research*, 5(4), 243-256.
- Bar-On, R. 1997. Bar On emotional Quotient Inventory- technical manual. Toronto. Multi-health Systems Inc.
- Barris, R., Kielhofner, G., & Bauer, D., 1985. Educational experience and changes in learning and value preferences. *Occupational Therapy Journal of Research*, 5(4), 243-256

- Battin-Pearson, S., Newcomb, M.D., Abbott, R.D., Hill, K.G., Catalano, R.F., & Hawkins, J.D. 2000. Predictors of Early High School dropout. A Test of Five Theories. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92(3): 568-82.
- Battistich, V.D., Solomon, D. Kim, M., Watson & Schnaps, E. 1995. Schools as communities, poverty levels of student populations and students' attitudes, motive and performance: A multi-level analysis. *American Educational research journal*, 32: 627-58.
- Battistich, V., & Hom, A. 1997. The relationship between students' sense of their school as a community and their involvement in problem behaviors. *American Journal of Public Health*, 87(12),
- Battistich, V., Schaps, E. and Wilson, N. 2004, "Effects of an elementary school intervention on students' "connectedness" to school and social adjustment during middle school", *Journal of Primary Prevention*, Vol. 24 No. 3, pp. 243-262.
- Bauer, N.S., Lozano, P. and Rivara, F.P. 2007. "The effectiveness of the Olweus bullying prevention program in public middle schools: a controlled trial", *Journal of Adolescent Health*, Vol. 40, pp. 266-274.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. 1995. The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(3), 497-529.
- Becker, R 2009. What could be done in order to motivate the working classes for University Education. An empirical simulation with implications for Educational politics, 61 pp. 563- 593
- Bem, S. L. 1981. Gender schema theory: A cognitive account of sex typing. *Psychological Review*, 88, 354-364
- Bernard, B.1993. Fostering resiliency in kids. *Educational leadership*, 51 pp. 44-48
- Berndt, T.J. & Miller, K.E. 1990. Expectancies, values and achievement in Junior high school. *Journal of educational psychology*, 82(2), 319-326
- Betz, N.E. & Hackett, G. 1981. The relationship of career related self-efficacy expectations to perceived career options in college women and men . *Journal of counselling psychology*, 28-399
- Beutel, Ann, M. 2000. The relationship between adolescents non-marital childbearing and educational expectations. A cohort and period comparison. *The sociological quarterly* 41, (2), 297-314
- Bisong, N. 2006. Gender disparity in the Nigerian Labour market. Implications for counseling. *The Nigerian journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 11(1) pp. 76-83
- Bisset, S., Markham, W. & Aveyard, P. 2007. "School culture as an influencing factor on youth substance use", *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health*, Vol. 61, pp. 485-490.

- Bird, J., & Morgan, C. 2003. Adults contemplating University study at a distance: Issues, themes and concerns. *International review of research in open and distance learning*, 4(1).
- Blum, R.W., Libbey, H.P. 2004. School connectedness strengthening health and education outcomes for teenagers. *J School Health*: 231–2.
- Blum, R. W. 2005. A case for school connectedness. *Educational Leadership*, 62 (7), 16-20.
- Blum, R. W. 2005. *School connectedness: Improving student lives*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health.
- Blum, R. W., McNeely, C. A., & Rinehart, P. M. 2002. *Improving the odds: The untapped power of schools to improve the health of teens*. Minneapolis, MN: Center for Adolescent Health and Development, University of Minnesota.
- Blum, R.W. 2005. *School connectedness: Improving the lives of students*. Baltimore, M. A: Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health.
- Blumenfeld, P. 2006. Comments from the annual meeting of the Society for Research on Adolescence. San Francisco, CA.
- Bohlin, C.F. 1994. Learning style factors and mathematics performance: Sex-related differences. *International Journal of Education Research*, 21(4): 387-398.
- Bond, L., Butler, H., Thomas, L., Carlin, J., Glover, S., Bowes, G. and Patton, G. 2007. “Social and school connectedness in early secondary school as predictors of late teenage substance use, mental health, and academic outcomes”, *Journal of Adolescent Health*, Vol. 40, pp. 357
- Bond, L., Butler, H., Thomas, L., Carlin, J., Glover, S., Bowes, G. and Patton, G. 2007. “Social and school connectedness in early secondary school as predictors of late teenage substance use, mental health, and academic outcomes”, *Journal of Adolescent Health*, Vol. 40, pp. 357.
- Booker, K. C. 2004. Exploring school belonging and academic achievement in African American adolescents. *Curriculum and Teaching Dialogue*, 6 (2), 131-143.
- Boud, D. Keogh, R. & Walker, D. 1985. *Reflection; Turning experience into learning*. New York: Nichols publishing
- Boudon, R. 1974. *Education, Opportunity, and Social Inequality*. New York: Wiley.
- Bowlby, J. 1980. *Attachment and loss*, vol 3, loss, sadness and depression. New York. Basic Books.
- Brett, J.F. & Vandwalle, D. 1999. Goal orientation and goal content as predictors of performance in a training program. *Journal of applied psychology*, 84, 863-873

- Bridgeland, J. M., Dilulio, J. J., Jr., & Morison, K. B. 2006. The silent epidemic: Perspectives of high school dropouts. Washington, D. C.: Civic Enterprises.
- Brookmeyer, K.A. Fanti, K.A. & Harich, C.C. 2006. Schools, Parents and youth violence. A multi- level ecological analysis. *Journal of clinical child and adolescent psychology*, 35, 504-514
- Bures, E. M., Abrami, P.C., Amundsen, C. 2000. Students' Motivation to Learn via Computer Conferencing. *Research in Higher Education*, 41 (5), 593-621.
- Burgner, D. & Hewstone, M. 1993. Young children's causal attributions for success and failure. "Self-enhancing boys" and self-derogating girls". *British journal of Developmental psychology*, 11, pp.125-129
- Butler, R. 1992. "What Young People Want to Know When: Effects of Mastery and Ability Goals on Interest in Different Kinds of Social Comparisons," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62, 934-943.
- Button, S. B., J.E. Mathieu, and D.M. Zajac, 1996. "Goal Orientation in Organizational Research: A Conceptual and Empirical Foundation," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67, 26-48.
- Campbell, D. J. 1982. Determinants of choice of goal difficulty level: A review of situational and personality influences. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 55, 79-95
- Campbell, D. J. 1982. Determinants of choice of goal difficulty level: A review of situational and personality influences. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 55, 79-95.
- Carter, M., McGee, R., Taylor, B. and Williams, S. 2007. "Health outcomes in adolescence: associations with family, friends and school engagement", *Journal of Adolescence*, Vol. 30, pp. 51-62.
- Carver, C. S., and M. F. Scheier, 1981. *Attention and Self-Regulation: A Control Theory Approach to Human Behavior*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Catalano, R. F., Haggerty, K. P., Oesterle, S., Fleming, C. B., & Hawkins, J. D. 2004. The importance of bonding to school for healthy development: Findings from the Social Development Research Group. *Journal of School Health*, 74(7), 252-261.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2009. *School connectedness: Strategies for increasing protective factors among youth*. Atlanta, Georgia: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.
- Chan, D.W. 2003. Dimensions of emotional intelligence and their relationships with social coping among gifted adolescents in Hong Kong. *Journal of Youth and adolescence*. 409-418

- Chaudhari, S. O., Chitale, M. A., Pandit, A. & Hoge, M. P. 2004. Low birth study- Cognitive abilities and educational performance at twelve years. *Indian Pediatrics* 2004; 41: 121-128.
- Chain, 1944. The relationship between socio-economic status and academic achievement in the EFL classroom among Iranian University students. *European Journal of English Language and Literature Studies*, 2, 1, 49-57.
- Chandler, C . L., & Connell, J. P. 1987. Children's intrinsic, extrinsic and internalized motivation: A developmental study of children's reasons for liked and disliked behaviours. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 5, 357-365.
- Chen, G., S. M. Gully, J. Whiteman, and R. N. Kilcullen, 2000. "Examination of Relationships Among Trait-Like Individual Differences, State-Like Individual Differences, and Learning Performance," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 835-847.
- Cheng, C. H. K., & Watkins, D. 2000. Age and gender in variance of self-concept factor structure: An investigation of a newly developed Chinese self-concept instrument. *International Journal of Psychology*, 35, 186-193.
- Cherian, & Jacob, 2013. Impact of Self Efficacy on Motivation and Performance of Employees. *International Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 8, No. 14.
- Cherniss, C. 1993. The role of professional self-efficacy in the etiology of burnout. In W. Schaufeli, C. Maslach & T. Marek (Eds.), *Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research* (pp. 135-150). London: Taylor and Francis.
- Choy, Susan, P. 2001. Students whose parents did not go to college. Post-secondary Access, persistence and attainment. (NCES 2001-126). Washington D.C. U.S. Department of education, National centre for educational statistics.
- Christenson, S., Reschly, A., & Wylie, C. 2012. *Handbook of research on student engagement*. New York: Springer.
- Clark, M.H., & Schroth, C.A. 2010. Examining relationships between academic motivation and personality among college students. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 20:19-24.
- Clift, S. and Bruun Jensen, B. (Eds), 2006. *The Health Promoting School – International Advances in Theory, Evaluation and Practice*, Danish University of Education Press, Copenhagen.
- Coffman, K. B. 2014. "Evidence on Self-Stereotyping and the Contribution of Ideas" *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 129 (4), pp. 1625-1660
- Cokley, K. 2000. An investigation of academic self-concept and its relationship to Academic achievement in African American college students. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 26, 148-164.
- Cokley, K.O. 2000. Examining the Validity of the Academic Motivation Scale by Comparing Scale Construction to Self-Determination Theory. *Psychological Reports*, 86, 560-564.

- Colangelo, N. , Kelly, K.R. & Schnepfer, R.M. 1987. A comparison of gifted, general and special learning needs students on academic and social self-concept. *Journal of counselling and development*, 66, 73-77
- Coleman, J.S. 1988. Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American journal of sociology*, 94, 95-120
- Connel, J.P., & Wellborn, J.G. 1991. Competence autonomy and relatedness. A motivational analysis of self-system processes. In M.R. Gunnar & L.A. Sroufe (Eds.). *Self-processes on development: Minnesota symposium on child psychology*, (Vol. 26, pp. 43-77). Hillsdale, NJ Erlbaum.
- Conkline, J. 1996. *Introduction to criminology*, New York Macmillan.
- Corpus, J. M., McClintic-Gilbert, M., & Hayenga, A. O. 2009. Within-year changes in children's intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations: Contextual predictors and academic outcomes. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 34, 154–166.
- Craven, R.G., Marsh, H.W., & Print, M. 2000. Selective, streamed and mixed-ability programs for gifted students: Impacts on self-concept, motivation and achievement. *Australian journal of Education*, 44, 51-75.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano-Clark, V. L. 2006. Choosing a mixed methods design. In J. W. Creswell & V. L. Plano-Clark (Eds.), *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (pp. 58-88). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cropanzano, R., James, K., & Citera, M. 1993. A goal hierarchy model of personality, motivation and leadership. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 15, 267-322.
- Croninger, R. G., & Lee, V. E. 2001. Social capital and dropping out of high school: Benefits to at-risk students of teachers' support and guidance. *Teachers College Record*, 103(4), 548-581.
- Croom, D. B. 2008. The development of the itegrated three-component model of agricultural education. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 49(1), 110-120.
- Croom, D. B., & Flowers, J. L. 2001. Factors influencing an agricultural education student's perception of the FFA organization. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 42(2), 28-37.
- Crous, S.M., Roets, H.E., Dicker, A., & Sonnekus, I.P. 2000. *Study Guide: The adult as learner*. Pretoria: Unisa
- Dabaj, F. 2009. The role of gender and age on students' perceptions towards online education case study: Sakarya University, vocational high school. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 8(2), 120-123.
- David, A. Bergin, "Influences on Classroom Interest, *Educational Psychologist* 34:87-98, 1999.

- Davis, J. A. 1971. *Elementary Survey Analysis*. Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Dawson, R.Hancock, 2002. "Influencing Graduate Students' Classroom Achievement, Homework Habits, and Motivation to Learn with Verbal Praise, *Educational Research* 44: 83-95,
- Day, E., D. J. Radosevich, and C. S. Chasteen 2003, "Construct- and Criterion-Related Validity of Four Commonly Used Goal Orientation Instruments," *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 28, 434-464.
- de Charms, R., 1976. *Enhancing motivation: Change in the classroom*, New York: Irvington.
- Dweck, C.S. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning. *American Psychologist*, 41, 1040-1048.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R.M. 1985. *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum Publishing Co.
- Deci, E. L. 1995. *Why we do what we do: The dynamics of personal autonomy*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R.M. 1985. *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R.M. 2000. The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227-268.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R.M. 1985. *Intrinsic motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. 2000. The "What" and "Why" of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior. *Psychological Inquiry* 11 (4), 227- 268.
- Deci, E.L. & Ryan, R.M. 2002. *Handbook of self-determination research*. Rochester, UK: University of Rochester Press.
- De Lisi (eds.). *Biology, society, and behaviour: the development of sex differences in cognition*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.
- DeVillis, R. F. 2003. *Scale development: Theory and applications* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Diefendorf, J. M. 2004, "Examination of the Roles of Action-State Orientation and Goal Orientation in the Goal-Setting and Performance Process," *Human Performance*, 17, 375-395.
- Difabio, A. & Palazzeschi, L. 2009. An in-depth look at Scholastic Success: Fluid Intelligence, Personality Traits or Emotional intelligence?. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 46 (5/6), 581-585

- Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., & Christian, L. M. 2009. Internet, mail, and mixed-mode surveys: The tailored design method. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Doll, B., Hess, R. S. 2001. Through a new lens: Contemporary psychological perspectives on school completion and dropping out of high school. *School Psychol Quart*; 16: 351– 6.
- Donovan, J. J. 1998. Affective, contextual, dispositional, and cognitive influences on goal revision. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Albany, State University of New York.
- Donovan, J. J., & Swander, C. J. 2000. The role of context specific goal orientation in self-regulation. Manuscript submitted for review for the Annual Society for Industrial and Organization Psychology Conference
- Dooley, K. E. 2007. Viewing agricultural education research through a qualitative lens. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 48(4), 32-42
- Drew P. Y., & Watkins D. 1998. Affective variables, learning approaches and academic achievement: A casual modelling investigation with Hong Kong tertiary students. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 68: 173-188.
- Duda, J. L., and J. G. Nicholls, 1992. “Dimensions of Achievement Motivation in Schoolwork and Sport,” *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84, 290-299.
- Dweck, C.S, & Leggett, E.L. 1988. A social cognitive approach to motivation and personality. *Psychological review*, 95, 256-273
- Dweck, C. S. 1989. Motivation. In A. Lesgold and R. Glaser (Eds.), *Foundations for a psychology of education* (pp. 87-136). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Dweck, C. S. 1986. “Motivational Processes Affecting Learning,” *American Psychologist*, 41, 1040-1048.
- Drybye, L. & Shanafelt, T. 2012. Nurturing resiliency in medical trainees. *Medical Education*, 46: 343-348
- Eccles, J. S. 1987. Gender roles and women’s achievement related decisions. *Psychology of women quarterly*, 11, 135-172
- Eccles, J. S. 1993. School and family effects on the ontogeny of children’s interests, self-perceptions, and activity choices. In J. E. Jacobs (Ed.), *Developmental perspectives on motivation*, Nebraska symposium on motivation (pp. 145–208). Lincoln, NE: Lincoln University of Nebraska Press.
- Eccle, J.S., Early, K., Frasier, E., Belansky & McCarthy K. 1997. The relation of Connection, Regulation, and Support for Autonomy to Adolescents’ Functioning. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 12(2): 263-86

- Eccles, J. S. 2005. Studying the development of learning and task motivation. *Learning and Instruction*, 15, 161-171.
- Eccles, J. S., & Midgley, C. 1989. Stage-environment fit: Developmentally appropriate classrooms for young adolescents. In R. E. Ames & C. Ames (Eds.), *Research on motivation in education* (Vol. 3, pp. 139–186). New York: Academic Press.
- Editorial Projects in Education Research Center. 2010. Graduation in the United States. *Education Week*, 29(34), 24-25.
- Eley, D.S., Cloninger, C.R., Walters, L., Laurence, C. Synnott, R., & Wilkinson, D. 2013. The relationship between resilience and personality traits in doctors: Implications for enhancing well-being. *PeerJ*, 1, 1-16
- Elliot, A.J. & Church, M.A. 1997. A hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 218-232
- Elliot, A.J. & McGregor, H.A. 1999. Test anxiety and the model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 76, 628-644
- Elliott, E. S., & Dweck, C. S. 1988. Goals: An approach to motivation and achievement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 5-12.
- Eisenberg, M. E., Neumark-Sztainer, D., & Perry, C. L. 2003. Peer harassment, school connectedness, and academic achievement. *Journal of School Health*, 73 (8), 311-316
- Engelberg, E, & Stoberg, L. 2004. Emotional intelligence affect intensity and social adjustment. *Personality and individual differences*, 37; 533-542.
- Farooq, A. 2003. Effects of emotional Intelligence on academic performance. Unpublished Thesis. Institute of clinical psychology, University of Karachi, Pakistan.
- Field, A. 2005. *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS* (6th edition), Sage Publication, London.
- Fontana, D. 1981. *Psychology for Teachers*. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.
- Ford, M. 1992. *Motivating humans, goals, emotions and personal agency beliefs*. Newbury park C.A Sage
- Frank Pajares, 2002. "Overview of Social Cognitive Theory and of Self- Efficacy," www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/eff.html,
- Frey, B. S. 1994. How Intrinsic Motivation is Crowded Out and In. *Rationality and Society*, 6 (3), 334-352.
- Freyer, J., Tonigan, J.S., Keller, S., Rumpf, H., John, U., & Hapke, U., 2005. Readiness for change and readiness for help-seeking: A composite assessment of client motivation. *Alcohol & Alcoholism*, 40(6), 540-544

- Fried, Y. & Ferris, G.R. 1987. The Validity of the Job Characteristics Model: A Review and Meta-Analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 40, pp. 287-322.
- Furlong, M. J., Whipple, A. D., St. Jean, G., Simental, J., Soliz, A., & Punthuna, S. 2003. Multiple contexts of school engagement: Moving toward a unifying framework for educational research and practice. *The California School Psychologist*, 8, pp. 99-113.
- Gaa, J. P. 1979. The effect of individual goal-setting conferences on academic achievement and modification of locus of control orientation. *Psychology in the schools*, 16, 591-597.
- Gabel, R. S., Dolan, S.L. & Cedin, J.C. 2005. Emotional intelligence as predictor of cultural adjustment for success in global assignments. *Career development international*, Volume 10, Issue 5, 2005, pp. 375-395
- Gagne, M. & Deci, E.C. 2005. Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organisation behaviour*, 26 (4) pp. 331-362
- Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. 2007. Educational research: An introduction. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Gardner, Howard 1983. Frames of mind; The theory of multiple intelligence. New York. Basic books
- Geiger, M. A., & Pinto, J. K. 1991. Changes in learning style preferences during a three-year longitudinal study. *Psychological Reports*, 69(3), pp. 755-762.
- Ghosh, P. 2003. "Emotionality of intelligence", *Everyman's Science*, Vol. 38 pp. 2-5
- Gill, V. 2003. "Emotional quotient more important than IQ", *The Tribune*, No. May 13 pp.13
- Goleman, D. 1995. Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than I.Q. London Bloomsbury.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. E., McKee, A. 2002. Primal Leadership: Realizing the Power of Emotional Intelligence, Harvard Business School Press, Boston, MA
- Goleman, D. 1995. Emotional intelligence. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. 1998. Working with emotional intelligence. New York, Bantam books
- Gonzalez, Arturo, 2002. Mexican Americans & the U.S. Economy: Quest for Buenos Dias. Tucson, AZ: The University of Arizona Press
- Goodenow, C. 1993. The psychological sense of school membership among adolescents: Scale development and educational correlates. *Psychology in the Schools*, 30(1), 79-90.
- Goodenow, C. & Grady, K. 1993. The relationship of school belonging and friends' values to academic motivation among urban adolescent students. *Journal of experimental education*, 62, 60-67

- Gottfredson, L.S. 2002. Gottfredson's theory of circumscription, compromise and self-creation. Career choice and development . 4th edition 85-148. San Fransisco. Jossey-Bass.
- Gottfried, A. E., Marcoulides, G.A., Gottfried, A.W. , & Oliver, P.H. 2009. A latent curve model of parental motivational practices and development decline in math and science academic intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Educational psychology*, 101, 729-739
- Graduate Employment Survey 2011. [http://www.salary.sg/2011/graduate employment survey - 2010-](http://www.salary.sg/2011/graduate%20employment%20survey%20-%202010-)
- Greene, R. & Conrad, A. P. 2002. Basic assumptions and terms. Resiliency; An integrated approach to practice, policy and research. pp. 29-62. Washington D.C NASW press.
- Grolnick, W.S., & Ryan, R.M. 1989. Parent style associated with children's self-regulation and competence in school. *Journal of educational psychology*, 81, 143-154.
- Guay, F., Marsh, H.W., & Boivin, M. 2003. Academic self-concept and achievement: Developmental perspective on their causal ordering. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95, 124-136.
- Hackett, G. & Betz, N.E. 1981. A self-efficacy approach to the career development of women. *Journal of vocational behaviour*, 18, 326-339
- Hackman, J.R., & Oldham, G.R 1980. Work redesign, Reading Massachusetts. Addison Wesley publishing company
- Hancock, D. 2002. Where's the money honey?. The socio-economic effects of mate choice, <http://www.feeladmaps.com>. Access date 10. 08. 2013
- Hannula, M. & Malmivuori, M.L. 1997. Gender differences and their relation to mathematics classroom context. In E. Pehkonam (Ed). Proceedings of the 21st conference of the international group for the psychology of mathematics education, Volume 3, 33-40
- Hannula, M. Maijala, H. Pehkonen, E. 2004. Development of understanding and self-confidence in Mathematics: Grades 5-8. Proceedings of the 28th Conference of the International Group for the Psychology of Mathematics Education, 3: 17-24.
- Hanson, S. 1992. Geography and feminism. *Worlds American geographer*, 82, 569-80
- Hanson, T.L. and Austin, G. 2003. Student health risks, resilience, and academic performance in California: Year 2 Report, Longitudinal Analyses. Los Alamitos, CA: West Ed.
- Harter, S. 1998. The development-representations. In Damon, W., & Eisenberg, N. (ed.), *Handbook of child psychology*, 3 (5), 553-617. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Harter, S. 1999. *The construction of the self: A developmental perspective*. New York: Guilford Press.

- Hauser, R.M., 1994. Measuring socioeconomic status in studies of a child development, 65, 1541-1545
- Hauser, S.T. 1999. Understanding resilient outcomes. Adolescent lives across time and generations. *Journal of research on adolescence*, 9, 1-24
- Hawkins, J.D., Guo, K.G., Hill, S., Battin-Pearson & Abbott R.D. 2001. Long term effects of the Seattle Social Development Intervention on School Bonding Trajectories. *Applied Developmental Science*, 5(4): 225-36
- Hawkins, J.D., Kosterman, R., Catalano, R.F., Hill, K.G. and Abbott, R.D. 2005. "Promoting positive adult functioning through social development intervention in childhood. Long-term effects from the Seattle social development project", *Archives of Pediatric and Adolescent Medicine*, Vol. 159, pp. 25-31.
- Heckhausen, H. 1991. Motivation and action. Cambridge University Press
- Hein, 2007. The innate potential model of emotional intelligence. Cavalanche at <http://eqi.org/eidefs/htm>
- Hemphill, B. 2004. Emotional intelligence as correlate of students' level of skill acquisition. *Journal Of Educational review*, 2(6), pp. 28-42.
- Hinsz, V.B.& Jundt, D.K, 2005. Exploring individual differences in a goal setting situation using the motivational trait questionnaire. *Journal of applied social psychology*
- Hollenbeck, J.R & Klein, H.J. 1988. Goal commitment and the goal setting process. Problems, prospects and proposals for future research. *Journal of applied psychology*, 72, 212-220.
- Hollister – Wagner, G.H, Foshee, V.A, & Jackson, C. 2001. Adolescent aggression. Models of resiliency. *Journal of applied social psychology*, 31, 445-566
- Hon Keung Yau, H. K., & Alison Lai Fong Cheng, A. L. F., 2012 Students' Age Difference of Confidence in Using Technology for Learning in Higher Education *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, volume 11 Issue 3
- Hossaini, S.M. 2002. Forecasting between self-esteem, parenting and gender among pre-university of students in Shiraz. University of Shiraz, Shiraz, Iran.
- Hotulainen, R.H.E. & Schofield, N.J. 2003. Identified pre-school potential giftedness and its relations to academic achievement and self-concept at the End of finnish Comprehensive School. *High ability Studies*, 14, 55-70
- Howard, S, Dryden, J, Johnson, B, 1999. Childhood resilience, review and critique of the literature. *Oxford Review of Education* 25(3) pp. 303-323
- Howe, A., Smajdor, A. & Stockl, A. 2005. Towards an understanding of resilience and its relevance to medical training. *Medical Education*. 2005; 46: 349-356

- Hurtig, M.-C., Kail, M., & Rouch, H.(Eds.). 1991. Sexe et genre: de la hiérarchie entre les sexes. Paris: Editions du Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique.
- Ichado, S.M, 1998. Impact of broken home on academic performance of secondary school students in English Language. *Journal of research in counselling psychology*, 4 (1), pp. 84-87
- International Labour Organization. 2007. ABC of women workers' rights and gender equality
- Ireson, J., & Hallam, S. 2001. Ability grouping in education. London: Chapman.
- Jackson, S. A., Thomas, P. R., & Marsh, H. W. 2001. Relationships between flow, self- concept, psychological skills, and performance. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 13, 129-153.
- Jackson, S, Born, M & Jacob, M, 1997. Reflections on risk and resilience in adolescence. *Journal of adolescence*, 20, 609-616
- Jacob, J. E., Lanza, S., Osgood, D. W., Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. 2002. Changes in children's self-competence and value: gender and domain differences across grades one through twelve. *Child development*, 73, 509- 527.
- Jacqueline, S. Eccles & Rena, D. Harold, 1993. "Parent-School Involvement During the Early Adolescent Years," *Teachers College Record* 94:568-87
- Jaeger, A. J. 2001. Emotional intelligence, learning style, and academic performance of graduate students in professional schools of public administration (Doctoral Dissertation, New York University, 2001). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 62 (02), 486A. (UMI No. 3004907).
- Jaeger, A.J. & Eagan, M.K. 2007. Exploring the value of emotional intelligence. A means to improve academic performance. *NASPA journal*, vol. 44, No 3, pp. 512-537
- James Raffini, 1993. *Winners Without Losers: Structures and Strategies for Increasing Student Motivation to Learn* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon,), p. 286.
- Jeynes, W.H, 2002. Examining the effect of parental absence on academic achievement of adolescents. The challenge of controlling for family income. *Journal of family and economic issues*. 23(2)
- Jiboku, A.O. 2008. Gender and self-concept as predictors of academic self-efficacy of students. *Ogun journal of counselling studies*, 2 (2), pp. 89-94
- Johnson, R. B., & Turner, L. A. 2003. Data collection strategies in mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 297-320). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Joseph, J.M 1994. *The resilient child. Preparing today's youth for tomorrow's world*. New York, Plenum books.

- Juvonen, J., & Wentzel, K.R. 1996. Social motivation; Understanding children's school adjustment. New York, Cambridge University Press
- Juvonen, J. 2007. Reforming middle schools: Focus on continuity, social connectedness, and engagement. *Educational Psychologist*, 42(4), 197-208.
- Kalbach, V.B & Hinsz, V.B, 1999. A conceptualization and test of the influences of individual differences in goal setting situations. *Journal of applied social psychology*. 29, pp. 1854-1978
- Kao, G., & Tienda, M. 1995. Optimism and achievement: The educational performance of immigrant youth. *Social Science Quarterly*, 76, 1-19.
- Kanfer, R. 1994. Work motivation: New directions in theory and research. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *Key reviews in managerial psychology: Concepts and research for practice* (pp. 1-53). New York: Wiley.
- Kao, G., and Tienda, M. 1998. Educational Aspirations of Minority Youth. *American Journal of Education*, 106, 349-384.
- Karcher, M. J., & Lee, Y. 2002. Connectedness among Taiwanese middle school students: A validation study of the Hemingway Measure of Adolescent Connectedness. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 3(1), pp. 92-114.
- Kaur, R. & Gild, T.K. 1993. Sex difference in academic achievement in different subjects of rural and urban students. *Indian psychological Review*, 40 (12), 20-24
- Kaur, M. A. 2001. Study of Emotional Maturity of Adolescents in relation to Intelligence, Academic Achievement and Environmental Catalysts. Unpublished Ph.D. (Education) Thesis, Panjab University
- Kawachi, I, & Berkman L, 2000. Social cohesion, Social capital and health. *Social Epidemiology*, Oxford University Press, New York pp. 174-190
- Kelly, K.R. & Jordan, L.K. 1990. Effects of academic achievement and gender on academic and social self-concept. A replication study. *Journal of counselling and development*, 69, 173- 177
- Kerr, S., Johmson, V. K., Gans, S. E. & Krumme, J. 2004. Predicting adjustment during the transition to college. Alexithymia perceived stress and psychological symptoms. *Journal of college student development*. 45, (6) 593-611
- Klein, J. 2004. Who is most responsible for gender differences in scholastic achievements, pupils or teachers? *Educational research*, 46 (2) 183-193
- Klem, A. M., & Connell, J. P. 2004. Relationships matter: Linking teacher support to student engagement and achievement. *Journal of School Health*, 74(7), 262-273.

- Kliewer, W. & Murrelle, L. 2007. Risk and protective factors for adolescent substance use. Findings from a study in selected Central American countries. *Journal of adolescent health, vol. 40, pp. 448-455*
- Kling, K. C., Hyde, J. S., Showers, C. J., & Buswell, B. N. 1999. Gender differences in self-esteem: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 125, pp. 470-500.*
- Kohlberg, Lawrence, 1966. A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex- role concepts and attitudes. In E. E. Maccody (Ed.), *The development of sex differences*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Kohlberg, Lawrence, 1969. Stage and sequence: The cognitive-developmental approach to socialization. In D. A. Goslin (Ed.), *Handbook of socialization theory and research*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Koifman, R. 1998. The relationship between EQ, IQ and creativity. Unpublished manuscript, York University, Toronto.
- Koumi, I. 2000. Self-concept in specific academic domains, academic values and goals. A study of comprehensive multi-sectoral lyceum students in Greece. *Psychology. The journal of the Hellenic psychological society, 7, 309- 323*
- Krapp, A. 1993. Die psychologie de lemmotivation. *Zeitschrift fur padagogok, 39, pp. 187-206.*
- Kruger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. 2009. *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Kusche, C. A., & M. T. Greenberg, 1994. *The PATHS (Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies) Curriculum*. South Ceerfield: Channing-Bete
- Latham, G.P., & Seijts, G.H. 1999. The effects of proximal and distal goals on performance on a moderately complex task. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 20, 421-429.*
- Lau, I.C., Yeung, A.S., & Jin, P. 1998. Academic self-concept structure of higher education students. Paper presented at the meeting of the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australia: New Zealand: Auckland.
- Lau, K.L., & Chan, D.W. 2001. Motivational characteristics of under-achievers in Hong Kong. *Educational Psychology, 21(4): pp. 417-430.*
- Law, C & Wong.2002. Development and validation of emotional intelligence scale. *Journal of Social psychology, 7,(6), pp. 82-92.*
- Learning First Alliance. 2001. *Every child learning: Safe and supportive schools*. Washington, DC: Learning First Alliance.
- Lee, C. 1998, *The adult learner: neglected no more*. Training, pp. 47-51.

- Leedy, M. Lalonde, D. ,& Runk, K. 2003. Gender equity in mathematics ; Beliefs of students, parents and teachers. *School science and mathematics*, 103 (106), 285-292
- Lent, R.W., Brown, S. D., & Gore, P.A. 1997. Discriminant and predictive validity of academic self-concept, academic self-efficacy, and mathematics-specific self-efficacy. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 44; pp. 307-315.
- Lepper, M.R., Corpus, J.H., & Iyengar, S.S. 2005. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation orientations in the classroom: Age differences and academic correlates. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 97, 184-196
- Levin, H.M. & Belfield, C.R. 2002. Families as contractual partners in education. *UCLA law review*. 49, 1799-1824
- Lewin, K., Dembo, T. Festinger, L. & Seras, P.S. 1944. Level of aspiration. In J. McVHunt (Ed.), *Personality and the behaviours disorders* (Vol. 1, pp. 333-378). New York: Ronald Press.
- Lewis, J. D., & Knight, H. V. 2000. Self-concept in gifted youth: An investigation employing the Piers-Harris subscales. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 44, pp. 45-53.
- Libbey, H. P. 2004. Measuring student relationships to school: Attachment, bonding, connectedness, and engagement. *Journal of School Health*, 74(7), pp. 274-283.
- Libbey, H. P. 2004. Measuring student relationships to school: Attachment, bonding, connectedness, and engagement. *Journal of School Health*, 74 (7), pp. 274-283
- Lighbody, P. Slann, G. Stocks, R. & Walsh, D. 1996. Motivation and attribution at secondary schools, role of gender *Educational studies*, 22, pp. 13-15
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. 1985. *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications.
- Linquati, R. 1992. Using community wide collaboration to foster resiliency in kids. A conceptual framework Portland. Western regional center for drug-free schools and communities (ERIC document reproduction service, No. ED, 353-666)
- Liu, W. C., & Wang, C. K. J. 2005. Academic Self-Concept: A Cross-Sectional Study of Grade and Gender Differences in a Singapore Secondary School. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 6(1), 20-27.
- Locke, E.A 2000. Motivation, Cognition and action. An analysis of studies of task and knowledge. *Applied psychology. An international review*, 49, 408-429
- Locke, E.A, Shaw, K.M, Saari L.M & Latham G.P, 1981. Goal setting and task performance, 1969-1980, *psychological bulletin*, 90, 125-152.

- Lohmeier, J. H., & Lee, S. W. 2011. A school connectedness scale for use with adolescents. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 17(2), 85-95.
- Lonczale, H.S., Abbott, R.D., Hawkins, J.D., Kosterman, R., & Catalano, R.F. 2000. Effects of the seatle social development project on sexual behaviour, pregnancy, birth and sexually transmitted disease outcomes by age 21 years
- Lopes, P.H., Brackett, M.A., Nezlek, J., Schtz, A., Sellin, T. & Salovey P. 2004. Emotional intelligence and social interaction. *Personality and social psychology bulletin*, 30, 1018-1034
- Low, G. & Nelson, D. 2005. Emotional Intelligence. The role of transformative learning in academic excellence. *Texas study of secondary education*, (XIV) 2, 41-44
- Lucas, J.L., Wanberg, L.R. & Zytowski, D.G. 1997. Development of a career task self-efficacy scale. The Kuder task self-efficacy scale. *Journal of vocational behaviour*, 45, 79-122
- Ludtke, O., Koller, O., Marsh, H.W., & Trautwein U. 2005. Teacher frame of reference and the big fish-little-pond effect. *Contemporary educational psychology*, 30, 263-285.
- Lui, H.J. 2009. Exploring changes in academic self-concept in ability-grouped English classes. *Chang Gung Journal of Humanities and social sciences*, 2(2):411-432.
- Luther, S.S, Cicchetti, D. & Becker, B. 2000. The construct of resilience. A critical evaluation and guidelines for future work child development.71, 3, 543-562
- Luther, S.S., Cicchetti, D. 2000. The construct of resilience. Implications for interventions and social policies. *Development and psychopathology*, 12, 857-885
- Maddox, S. J., & Prinz, R. J. 2003. School bonding in children and adolescents: Conceptualization, assessment, and associated variables. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 6(1), 31-49.
- Mahyuddin, R. Elias, H. & Noordin, N. 2009. Emotional intelligence, achievement motivation and academic achievement among students of the public and private higher institutions. *The international journal diversity in organisations, communities and nations*, volume 9, No. 4, 135-144
- Majoribanks, K. 2001. Sibling difution hypothesis. A regression surface analysis. *Physiological report* retrieved on November 10, 2009.
- Masten, A.S, & Coastworth J,D 1998. The development of competence in favourable and unfavourable environments. Lessons from research on successful children. *American psychologists*. 53, 205- 220.
- Masten, A.S., Hubbard, J.J., Gest, S.D., Tellegan, A. Garmezy, N. Raminez, M. 1999. *Adaptation* in the context of adversity. Pathways to resilience and maladaptation from childhood to late adolescence. *Development and psychopathology*, 1999, 11; 143-169

- Masten, A.S, Hubbard, J.J, Gest, S.D., Tellegen, A., Garmezy, N. & Ramirez, M. 1999. Competence in the context of adversity. Pathway to resilience and maladaptation from childhood to late adolescence. *Development and psychopathology*.11, 143-169
- Masten, A.S. 2001. Ordinary magic, resilience processes in development. *American psychologist*. Volume 56, No. 3, pp. 227-38
- Masten, A.S & Reed, M.J 2002. Resilience in development. In C.R Synder & S.J Lopez (Eds). *The handbook of positive psychology*. pp.7488, Oxford University press.
- Masten, A.S, & Powell, J.L. 2003. A resilience framework for research, policy and practice. In S.S. Luther (ed). *Resilience and vulnerability*. New York ; Cambridge University press
- Matoti, S.N, Junquiera, K.E 2009. Assessing the Academic Behavioural Confidence (ABC) of first-year students at the Central University of Technology, Free State. *Interdisciplinary Journal*, 8(2): 41-60.
- Maria K.D. & Hefer. B. 2011. Differences between Full-time and Part-time MBA students' self-efficacy for learning and for employment: A self-regulatory perspective. *The International Journal of Educational and Psychological Assessment*, 7(1), 81-110.
- Martinez-Raga, J., Marshall, E.J., Keaney, F., & Ball, D. 2002. Unplanned versus planned discharges from in-patient alcohol detoxification: Retrospective analysis of 470 first episode admissions. *Alcohol and alcoholism*, 37(3), 277-281.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D.R. 2002. Mayer – Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Version 2.0, Toronto, Canada, Multi-health systems.
- McCoach, D.B 2002. A validation study of the school attitude assessment survey. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counselling and Development*, 35: 66-77.
- McCoach, DB, Siegle D. 2003. The structure and function of academic self-concept in gifted and general education students. *Roeper Review*, 25(2): 61-65.
- Middleton, M.J & Midgley, C. 1997. Avoiding the demonstration of lack of ability. An unexplained aspect of goal theory. *Journal of educational psychology*, 89, 710-718
- Midgley, C. & Edelin, K. 1998. Middle school reform and early adolescents well-being. The good news and the bad. *Educational psychologist*, 33, 195-206
- Marchargo, J. 1991. The teacher and the self-concept in his or her students. Theory and practice. [El profesory el autocempto de sous alumnus. Teoria y practica]. Madrid: Escuela Espanola.
- Marcus, R.F, Sanders-Reio, J. 2001. The influence of attachment on school completion. *School Psychol Quart*;16: 427– 44.
- Marsh, H. W. 1989. Age and sex effects in multiple dimensions of self-concept: Preadolescence to early adulthood. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81, 417- 430.

- Marsh, H. W. 2004. Negative effects of school-average achievement on academic self-concept: A comparison of the big-fish-little-pond effect across Australian states and territories. *Australian Journal of Education*, 48, 5-26.
- Marsh, H. W. 2006. Self-concept theory, measurement and research into practice: The role of self-concept in educational psychology. Unpublished manuscript, British Psychology Society, 25th Vernon- Wall lecture.
- Marsh, H. W., Byrne, B. M., & Yeung, A. S. 1999. Causal ordering of academic self-concept and achievement: Reanalysis of a pioneering study and revised recommendations. *Educational Psychologist*, 34, 154 -157.
- Marsh, H. W., Ellis, L., & Craven, R. G. 2002. How do pre-school children feel about themselves? Unravelling measurement and multidimensional self-concept structure. *Developmental Psychology*, 38, 376-393.
- Marsh, H. W., & Parker, J. W. 1984. Determinants of student self-concept: Is it better to be a relatively large fish in a small pond even if you don't learn to swim as well? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47, 213-231.
- Marsh, H. W., & Yeung, A. S. 1997. The causal effects of academic self-concept on academic achievement: Structural equation models of longitudinal data. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 89, 41-54.
- Marsh, H.W. 1990a. A multi-dimensional, hierarchical model of self-concept: theoretical and empirical justification. *Educational Psychology Review*, 2:77-172.
- Marsh, H.W. 1990b. Causal ordering of academic self-concept and academic achievement: a multi-wave, longitudinal panel analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(4):646-656.
- Marsh, H.W. 2010. Self-description questionnaire -111 manual SELF Research Centre: University of Oxford. Available from: <http://www.self.ox.ac.uk/SDQ3.htm>
- Martin, M. O., Mullis, I. V. S., Gonzalez, E. J., & Chrostowski, S. J. 2004. Findings from IEA's Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study at the fourth and eighth grades. Chestnut Hill, MA: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Centre, Boston College.
- Marquez, Martin and Bracket, Adeyemo, 2006. Emotional intelligence and academic achievement. *The handbook of emotional intelligence*. San Fransisco Josey Bass, 18, 304-323
- Maslow, A. 1970. *Motivation and personality* (2nd ed.). New York: Harper and Row.
- Mayer, S. 1997. *What money can't buy. Family income and children's life chances*. Harvard University press, Cambridge M.

- Mau, W.C & Bikos L.H , 2000. Educational and vocational aspirations of minority and female students. A longitudinal study. *Journal of counselling and development* . 186-19
- McKenzie, K. 1999. Correlation Between Self-Efficacy and Self-Esteem in Students. American Psychological Association Publication Manual.
- McClelland, D.C., Atkinson, J.W., Clark, R.W. & Lowell, E.L. 1953. The achievement motive. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts
- McNeely, C. A. 2003. Connection to school as an indicator of positive development. Paper presented at the Indicators of Positive Development Conference, Washington, D.C. Retrieved from <http://www.childtrends.org/files/McNeely-paper.pdf>
- McNeely, C. A., Nonnemaker, J. M., & Blum, R. W. 2002. Promoting school connectedness: Evidence from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health. *Journal of School Health*, 72(4), 138-146.
- Meece, J. L., & Hoh, K. 1993. A pattern analysis of students' achievement goals. *Journal of educational psychology*. 85(4), 582-590
- Mentkowski, M., & Strait, M. J. 1983. A longitudinal study of student change in cognitive development, learning styles, and generic abilities in an outcomecentered liberal arts curriculum. (Report No. 6). Milwaukee, WI: Alverno Productions.
- Menzie, T.A. 2005. Emotional intelligence and social academic competence in middle school youth. *Dissertation Abstract international*, 66, (6-A), 2104
- Mestre, K.M., Guil, R., Lopes, P.N., Salovey, P. & Gil-Olarte, P. 2006. Emotional intelligence and social and academic adaptation to school. *Psicothema* 18: 112-17
- Merkowitz, R.F. & Earnest G.W. 2006. Emotional intelligence. A pathway to self-understanding and improved leadership capacities. *Journal of Extension*, 44 (4).
- Michaelides, 2008. Emerging Themes from early Research on Self-Efficacy Beliefs in school Mathematics. *Education and Psychology*, Vol. 6 (1), 219-234.
- Mobius, Markus, Muriel Niederle, Paul Niehaus, and Tanya Rosenblat 2015. "Managing Self-Confidence: Theory and Experimental Evidence", mimeo
- Morris, L.V., Finnegan, C., & Wu, S. 2005. Tracking student behaviour, persistence and achievement in online courses. *The internet and Higher Education*, 8(3), 221-231
- Mui, F. L. L., Yeung, A. S., Low, R., & Jin, P. 2000. Academic self-concept of talented students: Factor structure and applicability of the internal/external frame of reference model. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 23, 343-367.
- Muola, J.M. 2010. A study of the relationship between academic achievement motivation and home environment among standard eight pupils. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 5(5): 213-217

- Murtonen, M., Olkinuora, E., Tynjälä, P. & Lehtinen, E. 2008. "Do I Need Research Skills in Working Life?" University Students' Motivation and Difficulties in Quantitative Method Courses. *Higher Education*, 56, 599-612.
- Nagy, W., Berninger, V.W., & Abbott, R.D. 2006. Contributions of morphology beyond phonology to literacy outcomes of upper elementary and middle-school students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 98(1), 134-147.
- Naoreen, B. & gujjar, A.A 2009. A comparative study to measure and compare the emotional intelligence of the students of the islamia, University of Bahawalpur on selected variables. I-manager. *journal on educational psychology*. Vol. 21, no. 31.
- Nasir, M. & Masrur, R. 2010. An exploration of emotional intelligence of the students of IIUI in relation to gender, age and academic achievement.
- National FFA Organization. 2005. National FFA Organization: Mission, vision, values [Brochure]. Retrieved from https://www.ffa.org/documents/med_pressbrochure.pdf
- National FFA Organization.(2011).FFA statistics. Retrieved from <https://www.ffa.org/about/whoweare/Pages/Statistics.aspx>
- Newman, I., Ridenour, C. S., Newman, C., & DeMarco, G. M. P., Jr. 2003. A typology of research purposes and its relationship to mixed methods. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 167-188). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Nicholls, J.G. 1984. Achievement motivation; Conceptions of ability, subjective experience. Task
- Nichols, S. L. 2008. An exploration of students' belongingness beliefs in one middle school. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 76(2), 145-169.
- Niederle, M. & Vesterlund, L. 2007. "Do Women Shy Away from Competition? Do Men Compete Too Much?" *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 122 (3), pp. 1067-1101.
- Non-cognitive Skills in the Classroom: New Perspectives on Educational Research. RTI Press USA.
- Nwankwo, C.A. 1991. The behaviours of students in schools. A paper presented at the 6th annual general conference of Association for promoting quality education in Nigeria, Akwa.
- Nzewuawah, P.D 1995. The effects of single parenthood on the academic performance of students. Unpublished M,Ed project, University of Lagos.
- Ochse, C. 2003. Are positive self-perceptions and expectancies really beneficial in an academic context? *SAJHE/SATHO*, 17(1):67-73.

- O'Donnell, J., Hawkins, J.D., & Abbott, R.D. 1995. Predicting serious delinquency and substance use among aggressive boys. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 63, 529-537.
- OECD, 2010. Education at a glance. OECD publishing
- Ogundokun, M. O. 2007. Personological factors, school location and types as predictors of academic performance among senior secondary school students in Southwestern Nigeria. Unpublished PhD. Thesis, University of Ibadan.
- Okebukola, P.A.O, 1993. Study habits of Nigerian Undergraduates science and educational majors and their academic achievement. *International journal of educational research*, 5, pp. 235-243
- Olatunde, Y.P. 2010. Students' self-concept and mathematics achievement in some secondary schools in SouthWestern Nigeria. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 13(1):127-132.
- Olsson, C.A., Bond, L., Burns, J.M., Vella Brodrick, D.A & Sawyer, S.M 2003. Adolescent resilience. A concept analysis. *Journal of adolescence* 26, 1-11
- Oregon Department of Education 2003. Oregon's comprehensive guidance and counselling framework. Salem,OR:Author.Retrieved January 23, 2006, from <http://www.ode.state.or.us/groups/supportstaff/counseors/oregonframework-cgcp.pdf>.
- Osterloh, M., Frey, B.S, & Homberger, F, 2011. Organizational control systems and pay for performance in the public service. Unpublished paper
- Osterman, K. F. 2000. Students' need for belonging in the school community. *Review of Educational Research*, 70(3), 323-367.
- Padrón, Y. N., Waxman, H. C., & Huang, S. L. 1999. Classroom behavior and learning environment differences between resilient and non-resilient elementary school students. *Journal of Education for Student Placed At Risk*, 4 (1), 63-81.
- Pajares, F. 1996. Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Academic Settings. *Review of Educational Research*, 66, 543.
- Pajare, F. & Graham. L. 1998. Self-efficacy, motivation constructs and mathematics performance of entering middle school students. *Contemporary educational psychology*, 24 (2), 124-139
- Pajare, F, 2000. Self-efficacy beliefs and current directors in self-efficacy.
- Pandey, V.C. 2005. *Intelligence and motivation*. New Delhi: Isha Books.
- Parker, J. G. & Asher, S. R. 1993. Friendship and friendship quality in middle childhood: Links with peer group acceptance and feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction. *Developmental psychology*, 29(4), 611-621.

- Patton, G.C., Bond, L., Carlin, J.B., Thomas, L., Butler, H., Glover, S., Catalano, R. and Bowes, G. 2006. "Promoting social inclusion in schools: a randomized trial of effects on student health risk behaviour and well-being", *American Journal of Public Health*, Vol. 96 No. 9, pp. 1582-1587.
- Patton, G.C., Glover, S., Bond, L., Butler, H., Godfrey, C., Di Pietro, G. and Bowes, G. 2000. "The Gatehouse project: a systematic approach to mental health promotion in secondary schools", *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, Vol. 34, pp. 586-593.
- Paulo, A.K.H, Croucher, R. Sohanpal, R. Muirhead, V. & Seymour, K. 2004. Emotional Intelligence and Stress Coping in Dental Undergraduates – a Qualitative Study. *British Dental Journal*, 205–209.
- Paulson, M.B. & Fieldman, K.A, 2005. The conditional and interaction effects of Epistemological Beliefs on the self-regulated learning of college students' motivational strategies research in higher Education, 46(7). 731-768.
- Parker, J.D.A., Summerfeldt, L.J., Hogan, M.J. & Majeski, S. 2004. Emotional Intelligence and academic success. Examining the transition from high school to University. *Personality and individual differences* 36, 163-172.
- Parsons, S., Croft, T., Harrison, M. 2009. Does students' confidence in their ability in mathematics matter? *Teaching Mathematics and its Applications*, 28: 53-68.
- Patel, G. 1997. Home,Homo Hybrid. Translating gender. *College literature*, 24 (1) <http://www.findarticles.com>.
- Pehkonen, E. 1997. Learning results from the viewpoint of equity: Boys, girls and mathematics. *Teaching Mathematics and its Applications*, 16(2): 58-63.
- Peixoto, F. 2003. Self-esteem, self- concept and relational dynamics in school context. PhD thesis, Universidade does Minho.
- Pellegrini, A. D., & Bartini, M. 2000. A longitudinal study of bullying, victimization, and peer affiliation during the transition from primary school to middle school. *American Educational Research Journal*, 37(3). 699-725.
- Pelliteri, J. 2002. The relationship between emotional intelligence and ego defense mechanisms. *Journal of psychology*, 136 (2) pp. 182-194
- Petrides, K.V. & Furnham, A. 2005. On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence, personality and individual differences; 29, 313-320
- Pintrich, P.R. 2000. Multiple goals, multiple pathways. The role of goal orientation learning and achievement. *Journal of educational psychology*, 92, 544-555
- Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. 2002. *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Pittman, L. & Richmond, A. 2007. Academic and psychological functioning in late adolescence. "The importance of school belonging". *The journal of experimental education* vol. 75, No.4, pp. 270-288
- Philips, J.M, & Gully, S.M. 1997. Role of goal orientation. Ability, need for achievement and locus of control in the self-efficacy and goal setting processes. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 82, 792- 802
- Phipps, L. J., Osborne, E. W., Dyer, J. E., & Ball, A. 2008. Handbook on Agricultural education in public schools (6th ed.). Clifton Park, NY: Thomson Delmar Learning.
- Pines, A. & Nunes, R. 2003. The relationship between career and couple burnout: implications for career and couple counselling. *Journal of Employment Counselling*, 40, 50-64.
- Pool, C. R. 1997. "Up with emotional health." *Educational Leadership* 54 (8): 40-42.
- Postigo, Y., Pere, M. & Sanz, A. 1999. A study about gender differences in solving Scientific problems.17, pp. 247-258
- Pullmann, H., & Allik, J. 2008. Relations of academic and general self-esteem to school achievement. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 45(6), 559-564.
- Punch, K. F. 1998. Mixed methods and evaluative criteria. In K. F. Punch (Ed.), *Introduction to social research* (pp. 239-250). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications
- Putnam, R, 1995. Bowling alone. America's declining social capital. *Journal Of democracy*, vol. 6, No 1, pp. 65-75
- Pyryt, M.C. & Mengaglio, S. 1994. The multidimensional self-concept. A comparison of gifted and average-ability adolescents. *Journal for the education of the gifted*, 17, 299-305
- Qualter, P., Whiteley, H.E., Hutchinson, J.M. & Pope, D.J. 2007. Supporting the development of emotional competencies to ease the transition from primary to high school. *Educational psychology in practice*, 23, 9-95
- Qualter , P.; Whiteley , H.; Morley , A. & Dudiac, H. 2009. The Role of Emotional Intelligence in The Decision to Persist With Academic Studies in High Education. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 14(3),219-231.
- Radhakrishna, R.B., Yoder, E.P., & Ewing, J.C. 2007. Strategies for linking theoretical framework and research types . Conference proceedings of the 2007 AAAE. Research Conference held in Pennsylvania. Conducted by the Pennsylvania State University.
- Radosevich, D.J., Vaidyanathan, V.T., Yen, S. & Radosevich, D.M. 2004. Relating goal orientation to self-regulating processes. A Longitudinal field test. *Contemporary educational psychology*, 29, 207-229

- Ramazan, M., Gujjar, A. A., & Ahmad, S. I. 2011. Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Academic Achievement of Perspective Teachers in the Subject of English, *Language in India: Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow*, Volume 11.
- Reed, E.S., Turiel, E., & Brown, T. 1996. Values and knowledge. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Resnick, M. D., Harris, L. J., & Blum, R. W. 1993. The impact of caring and connectedness on adolescent health and well-being. *Journal of Pediatrics and Child Health*, 29(1), S3-S9.
- Resnick, M.D., Bearman, P.S., Blum, R.W., Bauman, K.E., Harris, K.M. & Jones, J. 1997. Protecting Adolescents from Harm. Findings from the National Longitudinal study of Adolescents' Health. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 278(10): 823-32
- Resnick, M.D. 2000. Protective factors, resiliency, and healthy youth development. *Adolescent*; 11: 157– 64.
- Reynolds, A.J. & Walberg H.J. 1992. A structural model of science achievement and attitude. An extension to high school. *Journal of educational psychology*. 84, 371-382
- Richardson, G.E, Neigner, B.L, Jensen, S & Kumpfer, K.L 1993. The resiliency model. *Health Education*, 21(6), 33-39
- Richman, & Frasser, 1996. Resiliency ; What we have learnt.
- Richman, J.M, & Frasser, M.W (Eds) 2001. Resilience, risk and protection. Westport, CT Praeger publishers.
- Roberts, R.D, Zeidner, M. & Mathews, G. 2001. Does emotional intelligence meet traditional standards for an intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. *Emotion*; 1, 196-231
- Robins, R.W., Hendin, H.M., & Trzesniewski, K. H. 2001. Measuring global self-esteem: Construct validation of a single-item measure and the Rosenberg self-esteem scale. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27, 151–161.
- Rowe, F., Stewart, D., & Patterson, C. 2007. 'Promoting school connectedness through whole school approaches'. *Health Education*, Vol. 107 No. 6, pp. 524-542.
- Ruble, D.N., & Martin, C.L. 1998. Gender development. In W. Damon (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3* (pp. 933–1016). New York: Wiley.
- Rodriguez, C. 2009. The impact of academic self-concept, expectation and the choice of learning strategy on academic achievement: the case of business students. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 28(5):523-539.
- Roeser, R. W., Midgley, C., & Urdan, T. C. 1996. Perceptions of the school psychological environment and early adolescents' psychological and behavioral function in school: The

- mediating role of goals and belonging. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 88(3), 408-422.
- Roeser, R.J., Eccles, & Strobel, K. 1998. Linking the study of schooling and mental health: Selected issues and empirical illustrations at the level of the individual. *Educational psychologists*, 33: 153-76.
- Rosenfeld, L.B., Richman, J.M., & Bowen, G.L. 1998. Low social support among At-Risk adolescents. *Social Work in Education*, 20, 245-60.
- Rowe, F., Stewart, D., & Patterson, C. 2007. Promoting school connectedness through whole school approaches. *Health Education*, 107(6), 524-542.
- Rowell, G.A., Nese, R., & Dennison, J. S TATS @MTS U. Middle Tennessee State University. Available from: <http://mtsu32.mtsu.edu/11308/index.htm> Accessed 14 December
- Rubin, D. H., Erickson, C.I., San Agustin, M., Cleary, S.D., Allen, J.K., & Colen, P. 1996. Cognitive and academic functioning of homeless children compared with housed children. *Paediatrics*, 97: 289-294. (Pubmed)
- Russell, J. 2002. *Enabling learning: The crucial work of school leaders*. Melbourne: Australian Council for Educational Research
- Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Moretimo, P., Ouston, J. & Smith, A. 1979. *Fifteen thousand hours. Secondary schools and their effects on children*. Open books, London
- Rutter, M. 1987. Parental mental disorder as a psychiatric risk factor. In R.E. Hales, & A.J. Frances (Eds.), *American Psychiatric Association annual review (Vol. 6)*, (pp. 647-663). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Rutter, M., Maughan, B., Moretimore, P., Ouston, J. & Smith A. 1979. *Fifteen thousand hours. Secondary schools and their effects on children*. Open books, London.
- Rutter, M. 1990. Psychosocial resilience and protective mechanisms. In Rolf, J., Masten, A.S., Cicchetti, D., Neucherlein, K.H., Weintnub, S. editors. *Risk and protective factors in the development of psychopathology*. New York. Cambridge University Press.
- Ryan, A. M., & Patrick, H. 2001. The classroom social environment and changes in adolescents' motivation and engagement during middle school. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(2), 437-460. Ryan, C.E. 2004. A boy's secondary school changes to co-education. *International Journal*, 5(3): 385-395.
- Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L. 2000. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25:54-67.
- Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L. 2000. Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development and Well-Being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68-87.
- Saarni, C. 1999. *The development of emotional competence*, New York. Guilford.

- Sadker, M. Sadker, D. Miller, 1994. *Failing or fairness; How America's schools cheat girls*. New York. C Scribner
- Sagotsky, G., Patterson, C.J., & Lepper, M.R. 1978. Training children's self-control: A field experiment in self-monitoring and goal-setting in the classroom. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 25, 242-253.
- Salami, S.O. & Ogundokun, M.O. 2009. Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy as Predictors of Academic Performance. *Perspectives in Education*, 25(3): 175-185.
- Salami, S.O. 2004. Affective characteristics as of determinants of academic performance of school-going adolescents: Implication for Counselling and practice. *Sokoto Educational Review*. 7: 145-160.
- Salanova, M., Llorens, S., Cifre, E., Martinez, I. & Schaufeli, W. 2003. Perceived collective efficacy, subjective well-being and task performance among electronic work groups: An experimental study. *Small Group Research*, 34, 43-73.
- Salili, F., Chi-yue C. & Ying-yi Hong (Eds.) 2001. *Student Motivation. The Culture and Context of Learning*. Springer: Berlin.
- Salkind, J. D. 2008. *Exploring research*. 7, Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Salkind, J. Neil. 2007. *Exploring Research*. 7th ed. Upper Saddle River. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Salovey, O. & Mayer, O. 1990. Emotional intelligence and self-efficacy as determinant of students' performance. *Journal of research in Education*, 7(4), 68-72.
- SarAbadaniTafreshi, L. 2006. The relationship between academic achievements, Self-Esteem and Gender with Anxiety of Computer among Postgraduate of Students in University of Tabeiyat Moallem Tehran. University of Tabeiyat Moalem, Theran, Iran.
- Scales, P. C., Roehlkepartain, E.C., Neal, M., Kielsmeier, J.C., & Benson, P.L. 2006. The role of developmental assets in predicting academic achievement: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Adolescence*, 29(5), 692-708.
- Schindler, S. 2010. Assessing the cumulative impact of primary and secondary effects on the way from elementary to tertiary education. A simulation study for Germany. *Equisocial working paper 2010/2012*
- Schindler, S. & Lorz, M. 2011. Mechanisms of social inequality development . Primary and secondary effect in the transition to tertiary education between 1976 and 2005. *European sociological review*, doi, 10. 1093/esr/jcr 032
- Schaufeli, W. & Bakker, A. 2004. Job demands, job resources and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 293-315.

- Schaufeli, W. & Enzmann, D. 1998. The burnout companion to study and practice: A critical analysis. London: Taylor and Francis.
- Schaufeli, W., Martinez, I., Marque's-Pinto, A., Salanova, M. & Bakker, A. 2002. burnout and engagement in university students: A cross-national study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33:464-481.
- Schaufeli, W., Salanova, M., Gonzalez-Roma, V., & Bakker, A. 2002. The measurement of burnout and engagement: A confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3, 71-92.
- Schultz, G. F. 1993. Socio-economic Advantage and Achievement Motivation: Important Mediators of Academic Performance in Minority Children in Urban School. *Urban Review*, 221-232.
- Schunk, D.H. 1989. Social cognitive theory and self-regulated learning. In B.J. Zimmerman, & D.H. Schunk (eds). *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement. Theory of research and practice* (pp. 83-110). NEW York; Springer Verlag
- Schunk, D., & Zimmerman, B. 2006. Competence and control beliefs: Distinguishing the means and ends. In P. A. Alexander & P. H. Winne (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 349-367). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J.M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. 1998. Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25, 167-177.
- Schwarzer, R. & Jerusalem, M. 1995. Generalized self-efficacy scale. in *Measures in Health Psychology: A User's Portfolio*. In J. Weinman, S. Wright & M. Johnston (Eds.), *Causal and control beliefs* (pp. 35-37).
- Schoon, I., and Parsons, S. 2002. Teenage aspirations for future careers and occupational outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 60, 262-288.
- Schoon, I., Martin, P. and Ross, A. 2007 Career transitions in times of social change: His and her story. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70, 78-96.
- Schoon, I., Parsons, S., and Sacker, A. 2004. Socio-economic Adversity, Educational Resilience, and Subsequent Levels of Adult Adaptation. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 19; 383-404.
- Scott J. 2006. Family and gender roles: how attitudes are changing –a paper presented as a plenary paper for the international conference of family relations, university of Valencia Spain.
- Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R. 2010. *Research methods for business: a skill building approach*. 5, Wiley.

- Sewell, W. H., Haller, A. & Porks, A. 1969. The educational and early occupational attainment process. *American sociological review*, 34, 82-92
- Shavelson, R. J., Hubner, J. J., & Stanton, G. C. 1976. Self-concept: Validation of construct interpretations. *Review of Educational Research*, 46, 407-441.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Kasser, T. 2001. Goals, congruence, and positive well-being: New empirical validation for humanistic ideas. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 41, 30-50.
- Sheldon, K. M., Kasser, T., Houser-Marko, L., Jones, T., & Turban, D. 2005. Doing one's duty: Chronological age, felt autonomy, and subjective well-being. *European Journal of Personality*, 19, 97-115.
- Shochet, I, Smyth & Homel, R. 2007. The impact of parental attachment on adolescent . Perception of the school environment and school connectedness. *Australia and New Zealand journal of family therapy*. Vol. 28, No 2, pp. 109-118
- Sikwari, T.D. 2004. The relationship between affective factors and the academic achievement of students at the University of Venda. Unpublished M.ed dissertation Pretoria.Unisa
- Singh, H. 1984. A survey of the study habits of high, middle and low achieving adolescents in relation to their sex, intelligence and socio-economic status. PhD Edu, Hp, University.
- Sinha, J.B & Verma, J. 1990. Social support as a moderator of the relationship between allocentrism and psychological well-being. A paper presented at the individualism-collectivism conference, Institute of Korean studies, Seoul, Korea.
- Skaavik, E.M. 1997. Self-enhancing and self-defeating ego orientation. Relations with task and avoidance orientation, achievement, self-perceptions and anxiety. *Journal of educational psychology*, 89, 71-81
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. 2002. Internal and external frames of reference for academic self-concept. *Educational Psychologist*, 37, 233-244.
- Skinner, E., Zimmer-Gembeck, M. & Connell, J. 1998) Individual differences and the development of perceived control. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 63(2-3, Whole No. 204).
- Skinner, E.A., & Pitzer, J. 2012. Developmental dynamic of engagement, coping and everyday resilience. In S.L. Christenson, A.I., Reschly, & C Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement*, pp.21-24. New York: Springer Science.
- Smith, L, Sinclair, K.E, Chapman, E.S 2002. Students' goals, self-efficacy. Self-handicapping and negative affective responses. An Australian senior school student study. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 27, 471-485.
- Snyder, C.R. & Lopez S.J. 2002. *Handbook of positive psychology*: USA: 227-335

- Solberg, V.S.H., Carlstrom, A.H., & Kowalchuk, R.K. 2001 Longitudinal Evaluation: School Success Intervention with Low-Income Diverse Youth. Paper presented at the 109th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Solberg, V.S.H., Gusavac, N., Hamann, T., Felch, J., Johnson, J., Lamborn, S., & Torres, J. 1998. The Adaptive Success Identity Plan (ASIP): A career intervention for college students. *Career Developments Quarterly*, 47, 48-95.
- Springer, A. Panel, G. Baumler, E. & Ross, M. 2006. Supportive social relationships and adolescent health risk behaviour among secondary school students in El Salvador. *Social science and medicine*. Vol. 62, pp. 1628-1640
- Staats, S., Hupp, J., Wallace, H., & Gresley, J. 2009. Heroes don't cheat: An examination of academic dishonesty and students' views on why professors don't report cheating. *Ethics and Behavior*, 19, 171-183.
- Stewart, S. M., Lam, T. H., Betson, C. L., Wong, C. M., & Wong, A. M. P. 1999. A prospective analysis of stress and academic performance in the first two years of medical school. *Medical Education*, 33, 243-250.
- Sushmita Mukherjee 2011. Application of ICT in Rural Development: Opportunities and Challenges. *Global Media Journal-Indian Edition Vol. 2*.
- Sutarso, T., Baggett, L. K., Sutarso, P. & Tapia, M. 1996. Effect of gender and GPA on emotional intelligence. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association, Tuscalossa. AL
- Swanson, J.L., & Woitke, M.S. 1997. Theory into practice in career assessment. Assessing women's career barriers. *Journal of career assessment*. 5(4) 443-462
- Sylwester, R. 1994. How emotions affect learning. *Educational Leadership*, 52(2), 60-65.
- Spaeth, J.L. 1976. Cognitive complexity. A dimension underlying the socioeconomic achievement process. In *schooling and achievement in American society*. 103-131, New York Academy press.
- Stone, McCown, K. 2005. Emotional Intelligence: The cornerstone for a positive change. Retrieved, July 10, 2006.
- Szkrybalo, J., & Ruble, D. N. 1999. "God made me a girl": Sex-category constancy judgments and explanations revisited. *Developmental Psychology*, 35, 393-402.
- Tagliavan, N.A., Tipton, D.J., Crianetti V.J. & Mattei T. 2006. An investigation of the correlation between pharmacy students' level of professionalism and emotional intelligence (EI), retrieved from www.allacademic.com
- Taipjutorus, Hansen & Brown. 2012. Investigating a Relationship between Learner Control and Self-Efficacy in an Online Learning Environment. *Journal of Open Flexible and Distance Learning*, 16 (1), 56-69.

- Tan, J. B., & Yates, S. M. 2007. A Rasch analysis of the Academic Self-Concept Questionnaire. *International Educational Journal*, 8(2), 470 - 484.
- Tapia, M. 1998. A study of the relationship of the emotional intelligence inventory. Unpublished PhD thesis . the University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa.
- Taylor, I., & Ntoumanis, N. 2007. Teacher motivational strategies and student self-determination in physical education. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99, 747–760.
- Tella, A. 2007 The Impact of Motivation on Student's Academic Achievement and Learning Outcomes in Mathematics among Secondary School Students in Nigeria. *Eurasia Journal of Mathematics, Science & Technology Education*, 2007, 3(2)
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. 2009. Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Thompson, D. R., Lachan, R., Overpeck, M., Ross, J. G., & Gross, L. A. 2006. School connectedness in the health behavior in school-aged children study: The role of student, school, and school neighborhood characteristics. *Journal of School Health*, 76(7), 379-386.
- Thorndike, E.L. 1920. Intelligence and its uses. *Harper's magazine* 140, 227-235.
- Toldson, I.A. 2008 Breaking Barriers: Plotting the Path to Academic Success for School-age African-American Males. Washington, D.C.: Congressional Black Caucus Foundation, Inc
- Tollefson, N., Tracy, D.B., Johnsen, E.P., Farmer, A.W. & Buenning, M. 1984. Goal setting and personal responsibility training for L.D. adolescents. *Psychology in the schools*, 21, 224-233.
- Trautwein, U., Ludtke, O., Koller, O., & Baumert, J. 2006. Self-esteem, academic self-concept, and achievement: How the learning environment moderates the dynamics of self-concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90, 334-349.
- Tubbs, M.E. 1993. Commitment a moderation of the goal performance relation. A case for clearer construct definition. *Journal of applied psychology*, 8, 171-182.
- Turgut 2013. Academic Self-Efficacy Beliefs of Undergraduate Mathematics Education Students, *Acta Didactica Napocensia*, Vol. 6, (1).
- Trusty, J. 2000. High educational expectation and low achievement. Stability of educational goals across adolescence. *Journal of Educational research*, 93, 356-366
- Tymms, P. 2001. A test of the big fish in a little pond hypothesis: An investigation into the feelings of seven-year-old pupils in school. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 12, 161-181.

- Ukueze A.C. 2007. Learner variable of academic performance and adjustment of Junior secondary students. *The counselor* 23 (2):172-183
- Unachukwu, G.C. & Nwankwo, C.A. 1991. An investigation into factors that influence the behaviours exhibited by undergraduates of Nnamdi Azikiwe University Akwa. (social science research) 1, (1), 104-120
- University Interscholastic League. 2012. About the UIL. Retrieved from <http://www.uiltexas.org/about>
- Van Ryzin, M. J., Gravely, A. A., & Roseth, C. J. 2009. Autonomy, belongingness, and engagement in school as contributors to adolescent psychological well-being. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 38(1), 1-12
- Vela, R. 2003. The role of emotional Intelligence in the academic achievement of first year college students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas A & M, University-Kingsville.
- Vanayan M, White N, Yuen P, Teper M 1997. Beliefs and attitudes towards mathematics among third-and fifth-grade students: A descriptive study. *School Science and Mathematics*, 97(7): 345-351
- VandeWalle, D., Brown, S. P., Cron, W. L., & Slocum, J. W. 1999. The influence of goal orientation and self-regulation tactics on sale performance: A longitudinal field test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 249-259.
- Vallerand, R. J. 1997. Toward a hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In M.P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 29, pp. 271–360). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Vallerand, R. J., Fortier, M. S., & Guay, F. 1997. Self-determination and persistence in a real-life setting: Toward a motivational model of high-school dropout. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72, 1161–1176.
- Vallerand, R. J., Pelletier, L.G. & Koester, R. 2008. Reflections on Self-Determination Theory. *Canadian Psychology*, 49 (3), 257-262.
- Vallerand, R.J., Pelletier, L., Blais, M.R., Briere, N.M., Senecal, C. & Vallieres, E.F. 1992. The Academic Motivation Scale: A Measure of Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and Amotivation in Education. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 52, 1003-1017.
- Vialle, W.J., Heaven, P.C.L., & Ciarrochi, J.V. 2005. The relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement in high ability students: Evidence from the Wollongog Youth Study. *Australasian Journal of Gifted Education*, 14(2), 39-45
- Vijayalaxmi, H. & Natesan, H. 1992. Factors influencing academic achievement. *Res High*, 2, 62

- Vonderacek, F.W., Lerner, R.M., & Schulenberg, J.E. 1986. Career development: A life span developmental approach. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlburn Associates.
- Walsh, F, 2002. A family resilience framework. *Innovative practice applications. Family relations*. 51, 130-137
- Walpole, M. 2003. Socio-economic status and college experiences and outcomes. *Review of higher education*. 27, 45-73
- Wang, M. C., Haertel, G. D., & Walberg, H. J. 1995. Educational resilience: An emergent construct. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.
- Wang, M. C., Haertel, G. D., & Walberg, H.J. 1994. Educational resilience in inner cities. In M.C. Wang & E.W. Gordon (Eds.), *Educational resilience in inner-city America: Challenges and prospects* (pp. 45-72). Hills dale, NJ : Erlbau m.
- Wang, M.Q., Mathew, R.F. . Bellany, N. & James, S. 2005. A structural model of substance use pathways among minority youth. *American journal of health behaviour*, 29, 531-541
- Watkins, T.J. 1997. Teacher communication, child achievement traits in parents involvement models. *Journal of educational research*. 91, (1) 3-14
- Waxman, H.C. and Huang, S.L. 1997. Classroom instruction and learning environment differences between effective and ineffective urban elementary schools for African American students. *Urban Education*, 32(1), 7-44.
- Wenglinsky, H. 1998. Finance equalization and within school equity. The relationship between education spending and the social distribution of achievement. *Educational evaluation and policy analysis*, (4); 269-283
- Wenglinsky, H. 2003. Finance equalization and within school equity. The relationship between education spending and the social distribution of achievement. *Education evaluation and policy analysis*. 20 (4) 269-283
- Wentzel, K.R. 1991. Relations between social competence and academic achievement in early adolescence. *Child development* 62, 1066-1078
- Wentzel, K.R. 2000. What is it that I'm trying to achieve? Classroom goals from a content perspective. *Contemporary educational psychology*, 25, 105-115
- Whitlock, J. L. 2006. Youth perceptions of life at school: Contextual correlates if school connectedness in adolescence. *Applied Developmental Science*, 10 (1), 13-29.
- Wigfield, A., Battle, A., Keller, L. B., & Eccles, J. S. 2001. Sex differences in motivation, self-concept, career aspiration and career choice: implications for cognitive development. In A. McGillicuddy-De Lisi, & R.

- Wigfield, A., Byrnes, J. & Eccles, J. 2006. Development during early and middle adolescence. In P. A. Alexander & P. H. Winne (Eds.), *Handbook of Educational Psychology* (2nd ed.) (pp. 87-113). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Wilgenbusch, T. & Merell, K.W. 1999. Gender differences in self-concept among children and adolescents. A meta-analysis of multi-dimensional studies. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 14 (2), 101-201
- Wilkinson, R. 1996. *Unhealthy Societies. The Afflictions of Inequality*, Routledge, London and New York.
- William James, 1981. *The Principles of Psychology* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.), pp. 185.
- Willms J.D. 2003. *Student Engagement at School: A Sense of Belonging and Participation. Results from PISA OECD*
- Wilson, D. 2004. The interface of school climate and school connectedness and relationships with aggression and victimization. *Journal of School Health*, 74(7), 293-299.
- Wilson, H. E., 2009. *A Model of Academic Self-Concept: Perceived Difficulty, Social Comparison, and Achievement Among Academically Accelerated Secondary School Students* University of Connecticut
- Winnie, P.H., Woodlands, M.H. & Wong B.Y.C. Self-concept and locus of control. A study of intermediate and secondary students with learning disabilities. University of British Columbia.
- Wolin, S.J., & Wolin, S, 1993. *The resilient child*. New York Villard books.
- Wong, C; Wong, P & Chau, S. 2001. Emotional Intelligence, Students' Attitude Towards Life and The Attainment of Education Goals: An Exploratory Study in Hong Kong.
- Worrel, F.C., Lotto, I.K., & Perlinski, M.A. 1999. The relationship of risk status to self-esteem perceived life chances. *The journal of At-Risk Issues*, 5(2), 33-38.
- New Horizons in Education- *the Journal of Education*, Hong Kong Teachers Association (HKTA, 44: 1--11.)
- World Bank/ UNICEF 1996. Senegal: Pilot female literacy project. Staff Appraisal Report. No. 15517-SE. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Yau, H.K. & Cheng, A.L.F. 2012. Student's age difference of confidence in using technology for learning in higher education. *Turkish online journal of Educational technology*, 11, (3), 308-311
- Yin, R. 1994, *Case Study Research Design and Methods*, 2nd edn, Sage Publications, London.

- Young, D. H. 2005. Connecting with adolescents in school. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Education.
- Youngblade, L., Theokas, C., Schulenberg, J., Curry, L., Huang, I. and Novak, M. 2007, "Risk and promotive factors in families, schools and communities: a contextual model of positive youth development in adolescence", *Pediatrics*, Vol. 119 No. 2, pp. 47-57.
- Zareh, H. 1994. The relationships between achievement of motivation, self-esteem and gender among high school of students. University of Tarbiyat Moalem, Tehran, Iran
- Zhang, Y., Gan, Y. & Cham, H. 2007. Perfectionism, academic burnout and engagement among chinese college students: A structural equation modelling Analysis. *Personality and Individual Difference*, 43, 1529-1540.
- Ziegler, A., Broome, P., Dresl, M. & Heller, K.A. 1996. Physikalisch-technische vorerfahrungen von madden, physic in der schile, 34, 163-164
- Zimmerman, B.J. 1989. A social cognitive view of self-regulated learning. *Journal of Educational psychology*, 81, 329-339
- Zimmerman, B.J, Bandura, A, & Martinez-Pons, M. 1992. Self-motivation for academic attainment. The role of self-efficacy beliefs and persona goal setting. *American educational research journal*, 29 (3) 663-676
- Zimmerman, B. 2000. Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 82-91.
- Zins, J.E., Weissberg, R.P., Wang, M.C., & Walberg, H.J. (Eds.). (2004). Building academic success on social and emotional learning: What does the research say? New York: Teachers College Press.

APPENDIXES
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING DEPARTMENT

Dear Student,

This questionnaire is designed to elicit information about the subject matter. You are implored to fill the questionnaire with sincerity and faithfulness. Your responses will be used for research purpose only and high level of confidentiality is guaranteed.

SECTION A

PERSONAL DATA

INSTRUCTION: please fill the gap below as applicable to you.

1. Name:
2. School:
3. Age:
4. level:
5. Department:
6. School status: public (), private ()
7. Sex: Male (), Female ()
8. Religion: Islam (), Christianity (), others ()

SECTION B

INSTRUCTION: Please tick (✓) in the appropriate column

NOTE: SA means Strongly Agree (4), A means Agree (3), D means Disagree (2), and SD means strongly disagree (1)

Academic Behavioural Confidence Scale by Sander, Arias, Stevenson & Jones (2011)

How confident are you that you will be able to:

| S/N | ITEMS | SD | D | U | A | SA |
|-----|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | Give a presentation to a small group of fellow | | | | | |
| 2 | Attend most taught sessions | | | | | |
| 3 | Attain good grades in your work | | | | | |
| 4 | Engage in profitable academic debate with your peers | | | | | |
| 5 | Ask lecturers questions about the material they are teaching, in a one-to-one setting | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 6 | Ask lecturers questions about the material they are teaching, during a lecture | | | | | |
| 7 | Understand the material outlined and discussed with you by lecturers | | | | | |
| 8 | Follow the themes and debates in lectures | | | | | |
| 9 | Read the recommended background material | | | | | |
| 10 | Produce coursework at the required standard | | | | | |
| 11 | Write in an appropriate academic style | | | | | |
| 12 | Ask for help if you don't understand | | | | | |
| 13 | Be on time for lectures | | | | | |
| 14 | Make the most of the opportunity of studying for a degree at university | | | | | |
| 15 | Pass assessments at the first attempt | | | | | |
| 16 | Plan appropriate revision schedules | | | | | |
| 17 | Remain adequately motivated throughout | | | | | |
| 18 | Produce your best work in coursework assignments | | | | | |
| 19 | Study effectively on your own in independent/private study | | | | | |
| 20 | Produce your best work under examination conditions | | | | | |
| 21 | Respond to questions asked by a lecturer in front of a full lecture theatre | | | | | |
| 22 | Manage your workload to meet coursework deadlines | | | | | |

Motivation Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

| S/N | ITEMS | SD | D | U | A | SA |
|-----|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | During class time I often miss important points because I'm | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|
| | thinking of other things | | | | |
| 2 | When reading for this course, I make up questions to help focus my reading | | | | |
| 3 | When I become confused about something I'm reading, I go back and try to figure it out. | | | | |
| 4 | If course materials are difficult to understand, I change the way I read the material. | | | | |
| 5 | Before I study new course material thoroughly, I often skim it to see how it is organized. | | | | |
| 6 | I ask myself questions to make sure I understand the material I have been studying in this class. | | | | |
| 7 | I try to change the way I study in order to fit the course requirements and instructor's teaching style. | | | | |
| 8 | I often find that I have been reading for class but don't know what it was all about. | | | | |
| 9 | I try to think through a topic and decide what I am supposed to learn from it rather than just reading it over when studying. | | | | |
| 10 | When studying for this course, I try to determine which concepts I don't understand well. | | | | |
| 11 | When I study for this class, I set goals for myself in order to direct my activities in each study period. | | | | |
| 12 | Taking notes in class, I make sure I sort it out afterwards. | | | | |
| 13 | Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now. | | | | |
| 14 | In a class like this, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things. | | | | |

GOAL SETTING BEHAVIOUR SCALE (GSBS)

| S/N | ITEMS | SA | A | D | SD |
|-----|--|----|---|---|----|
| 1. | It is important for me to do better than other students. | | | | |
| 2. | Fear of performing poorly in this class is often what | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|-----|---|--|--|--|--|
| | motivates me. | | | | |
| 3. | I always wish to learn as much as possible from the lessons in the class. | | | | |
| 4. | I like to learn as much as possible from the class. | | | | |
| 5. | My goal in this class is to avoid performing poorly. | | | | |
| 6. | It is important for me to do well compare to others in this class. | | | | |
| 7. | I worry that I may not learn all that I possibly could in the class. | | | | |
| 8. | I just want to avoid doing poorly in the class. | | | | |
| 9. | It is important for me to understand the content of the course as thoroughly as possible. | | | | |
| 10. | I am often concerned that I may not learn all that is to be learnt in the class. | | | | |
| 11. | I desire to completely master the material presented in the class. | | | | |
| 12. | Sometimes I'm afraid that I may not understand the content of this class as thoroughly as I would like. | | | | |
| 13. | My goal in the class is to get a better grade than most of the other students. | | | | |

Emotional Intelligence Scale

| S/N | ITEMS | SD | D | U | A | SA |
|-----|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | I know when to speak about my personal problems to others. | | | | | |
| 2 | When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame. | | | | | |
| 3 | I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people. | | | | | |
| 4 | I expect good things to happen. | | | | | |
| 5 | When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last. | | | | | |
| 6 | I arrange events others enjoy. | | | | | |
| 7 | I am aware of the non- verbal messages I send to others. | | | | | |
| 8 | I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 9 | By looking at the facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing | | | | | |
| 10 | I have control over my emotions. | | | | | |
| 11 | I easily recognize my emotion as I experienced them | | | | | |
| 12 | I motivate myself by imaging a good outcome to task I take on. | | | | | |
| 13 | I compliment others when they do something well. | | | | | |
| 14 | I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send. | | | | | |
| 15 | When another person tells me about an important event in his/her life I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself | | | | | |
| 16 | When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail | | | | | |
| 17 | I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them. | | | | | |
| 18 | I help other people feel better when they are down. | | | | | |
| 19 | I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacle. | | | | | |
| 20 | I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice. | | | | | |

Resilience Scale

| S/N | ITEMS | SD | D | U | A | SA |
|-----|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | I am able to depend on myself more than anyone else | | | | | |
| 2 | Keeping interested in things is important to me | | | | | |
| 3 | I feel proud that I have accomplished things in life | | | | | |
| 4 | I usually take things in stride | | | | | |
| 5 | I feel that I can handle many things at a time | | | | | |
| 6 | I take things one day at a time | | | | | |
| 7 | I can get through difficult times because I've experienced difficulty before | | | | | |
| 8 | I have self-discipline | | | | | |
| 9 | I bounce back and cope effectively in the face of difficulties | | | | | |
| 10 | I bend, but not break under extreme stress | | | | | |
| 11 | I maintain equilibrium following highly aversive events | | | | | |
| 12 | My belief in myself gets me through hard times | | | | | |
| 13 | In an emergency I'm someone people can generally rely on | | | | | |
| 14 | I can usually look at a situation in a number of ways | | | | | |
| 15 | Sometimes I make myself do things whether I want or not | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 16 | My life has meaning | | | | | |
| 17 | I do not dwell on things that I can't do anything about | | | | | |
| 18 | When I'm in a difficult situation, I can always find my way out of it | | | | | |

SECTION D: Parent Socio-Economic Status (PSES)

Part 1

- How many cars do your parents have? 1-(), 2-(), 3-() 4 and above ()
Bicycles.....
- Parents' occupation put tick () in appropriate

| | A | B | C | D | E |
|-----------------|--|---|-----------------------|--|---------------------|
| | Professional e.g Law, Engineering Medicine Senior Civil Servant Professors Lecturer Graduate Teacher Senior Army Officer Bishop Priest | Clerk Office Worker Non- graduate Nurse Police Soldier Religious Workers | Trader Businessman | Craftsman Artisan Drive Messenger | Farmer Fisherman |
| Father | | | | | |
| Mother | | | | | |
| Guardian | | | | | |

- Educational level of parents (put) in the appropriate box.

| S/N | ITEMS | Father | Mother | Guardians |
|------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|------------------|
| A | No schooling | | | |

| | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|
| B | Elementary school | | | |
| C | Secondary school teacher training | | | |
| D | Professional training-clergy, trade school | | | |
| E | Higher than, and but not university graduate | | | |
| F | Above first degree | | | |

1. Parents' Residence (put x in appropriate place)

| Parents | Own House | Company government/university quarter | Rented House |
|------------------|-----------|---------------------------------------|--------------|
| Father | | | |
| Mother | | | |
| guardians | | | |

- Put an x in appropriate place. If in rented house state whether it is (a) A flat (), (b) Two rooms (), (c) One room ()
- Do your parents have the following? Put x in appropriate space Radio (), Stereo set () A T.V. set (), Refrigerator (), Gas/Electric cooker (), Freezer (), Video ()
- Do your parents have the following? Put x in appropriate space: Executive (), Cushion Wooden furniture (), Iron Chair ()
- Do you parents have the following? Put x in appropriate space. Library () Book shelves () Periodicals () Newspapers () Nothing related to books ()

Liu and Wang's Academic Self-Concept Scale

| S/N | ITEMS | SD | D | U | A | SA |
|-----|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | I can follow the lectures easily. | | | | | |
| 2 | I day-dream a lot in lectures | | | | | |
| 3 | I am able to help my course mates in their school work. | | | | | |
| 4 | I often do my course work without thinking. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 5 | If I work hard, I think I can get better grades. | | | | | |
| 6 | I pay attention to the lecturers during lectures | | | | | |
| 7 | Most of my course mates are smarter than I am. | | | | | |
| 8 | I study hard for my tests | | | | | |
| 9 | My lecturers feel that I am poor in my studies. | | | | | |
| 10 | I am usually interested in my course work. | | | | | |
| 11 | I often forget what I have learned | | | | | |
| 12 | I will do my best to pass all the courses this semester. | | | | | |
| 13 | I get frightened when I am asked a question by the lecturers | | | | | |
| 14 | I often feel like quitting the degree course. | | | | | |
| 15 | I am good in most of my courses. | | | | | |
| 16 | I am always waiting for the lecture to end and go home | | | | | |
| 17 | I always do poorly in course works and tests. | | | | | |
| 18 | I do not give up easily when I am faced with a difficult question in my course work. | | | | | |
| 19 | I am able to do better than my friends in most courses. | | | | | |
| 20 | I am not willing to put in more effort in my course work | | | | | |

SCHOOL CONNECTEDNESS SCALE

| S/N | ITEMS | SD | D | U | A | SA |
|-----|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1 | My lecturers make me feel I am part of the school | | | | | |
| 2 | I feel my friends care about me | | | | | |
| 3 | My lecturers are approachable | | | | | |
| 4 | Management provides safe environment for learning | | | | | |
| 5 | I feel comfortable sharing my problems and thoughts with my lecturer | | | | | |
| 6 | I am happy with my school management | | | | | |
| 7 | My lecturers carefully guide me through learning | | | | | |
| 8 | My lecturers listen to my problems | | | | | |
| 9 | I participate in classroom activities | | | | | |
| 10 | I feel my friends care about me | | | | | |

APPENDIX

COURSES OFFERED IN FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE ABEOKUTA

1. Agricultural Economics and Farm Management,
2. Agricultural Extension and Rural Development,
3. Animal Nutrition,
4. Animal Physiology,
5. Animal Production and Health,
6. Aquaculture and Fisheries Management,
7. Animal Breeding and Genetics,
8. Agricultural Administration,
9. Crop Protection,
10. Environmental Management and Toxicology,
11. Forestry and Wildlife Management,
12. Horticulture,
13. Pasture and Range Management,
14. Plant Breeding and Seed Technology,
15. Plant Physiology and Crop Production,
16. Soil Science and Land Management,
17. Water Resources Management and Agro-meteorology
18. Biochemistry
19. Biology
20. Chemistry
21. Microbiology
22. Computer Science
23. Mathematics
24. Statistics
25. Physics
26. Food Science and Technology
27. Home Science and Management
28. Hospitality and Tourism
29. Nutrition and Dietetics
30. Agricultural Engineering
31. Electrical and Electronics Engineering
32. Mechanical Engineering
33. Mechatronic Engineering
34. Veterinary Medicine
35. Accounting
36. Business Administration
37. Banking and Finance
38. Entrepreneurial Studies

FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY AKURE

| SERIAL NUMBER | SCHOOL | DEPARTMENT |
|---------------|--|--|
| 1 | School of Agriculture and Agricultural engineering | <p>Department of Agricultural extension and communication technology</p> <p>Department of Agriculture and Resource economic</p> <p>Department of Animal production and health, crop, soil and pest management</p> <p>Department of Fisheries and Aquaculture technology</p> <p>Department of Ecotourism and Wildlife management</p> <p>Department of Forestry and Wood technology</p> <p>Department of Food science and technology</p> |
| 2 | School of Engineering and engineering technology | <p>Department of Agricultural engineering</p> <p>Department of Civil engineering</p> <p>Department of Electrical engineering</p> <p>Department of Mining engineering</p> |
| 3 | School of earth and mineral engineering | Department of Applied geophysics |

| | | |
|---|------------------------------------|---|
| | | <p>Department of Applied geology</p> <p>Department of Metereology</p> <p>Department of Marine Science and technology</p> <p>Department of Remote sensing and geoscience information systems</p> |
| 4 | School of Environmental technology | <p>Department of Architecture</p> <p>Department of Building technology</p> <p>Department of Estate management</p> <p>Department of Industrial design</p> <p>Department of Quantity surveying</p> <p>Department of Urban and regional planning</p> |

| | | |
|---|---------------------------------|--|
| 5 | School of management technology | <p>Department of project management technology</p> <p>Department of Transport management technology</p> <p>Department of Library management technology</p> <p>Department of Entrepreneurship management technology</p> |
| 6 | School of science | <p>Department of Biochemistry</p> <p>Department of Biology</p> <p>Department of Chemistry</p> <p>Department of Computer science</p> <p>Department of General studies</p> <p>Department of Mathematics</p> <p>Department of Microbiology</p> <p>Department of Physics</p> <p>Department of Statistics</p> |

FACULTIES IN OBAFEMI AWOLowo UNIVERSITY ILE-IFE

1. Faculty of Administration
2. Faculty of Agriculture
3. Faculty of Arts
4. Faculty of Education
5. Faculty of Environmental design and management
6. Faculty of Basic Medical Science
7. Faculty of clinical sciences
8. Faculty of Dentistry
9. Faculty of Law
10. Faculty of pharmacy
11. Faculty of Sciences
12. Faculty of Technology
13. Faculty of Social Sciences

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

| FACULTY | DEPARTMENT |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry | Department of Animal science Department of Agriculture Department of Agronomy Department of Forest Resources Management |
| Faculty of Arts | Department of Music Department of Religious studies Department of Arabic and Islamic Studies Department of Communication and Language Arts Department of European studies Department of History Department of Theatre Arts Department of Philosophy |
| College of Medicine | Department of Human nutrition Department of Obstetric and Gynaecology Department of Ophthalmology Department of Paediatrics Department of Physiotherapy Department of Radiotherapy Department of Surgery Department of Biochemistry Department of epidemiology, Medical statistics and Environmental health Department of Health policy and |

| | |
|----------------------|--|
| | <p>Management, health promotion and education</p> <p>Department of Medicine</p> <p>Institute of advanced medical record and training</p> <p>Department of Physiology</p> <p>Department of Preventive Medicine and care</p> <p>Department of Psychiatry</p> |
| Faculty of Education | <p>Department of Teacher education</p> <p>Department of Adult education</p> <p>Department of Counseling and Human development studies</p> <p>Department of Human kinetics and Health education</p> |
| Faculty of Pharmacy | <p>Department of Pharmaceutics and Industrial pharmacy</p> |
| Faculty of Science | <p>Department of mathematics</p> <p>Department of Physics</p> <p>Department of Statistics</p> <p>Department of Botany</p> <p>Department of Geology</p> <p>Department of Microbiology</p> <p>Department of Zoology</p> |

| | |
|---|---|
| Faculty of social science | Department of Psychology Department of Economics Department of Geography Department of Sociology |
| Faculty of Technology | Department of Electrical and Electronic engineering Department Mechanical engineering Department of Industrial and production engineering Department of Civil engineering Department of Petroleum engineering |
| Faculty of Veterinary Medicine | Department of Veterinary physiology Department of Biochemistry Department of Pharmacology |
| Faculty of African Centre for information science | |