INTERPLAY BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE, EDUCATIONAL ADJUSTMENT AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT: AN INVESTIGATION OF RURAL TRIBAL STUDENTS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, JADAVPUR UNIVERSITY FOR THE PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ARTS (EDUCATION)

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Certified that the thesis entitled **"Interplay between Parenting Style, Educational Adjustment and Academic Achievement: An Investigation of Rural Tribal Students"**, submitted by me for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Arts (Education) at Jadavpur University, is based upon my work carried out under the supervision of Dr. Lalit Lalitav Mohakud, Assistant Professor, Department of Education, Jadavpur University, and that neither this thesis nor any part of it has been submitted before for any degree or diploma anywhere/elsewhere.

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Abbreviations Used

AA	: Academic Adjustment
ANCOVA	: Analysis of Co-variance
ANOVA	: Analysis of Variance
df	: Degrees of Freedom
EA	: Educational Adjustment
EWS	: Economically Weaker Section
HS	: Higher Secondary
IRB	: Institutional Review Board
Ku	: Kurtosis
LSD	: Least Significant Difference
M	: Mean
MANOVA	: Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MD	: Mean Deviation
MS	: Micro-Soft
N	: Number
OBC	: Other Backward Classes
PI	: Parental Involvement
PS	: Parenting Style
PSu	: Parental Supervision
RAC	: Research Advisory Committee
SC	: Scheduled Caste
SCT	: Social Cognitive Theory
SD	: Standard Deviation

Sk	: Skewness
SPSS	: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRL	: Self-Regulated Learning
ST	: Scheduled Tribe
Std	: Standard
t	: t-test
WB	: West Bengal
WBBSE	: West Bengal Board of Secondary Education
WBCHSE	: West Bengal Council of Higher Secondary Education

PREFACE

This thesis has been submitted to Jadavpur University in pursuit of a doctorate in philosophy. Presenting this research gives me a great deal of pleasure. I've included everything relevant and essential to know about the study in this one. I have tried to make this project appealing and simple to grasp. This study intends to measure the effects of various socio-demographic variables on parenting style (PS), educational adjustment (EA), and academic achievement (AA) of rural scheduled tribal students at higher secondary (HS) levels in West Bengal (WB), India. It also explored the combined effects and productiveness of PS and EA on AA of rural STSs. The entire thesis has six chapters (Chapters I to VI). Chapter I, entitled 'Context of the Study,' presents the theoretical and conceptual background of the study. Chapter- II, entitled 'Review of Related Literature,' analyzed a wide range of relevant literature exploring the research trends. Chapter III, entitled 'Problem Statement,' includes the rationale behind the study, knowledge gaps, problem statement, operational definition of the significant terms used, research questions, objectives, hypotheses, and study delimitations. Chapter IV, entitled 'Methodology of the Study,' includes the research method, population, sample, sampling techniques, significant variables, data collection and analysis procedures, tools, techniques, etc., adopted for the study. Chapter V, entitled 'Analysis and Interpretation of Data,' presents the results and their interpretations. Finally, Chapter VI, entitled 'Major Findings and Conclusions,' presents the significant findings and their discussion, educational implications, limitations, and suggestions for further studies. To properly visualise data and illustrate theories and concepts, I have attempted to go into great length on each issue and have included the pertinent figures and diagrams. Additionally, I've provided topic-related diagrams.

Under the supervision of Dr. Lalit Lalitav Mohakud, Assistant Professor in the Department of Education at Jadavpur University, I completed this project on schedule and with the moral support of a mentor. He also gave me some advice on how to approach the subject of this work. I discovered a lot of fascinating new information while conducting this study. I will benefit from this study. I consulted books and other important resources to provide all of the material in this study project.

Sankar Sing

(Research scholar)

ABSTRACT

The study aims to: 1) assess parental involvement (PI), parental supervision (PSu), and parenting styles (PSs) among rural tribal high school (HS) students in West Bengal (WB), comparing them across demographics such as gender, type of family, subcaste, parental education (paternal and maternal both), and family monthly income; 2) examine the extent and level of educational adjustment (EA) and academic achievement (AA) among these students and influence of demographics on them; 3) scrutinize the interplay between PSs, EA, and AA, including investigating the influence of PSs on EA and AA, assessing the association PI, PSu, EA, and AA, combined effects of PI, PSu on EA and AA, effect of EA on AA, and the combined impact of PI, PSu, EA on explaining the variance in AA, among rural tribal HS students in WB. Accordingly, hypotheses were formulated.

A cross-sectional survey was conducted among 623 rural tribal students who attend HS schools in the Jhargram district, West Bengal, India. Data were randomly collected from sixteen HS schools from the eight community development Blocks in the Jhargram district. Data were collected by administering a personal information sheet, the 'Adjustment Inventory' developed by Sinha and Singh (2013), and the 'Parenting Style Scale' by Lamborn et al. (1991). Analysis was conducted using parametric statistical techniques such as Pearson correlation, t-test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and regression analysis through SPSS.

Results revealed that most rural tribal students' parents exhibited low levels of PI and PSu and preferred authoritative and neglectful PS. The study reveals variation in PI and PSu among rural tribal students based on gender, sub-caste, paternal and maternal education, while family type shows no significant impact. However, regarding family monthly income, PSu differs significantly not the PI. Demographics such as gender, sub-caste, and parental education significantly influence PSs among rural tribal students. However, family type and monthly income do not impact substantially PSs. The study also reveals that most ST students showed an average to a high level of EA, which is significantly influenced by students' gender, parental educational qualifications, and monthly family income, not by family type and sub-caste among rural tribal students. Concerning AA, most rural tribal students demonstrated marginal to reasonable levels of Academic Achievement (AA), with only a minority achieving very good to excellent levels. Demographic factors such as gender and family type do not significantly influence AA. Still, variations exist based on sub-caste, parental education, and family

monthly income among ST students in West Bengal. PS notably influences EA but not AA among rural tribal students at the high school level. Concerning the association between PSs (PI and PSu,) EA, and AA among rural tribal students, the results showed a highly positive and significant relationship between PI and PSu and a moderately positive and significant relationship between PI and EA. Additionally, a significantly low positive relationship exists between PSu and AA, but that is insignificant between PI and AA. EA also shows a low positive but significant association with AA among rural tribal students. Furthermore, PI and PSu collectively play a significant role in predicting EA among rural tribal students, with PI being the most potential predictor. Still, they do not have a significant combined effect on AA. EA alone predicts a lower portion of the variations in AA. In contrast, the combined impact of PI and EA significantly predicts variation in AA, with EA being the most potential predictor, excluding PSu.

CHAPTER-I

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER-I
CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.1.0 Introduction

India, a pluralist nation, showcases a rich tapestry of diversity in its myriad cultures, religions, languages, and racial backgrounds (Gautam, 2013). The direct correlation between a nation's progress and the accessibility to educational opportunities is evident. Despite dedicated efforts post-independence to ensure education for all, extending these benefits to tribal communities has remained a formidable challenge. Education is universally recognized as the bridge that enables tribal populations to connect harmoniously with the larger Indian society (Daripa, 2017). With around 104.28 million, or 8.6% of the nation's total population, India has the highest tribal population in the world, with 93.82 million living in rural areas and 10.462 in urban areas. These tribes comprise 11.3% of the rural regions and 2.8% of urban areas. There are roughly 550 tribes (The Census 2011, Office of the Registrar General, India). These indigenous communities, while not necessarily the original inhabitants, are among the land's earliest settlers (Ottaplackal & Anbu, 2022). The plight of tribals as the most marginalized and deprived groups in education is acknowledged, prompting numerous programs and initiatives since India's Independence, with education being hailed as an essential catalyst for the holistic development of tribal communities (Patel, 2014). Efforts to provide education to India's tribal communities, primarily rural tribal, remain a critical yet ongoing challenge. Even while there has been improvement, there are still big disparities in providing remote tribal pupils with an equal and high-quality education. Designing effective treatments requires understanding the complex web of variables influencing educational outcomes, such as achievement, performance, and adjustment. In rural tribal communities, students' capacity to adjust to the formal educational system and attain academic achievement is shaped by specific socio-cultural, economic, and familial circumstances. However, parenting practices and styles are pivotal in shaping their educational adjustment and academic success, with rural tribal students being no exception. Understanding how these factors interrelate is critical to unlocking the path toward improved educational adjustment and academic achievement within these communities. Therefore, delving into the parenting styles, educational adjustments, and

academic achievements of rural tribal students holds immense value and significance in today's context.

This chapter offers a comprehensive overview of tribal communities in India, specifically in West Bengal. It delves into the significance, conceptual frameworks, influential factors, and theoretical underpinnings of parenting styles, educational adjustment, and academic achievement among rural tribal students, exploring the intricate interplay between these elements.

1.1.1 Tribal Communities in India and West Bengal: An Overview

India is a mosaic of diverse indigenous communities (Mukherjee, 2009), boasting 705 distinct tribal groups that showcase remarkable variations in culture, tradition, and ways of life (Sujatha, 2002). Regrettably, these communities, known as "*Adivasis*," grapple with extreme poverty and exploitation, relying on hunting, agriculture, and fishing for sustenance. Tribal typically refers to a social group comprising individuals who share common ancestry, culture, traditions, and language and often reside in a particular geographic area. According to Sujatha (2002), tribals are social groups with common ancestor, culture, language, and land. They have their political organisation, preserve mutual duties, and uphold particular marriage and occupation practices. Usually, indigenous, tribal people live in isolated, difficult-to-reach hilly or forested areas, retaining a unique culture that separates them from the general public (Sing et al., 2023). Tribes, diverse in characteristics, lifestyles, and historical backgrounds, maintain distinct identities within more prominent societies, fostering an endogamous social structure despite residing nearby (Patel, 2014).

Approximately 574 distinct tribal communities with languages different from those spoken by the majority in their states are granted special status by the Indian Constitution. The President has publicly notified these communities that they are recognized as Scheduled Tribes (ST) under Article 342, as detailed in Article 366(25) (Malyadri, 2012; Singh et al., 2023; Gautam, 2013). Despite comprising approximately 8.6% of India's population (Census of India, 2011), STs are often marginalized (Sing et al., 2023). Scheduled Tribes (STs) in India have diverse cultures, languages, and economic pursuits within diverse ecological landscapes. They have been viewed as living in primitive conditions since the 16th century (Xaxa, 2005), and their unique characteristics have drawn attention from policymakers due to their geographic isolation

and historical perceptions. Their geographic seclusion makes them vulnerable to social injustices and economic exploitation (Gautam, 2013). Affirmative action policies have been implemented to safeguard and advance these communities (Mukherjee, 2009). Scheduled Tribes are protected, and their advancement is supported by several constitutional provisions (e.g., 15(4), 16(4), 19(4), 19(5), 23, 29, 46, 164, 275(1), 330, 332, 334, 335, 338, 342, fifth and sixth schedules) (Bisht, 2006). These initiatives show a dedication to acknowledging and protecting the unique identities of marginalised indigenous cultures.

Important tribes like the Gonds, Santals, Khasis, and Bhils are among the various tribal populations of India; their distinct languages, cultures, and ways of life add to the country's 574 tribes (Mukherjee, 2009). Many Indian states are home to Scheduled Tribes; they are concentrated in central hilly regions like Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, and Odisha, as well as along the Himalayas from Jammu and Kashmir to the northeast (Gautam, 2013). Their presence may be seen throughout India's diverse geography since they live in states like Jharkhand, West Bengal, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Gujarat, Rajasthan, and numerous union territories. However, based on the Census of India Report 2011, the percentage of the ST population across the county is presented through the following Map in Figure 1.1 for an overview.

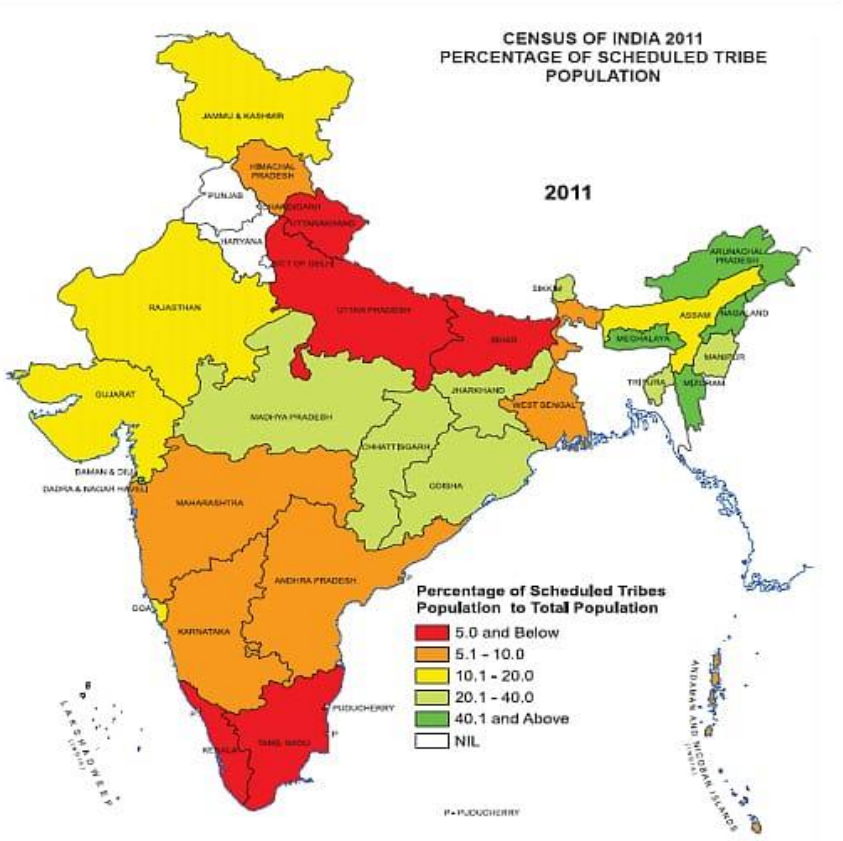

Figure 1.1 Percentage of ST Population in India, Census of India 2011

The tribal communities of West Bengal (WB), such as Santals, Mundas, Oraons, Bhutias, and Lepchas, have distinct social structures, dialects, and customs shaped by historical interactions and regional influences (Satpati & Sharma, 2023; Ruidas et al.,2023). These communities have traditionally engaged in subsistence farming, hunting, and gathering, maintaining their unique cultural identities (Kanjilal, 2023). It is concentrated in the western and southwestern parts of the state, especially bordering Jharkhand and Odisha, with significant populations in mountainous regions of North Bengal after migrating from Tibet and Bhutan (Chakraborty & Basak, 2023). Despite challenges like marginalization and resource scarcity, these tribes contribute to WB's cultural diversity through traditional economic activities like agriculture, horticulture, and handicrafts, particularly in districts like Purulia, Bankura, and West Midnapore, as well as parts of Birbhum, Jalpaiguri, Darjeeling, and Alipurduar (Shaw et al.,2023). Their enduring presence underscores their vital role in shaping the socio-cultural fabric of the state. In WB, the ST population was 5.8%, including 7.8% in rural and 1.5% in urban areas (Census of India, 2011; Sing et al., 2023). There are various sub-castes of Scheduled Tribes in West Bengal, a list of which is given below:

List of Scheduled Tribes in West Bengal

1. Asur	2. Garo	3. Korwa	4. Munda
5. Baiga	6. Gond	7. Lepcha	8. Nagesia
9. Bedia, Bediya	10. Gorait	11. Lodha, Kheria, Kharia	12. Oraon
13. Bhumij	14. Hajang	15. Lohara, Lohra	16. Parhaiya
17. Bhutia, Sherpa, Toto, Dukpa, Kagatay, Tibetan, Yolmo	18. Ho	19. Magh	20. Rabha
21. Birhor	22. Karmali	23. Mahali	24. Santal
25. Birjia	26. Kharwar	27. Mahli	28. Sauria Paharia
29. Chakma	30. Khond	31. Mal Pahariya	32. Savar
33. Chero	34. Kisan	35. Mech	36. Limbu
37. Chik Baraik	38. Kora	39. Mru	40. Tamang

Source: Backward Classes Welfare Department, Government of WB **(https://anagrasarkalyan.gov.in/Bcw/ex_page/8)**

1.1.2 Education of Rural Tribal Students

As evidenced by their low rates of literacy and high school dropout, STs suffer severe educational marginalisation as a result of their lack of infrastructure and remote, hilly, and forested living conditions (Mukherjee, 2009). Since the Fifth Five-Year Plan, Tribal sub-plans have strongly emphasized education since they understand its importance to the community's overall development (Patel, 2014). The establishment of primary schools in rural tribal areas, the creation of curricula in tribal languages initially before switching to regional languages, and the encouragement of native representation in teaching positions were all prioritized in the 1986 National Policy on Education. In rural tribal areas, it promoted Ashram Schools and Residential Schools and suggested specially designed incentive programs to meet the distinct educational requirements of Scheduled Tribes (Government of India, 1986). These programs seek to provide accessible, culturally appropriate education to marginalised tribal populations, empowering them.

Education is a fundamental pillar for the comprehensive development and integration of tribal students, nurturing their well-being and preserving cultural heritage (Malyadri, 2012). However, despite India's 75 years of independence, tribal education remains unsatisfactory, with Census 2011 data showing stark literacy rate disparities. Especially tribal students in rural areas of India face various educational challenges. Studies highlight issues such as gender discrimination, lack of modern facilities like language labs, and economic hardships affecting access to education (Hdyitulah & Aman, 2023; Ganai, 2022). Among ST, the overall literacy rate was 58.96% (67.7% for males and 51.9% for females), contrasting with the general population's higher rate of 74.04% overall (82.14% for males and 65.46% for females) (Pattamajhi & Patra, 2023; Panda et al., 2023). In WB, where the overall literacy rate is 77.08%, tribal literacy lags at 57.92%, highlighting the urgent need for improved educational opportunities and government intervention to address disparities among tribal communities (Chakraborty, 2019).

Table No. 1.0: Percentage of Literacy Rates Between all over India and WB among the ST (Census, 2011)

	Overall Literacy Rates	**Male**	**Female**	**Tribal Literacy Rates**	**Male**	**Female**
India	74.04	82.14	65.46	58.96	68.53	49.35
West Bengal	76.3	81.7	70.5	57.92	68.16	47.71

Source: *Census of India 2011, Registrar General of India*

Despite a higher Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) of 109.6 for elementary education among Scheduled Tribe (S.T.) children compared to the overall GER of 100.5, dropout rates remain alarmingly high at 63.4% for S.T.s, significantly higher than the 43.0% average across all categories. The Gender Parity Index at the elementary level for S.T.s stands at 0.91, indicating persistent challenges in achieving educational equity. Scheduled Tribe children comprise only about 6% of the total secondary/senior secondary student population and a mere 4.3% at higher education levels, as reported in the All-India Survey on Higher Education (2010-11). This data underscores the urgent need for targeted efforts to bridge the educational gap and address gender disparities within the ST community through various initiatives and tailored educational strategies (Nath, 2022; Saranya et al., 2023; Raziq & Popat, 2022). Through education, tribal students can

confidently assimilate into civilization, preserve their indigenous identity, and connect traditional knowledge with contemporary achievements. It creates doors to better opportunities, better lives, and more involvement in society. Investing in tribal education guarantees a more robust and inclusive future, allowing for significant contributions to the advancement of civilization.

1.1.3. Parenting Styles (PSs), Educational Adjustment (EA), and Academic Achievement (AA): Key Drivers of Educational Well-being among Rural Tribal Students

Understanding tribal students' educational journey requires examining the interplay of socio-economic background, cultural heritage, resource access, and community support, as these factors significantly impact their academic success and overall development. Various factors influence the education of rural tribal students, such as economic hardships, early marriages, a lack of role models, unsafe environments, and societal perceptions (Hdyitulah & Aman, 2023). According to Akhtar (2001), rural tribal communities have unique socio-cultural factors, customs, rituals, food habits, language, and parenting styles (PSs) compared to others (Sing et al., 2023). They face challenges like lack of public transport, poor infrastructure, financial limitations, cultural alienation, gender discrimination, feminine socialization, linguistic challenges, cultural disparities, lack of knowledge and cultural competency which hinder their education and lead to fluctuating food consumption patterns and health issues and higher dropout rates and educational obstacles (Awang et al., 2021; Emayavaramban et al., 2020; De, 2017; Nayak & Kumar, 2022; Sumitha & Prasadh, 2022; Hdyitulah & Aman, 2023). The marginalization of tribal education in policy planning, inadequate access, unsuitable educational programs, and governance issues further exacerbate the educational disparity for Scheduled Tribes (Panda & Ojha, 2021).

To comprehensively analyze the educational and well-being outcomes among tribal students, it is crucial to focus on three key social and psychological factors: parenting styles (PSs), educational adjustment (EA), and academic achievement (AA). These factors are intertwined and profoundly affect the academic progress, psychological adjustment, and socio-emotional well-being of tribal students within rural educational settings (Gangele, 2019; Sumitha & Prasadh, 2022; Nayak & Kumar, 2022). For example, among tribal students, parental attachment types predict AA and social

adjustment (Das, 2022). High dropout rates are caused by issues including poor school adjustment brought on by situations that are culturally and racially diverse (Mukherjee et al., 2016). Their entire development and AA of living in rural places are significantly impacted by the educational, emotional, and social components of school transition (Syahmansouri & Yuldashf, 2021). Studies highlight the beneficial effects of a supportive family environment on the educational achievements of students (Shelly, 2017); nevertheless, AA may result from a cultural mismatch between the home and school (Mandal, 2020). For tribal students to succeed, AA is essential, influenced by family participation, teacher quality, resources, socio-economic status, and EA (Shimelis et al., 2023; Cheben et al., 2022). In order to solve the difficulties rural tribal students, encounter in attaining AA, these variables must be understood. Understanding these factors' impact can lead to customized interventions and support systems for their educational well-being.

1.2.0. Significance and Concept of Parenting Styles (PSs)

A child's social, psychological, and emotional development is greatly aided by their parents (Kaur, 2019). Biological or adoptive, they are the primary carers in charge of a child's survival, development, and social integration on all levels—physical, emotional, intellectual, and moral (Bornstein, 2005). How parents raise their children significantly affects how well their children grow cognitively (Lanjekar et al., 2022). The approach and methods caregivers use to raise and nurture children are parenting styles, which include the degree of warmth, responsiveness, control, and expectations toward their children. Children raised by authoritative parents receive greater support, which fosters deeper connections and better cognitive outcomes (Bretherton, 1985; Mattanah, 2005; Sommer, 2007; Pratt et al., 1988; Estrada et al., 1987), but children raised in an authoritarian manner typically perform worse cognitively (Steinberg et al., 1994; Sommer, 2007). Parental participation, involvement, and approach significantly impact academic performance, success, mood, psychological development, and creativity (Radhika & Joseph, 2013; Kunjachan & Abraham, 2020; Obiunu, 2018). According to Mehrinejad et al. (2015), children's creativity was found to be positively benefited by authoritative parenting, but authoritarian parenting had the opposite effect. PSs also play a crucial role in social and emotional development. Warm, supportive parental relationships contribute to a child's social competence and pro-social behavior (Kaur &

Ahmad, 2020). Children with positive parental relationships grow emotionally stable, robust, and secure (Kaur, 2019). While authoritarian parenting emphasises rigid rules, coercion, threats, and penalties, authoritative parenting fosters understanding, logic, and trust (Mensah & Kuranchie, 2013; Mohanan & George, 2022). Zhang (2012) discovered that authoritative parenting practices positively impact the development of extroverted personalities, underscoring the significance of family parenting approaches.

The term ‘parenting,’ rooted in the Latin word ‘patio,’ meaning life-giver, encapsulates the unique bond between young children and the devoted adults consistently present in their lives (Sharabany et al., 2006). It involves an unwavering commitment to guiding, nurturing, and fostering a child’s well-being. Parenthood demands continual attention, responsibility, and intentional actions to encourage a child’s growth and shape their future outcomes (Karraker & Coleman, 2005). Parenting encompasses a rich tapestry of beliefs, attitudes, values, and behaviors, which are vital in shaping children’s development (Wise & Da Silva, 2007). The concept of PS is central to understanding these variations, elucidating how parents seek to guide and integrate their children into society. According to Baumrind (1991), PS encapsulates the emotional environment children are raised in, while Darling and Steinberg (1993) emphasize the visible actions parents take to socialize their children. This intricate role significantly influences a child’s self-perception, self-esteem, mental health, and peer relationships (Furnham & Cheng, 2000). Creating a loving, caring home environment is a cornerstone of parenting, fostering positive psychosocial development (Mishra et al., 2013). So, parenting, comprising emotional climate, visible behaviors, and strategic approaches, aims to nurture a child’s welfare, supporting their growth from infancy to adulthood. It extends beyond love and care to influence family dynamics, profoundly impacting a child’s self-worth, mental health, peer interactions, social skills, academic success, and overall well-being.

In 1966, Baumrind highlighted some critical aspects of good parenting: responsiveness versus unresponsiveness and demandingness versus demandingness. Three main styles emerged from these: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Later, in 1983, Maccoby and Martin added to these ideas, creating four categories: authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful, by refining the concepts of being demanding and responsive.

1. **Authoritarian PS:** Authoritarian parents focus on setting firm boundaries and expecting mature behaviour without much open dialogue or explanation. They may also be unresponsive to their children's needs yet maintain firm control and discipline (Baumrind, 1991; Sigelman & Rider, 2014). They frequently have irrational expectations and prefer to deal with problems by punishing others rather than having a conversation, giving clear instructions, and thoroughly monitoring compliance.

2. **Authoritative PS:** Setting clear standards and offering explanations, authoritative parent guide their children with warmth and firmness, striking a balance between high expectations and understanding (Baumrind, 1991; Sigelman & Rider, 2014). They put reasoning ahead of physical punishment, strive for maturity, and justify disciplinary measures when needed (Hajiyar & Rezaei, 2014). These parents avoid using punishment for mistakes, appreciate small victories, and build strong relationships.

3. **Permissive PS:** A gentle approach and a few unevenly enforced restrictions are hallmarks of permissive parenting (Baumrind, 1991). According to Darling (1999), indulgent or permissive parenting places a higher value on meeting children's needs than setting firm limits and exercising control. This results in a child-centered lifestyle that emphasizes acceptance and caring. Adolescent impulsivity and misbehavior are caused by permissive parents, who show affection but place little boundaries on their children (Sigelman & Rider, 2014). They warmly acknowledge their kids, are responsive and friendly, set low standards, and concentrate on granting their requests (Klein & Ballantine, 2001).

4. **Neglectful or Uninvolved Parenting Style:** Neglectful Parenting embodies a lack of parental concern, reflecting low responsiveness and demandingness (Baumrind, 1991), with parents showing profound indifference to their children's accomplishments or setbacks (Darling, 1999). Neglectful parenting is marked by emotional detachment, insensitivity to children's behaviors, and lacking guidance. Communication is deficient, leaving children to navigate life independently (Koerner & Maki, 2004), leading to feelings of rejection, loneliness, and diminished self-confidence (Coplan et al., 2004).

1.2.1 Factors Influencing Parenting Styles

Various factors influence parenting styles, including parental, child, and contextual factors. These three factors shape the adoption and effectiveness of different parenting styles.

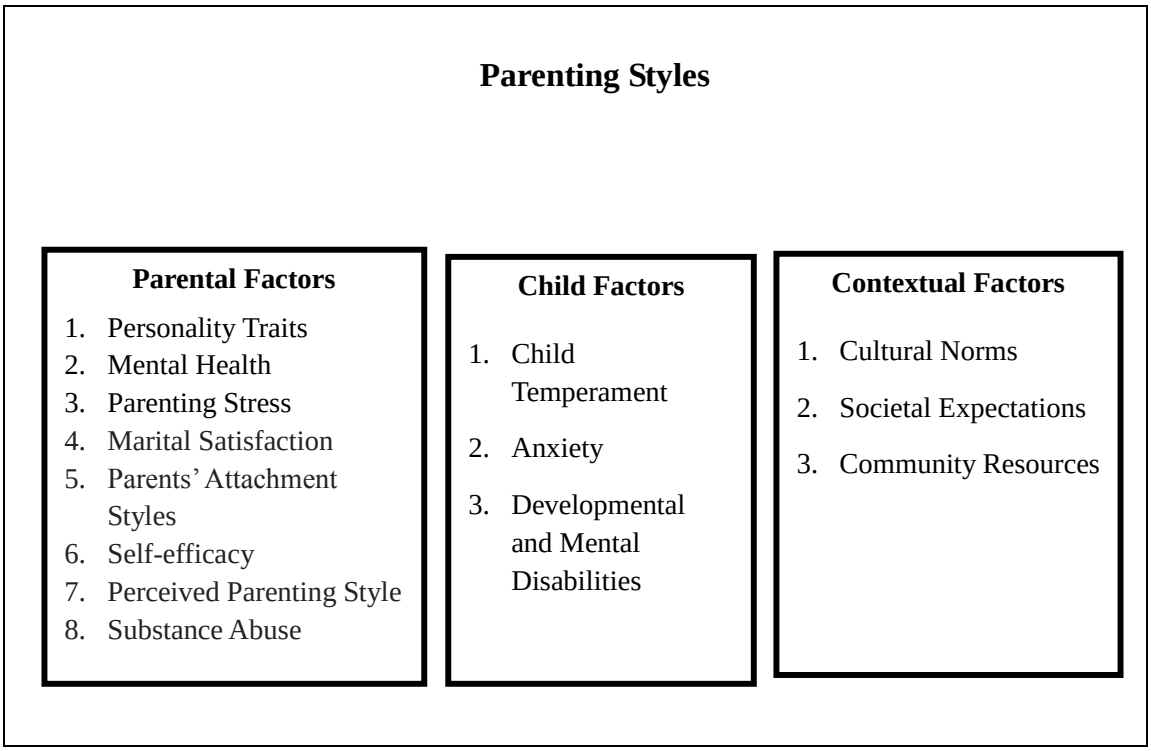

Figure 1.2: *Factors Influencing Parenting Styles*

Parental Factors

Parental characteristics are the most vital factors influencing parenting styles. Various psychological factors of parents greatly influence parenting styles. These are

1. **Personality Traits:** Personality traits like agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, and openness to new experiences can affect parenting methods (Belsky, 1984; Vafaeenejad et al., 2019). Because they can get social support and stay out of trouble, agreeable parents typically have more intimacy and are less likely to experience depression (Browne et al., 2012). They also strive for flexible and child-centered parenting. Extroverts tend to have favorable emotional states, while neurotic-psychotic parents tend to have more adverse and negative emotions (Vafaeenejad et al., 2019).

2. **Mental Health:** Parents with psychological distress often exhibit hostility towards their children, leading to harsh disciplinary rules and physical punishment (Vafaeenejad et al., 2019). Psychological disorders like depressive disorder, anxiety, schizophrenia, and bipolar disorder negatively impact parenting, resulting in overcontrol, rejection, insensitive behavior, and harassment (Oyserman et al., 2000; Chang et al., 2004; Goodman & Brumley, 1990).
3. **Parenting Stress:** Parenting stress can lead to increased rejection, less protective behavior, discipline, and less affection towards children. Stressed parents often adopt authoritarian parenting styles, causing anxiety, emotional anguish, irritability, and antagonistic behaviors in their children. (Vafaeenejad et al., 2019; Liu & Wang, 2015).
4. **Marital Satisfaction:** Parenting stress can result in increased rejection, less protective behavior, discipline, and affection, leading to anxiety, emotional anguish, irritability, and antagonistic behaviors in children (Chang et al., 2004; Vafaeenejad et al., 2019).
5. **Parents' Attachment Styles:** Parental attachment style and supportive family relationships can influence parenting styles. Secure attachment styles lead to clear, consistent, and coherent relationships, resulting in intimate parenting and increased responsiveness to children (Kotchick & Forehand, 2002; Cowan et al., 1996)
6. **Self-efficacy:** Parents with higher self-efficacy are more confident and likely to succeed in positive parenting, influencing parenting satisfaction and coping abilities. They may take proactive measures to mitigate the negative impacts of challenging situations, while those with low self-efficacy may struggle to implement positive parenting practices (Vafaeenejad et al., 2019; Jones & Prinz, 2005).
7. **Perceived Parenting Style:** A loving and responsive childhood leads to good socio-emotional development, high self-esteem, and internalized control (Zakeri & Karimpour, 2011). Emotional stability, behavioral independence, and social competence result in a healthy personality and personal maturity. These individuals can rely more on others and adopt a good parenting style in the future (Vafaeenejad et al., 2019).
8. **Substance Abuse:** Substance abuse significantly impacts parenting, potentially leading to child maltreatment and violence. Poor parenting is linked to marital issues and psychological disorders in substance-abusing individuals (Berg-Nielsen et al., 2002; Tavassolie et al., 2016)

Child Factors

Child characteristics also influence parenting styles. The most important psychological factors for children are discussed below.

1. **Child Temperament:** Child temperament, including negative emotions, maladjustment, and anger, can make caregiving difficult, negatively impact parents' performance, and lead to increased hostility and a lack of love and affection (Jones & Prinz, 2005). Parents of children with difficult temperaments experience more parenting stress and psychological issues (Vafaeenejad et al., 2019). Characteristics such as hyperactivity and difficulty forming social relationships can negatively impact parent-child relationships (McBride et al., 2002).
2. **Anxiety:** Anxiety issues in children negatively impact parenting styles, leading to less intimate interactions and overprotection (Abdollahi et al., 2013; Van Der Bruggen et al., 2008). Parents may also show less independence and acceptance, resulting in children with anxiety disorders receiving less love and acceptance from their parents (Berg-Nielsen et al., 2002).
3. **Developmental and Mental Disabilities:** Children with illnesses and impairments often cause parents to experience increased anxiety, leading to poor parenting. Children with disabilities like Down syndrome may have more behavioral issues and maybe overprotected, resulting in poor parenting. Conversely, children without disabilities may receive less care and control. Excessive stress can hinder parents' ability to handle emotional challenges and control their children's temperament, limiting their ability to respond effectively (Abdollahi et al., 2013; Nam & Chun, 2014).

Contextual Factors

Contextual or environmental characteristics are important factors that influence parenting styles. These are discussed below:

1. **Cultural Norms:** Cultural values and beliefs significantly influence parenting styles, with different cultures prioritizing collectivism, individualism, obedience, and interdependence, shaping parents' beliefs about effective parenting and influencing their parenting approaches (Xu et al., 2005).
2. **Societal Expectations:** Societal expectations and trends, such as academic achievement emphasis, media, and social networks, influence parenting practices,

leading parents to adopt authoritative styles to ensure their children's success (Zhu & Chang, 2009).

3. **Community Resources:** Community resources like healthcare, education, and support services can influence parenting styles, leading to more positive practices and better child outcomes. (Wu & Xu, 2020).

However, PSs are influenced by various factors, including parental background, psychological well-being, beliefs, day-to-day interactions, workplace and neighborhood environment, socio-economic status, ethnicity, culture, education, family support programs, and contextual stress sources like financial strain, divorce, and social networks.

1.3.0 Significance and Concept of Educational Adjustment (EA)

According to Crow & Crow (1956), adjustment changes behavior to fit the surroundings. For an organism to survive and fulfill its needs, it must match its behaviors with the environment's (Good, 1959; Shaffer, 1961). It is crucial for psychological well-being, entwined with one's emotional, social, educational, marital, and occupational spheres (Shaffer, 1961). Individual's adjustment and psychological health stem from the interaction between their ego and experiences (Sarafino, 2002). Adolescents' adjustment spans emotional, social, and educational realms. Social adjustment involves adapting oneself or the environment to fit within the social sphere (Pourafkari, 2001). Emotional adjustment centers on understanding and managing emotions in relationships—an ability crucially linked to learning and self-acceptance (Davies, 2006). EA involves adapting to the academic environment, relationships with teachers and peers, engagement with study materials, and genuine interest in learning (Karami, 1998). Early school adjustment, especially in kindergarten and primary grades, significantly impacts later experiences (Reynolds & Bezruczko, 1993).

EA emphasizes social competencies like engagement, behavioral competency, and healthy interpersonal interactions (Wentzel, 2013). According to Khandaghi and Farasat (2011), EA involves adapting to teachers, students, and the subject with concentration and excitement for learning, encouraging communication, actively engaging in group projects, and developing critical social skills. By covering classroom dynamics, assignments, instructional approaches, teacher-student interactions, and exam preparation, EA dramatically improves students' accomplishments, efficacy,

concentration, attention, homework completion, planning skills, and communication abilities (Hartos & Power, 2000).

1.3.1 Factors Influencing Educational Adjustment

Educational adjustment refers to how well a student adapts to school's academic, social, and emotional demands. Several factors can influence a student's ability to adjust and thrive in an educational setting:

1. **Individual Characteristics:** Individual characteristics like intellectual ability, learning style, resilience, motivation, and self-regulation impact students' academic journey and how they engage with the subject and adjust to their surroundings. Concentration, involvement, and general academic performance are also affected by their general state of physical, mental, and emotional well-being (Raza et al., 2021).
2. **Family Support:** Parents' involvement and support significantly impact students' academic achievements, emotional stability, and adjustment. Family atmosphere, relationships, and socio-economic status also influence a student's adjustment and performance in the educational system (Tseng, 2004).
3. **School Environment:** Enhancing student involvement, motivation, and a sense of belonging while facilitating adjustment is all made possible by a solid psychosocial environment, which includes a supportive school climate, pleasant peer relationships, and conveniently accessible resources (Larsen et al., 2023). Additional tools that enhance students' success and flexibility and foster social and academic thriving include counselling services, specialised education programs, and effective teaching methods (Rafikayati et al., 2018).
4. **Peer Relationships:** Peer relationships greatly influence how successfully a student adjusts academically. It is essential to comprehend and deal with these dynamics to develop support systems that work. A student's sense of belonging is shaped by positive relationships, friendships, and social networks, supporting their academic path and emotional stability. Peer relationships are, therefore, crucial to creating a supportive atmosphere (Ryan, 2011).
5. **Cultural and Societal Factors:** Social expectations, cultural background, and values affect students' academic path. Extracurricular activities and supportive groups improve their educational and personal experiences. These components support students in managing their academic journeys while embracing their

cultural identities by creating a sense of belonging in the classroom. (Spencer, 1999).

6. **Transitions and Changes:** Adjustment and transition go hand in hand, particularly when moving to a new educational environment like school. Relocating, changing families, or going through a significant life transition can all significantly impact how well a student adapts. They have to learn to deal with the emotional and social components of their new surroundings in addition to the academic demands (Fabian, 2007).
7. **Personal Goals and Aspirations:** A child's motivations, ambitions, and objectives greatly influence how well they adjust to school. Academic navigation and transition management are improved when educational goals and school programs align. Pupils with emotional, social, and intellectual adaptability can better navigate academic challenges, overcome obstacles, and have a fulfilling and successful time in school. This adaptability helps them become resilient and succeed academically (Behera, 2014).

1.4.0 Significance and Concept of Academic Achievement (AA)

Academic achievement (AA) is a vital measure of learning success and cognitive development, impacting learning outcomes, career paths, competitiveness in the labour market, and chances for further education. It promotes self-esteem, motivation, a sense of accomplishment, and a culture of lifelong learning with positive personal and social outcomes, such as raising graduation rates and employment prospects (Galizty & Arosid, 2023; Kaur & Prajapati, 2022; Sari et al., 2023). It is pivotal for gauging education quality and determining students' future accomplishments and career trajectories (Sari et al., 2023). Assessing AA is crucial for education quality assurance, equity promotion, and policy formulation.

The measurable outcomes of education are known as AA, and they include achieving particular objectives in educational environments such as colleges, universities, and schools. It covers various cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains or concentrates on knowledge acquisition within specific intellectual fields. The concept of AA is complex and encompasses a range of learning domains. According to Steinmayr et al. (2014), it involves mastery, understanding, and applying knowledge, skills, and talents in various subjects or areas. It refers to performance outcomes in educational domains,

indicating knowledge mastery and skill development (Kushwaha & Dube, 2023; Abdallah & Abdallah, 2023). AA encompasses scholastic and non-scholastic outcomes influenced by time management, employment, gender, and teacher quality (Sarif & Vandana, 2022; Tian et al., 2018). It is a multifaceted concept, encompassing mastery of subjects, cognitive skills, and educational success while influencing admissions, scholarship eligibility, personal and professional growth (Galizty & Arosid, 2023; Kaur & Prajapati, 2022; Sari et al., 2023).

1.4.1 Factors Influencing Academic Achievement

The performance of secondary school students hinges on an array of physical and psychological factors as they navigate the turbulent adolescent phase, rendering them particularly susceptible to diverse challenges. This vulnerability significantly impacts their academic achievement and the development of their personalities (Suvarna & Bhata, 2016). Poverty compounds these challenges by limiting resources available to students, hindering their ability to match the academic strides of their more affluent peers. Students' educational attainment is significantly influenced by factors such as income, its source, and the educational level of their mothers (Lacour & Tissington, 2011). Moreover, the intricate tapestry of individual differences, encompassing demographics, behavioral traits, and psychological aspects, profoundly shapes academic Performance (Al-Zoubi & Younes, 2015). Psychologists and researchers have underscored both cognitive and non-cognitive elements that wield substantial influence in determining educational success.

Cognitive Factors:

1. **Intelligence:** The link between intelligence and academic achievement stems from intelligence's core attribute: learning capacity. It is widely held that intelligence is the foremost predictor of academic success (Steinmayr et al., 2014). Čavojová and Mikušková (2015) asserted that general intelligence forecasts students' achievements both within and beyond the school environment. However, contrasting findings by Naderi et al. (2010) indicated that intelligence does not correlate with academic success.
2. **Learning Styles:** Individual approaches to acquiring and processing information (e.g., visual, auditory, kinesthetic). Beyond inherent abilities that are challenging

to regulate, students possess distinct learning styles that can significantly influence their academic success (Al-Zoubi & Younes, 2015).

3. **Memory:** Generally, memory is the retention and recall of information. Strong memory performance is crucial for students' academic success, showing a positive correlation with achievements in mathematics, written language, and overall academic Performance (Hassevoort et al., 2018).
4. **Critical Thinking:** Critical thinking is a rigorously disciplined process involving active and skilled engagement in conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating information (Paul, 1992). An effective critical thinking pedagogy, fostering students' knowledge, skills, and mindsets, can enhance students' academic achievements (Karbalaei, 2012).
6. **Metacognition:** It refers to awareness and regulation of one's thinking and learning processes. Pradhan and Das (2021) state that students' metacognitive knowledge and skills align more favorably with their learning styles. These metacognitive skills significantly influence and determine their academic achievements.
7. **Executive Functioning:** Executive functioning is a practical skill in planning, organization, time management, and self-regulation. It encompasses advanced mental processes that enable flexible and intricate goal-oriented actions. Deficiencies in executive functioning notably impact attention, and impairments in these executive functions are correlated with lower academic achievements (Thorell et al., 2013).
8. **Language Skills:** Language Skills means proficiency in verbal and written communication. According to García-Vázquez (1997), language proficiency significantly contributes to academic success. Similarly, Kastner et al. (2001) observed a strong association between language-based skills and subsequent academic performance in school-aged children.

Non-Cognitive Factors:

1. **Motivation:** Motivation has garnered significant attention concerning academic achievement for two primary reasons. Firstly, it is considered a vital predictor of academic success. Motivation is essential for academic outcomes (Steinmayr et al., 2014). According to Amrai et al. (2011), motivational factors are significant in the academic achievement of students, which is related to society's development;

administrators and educational planners are urged to prioritize attention toward the various components of motivation.

2. **Self-Efficacy:** Self-efficacy is a considerable factor in academic achievement (Motlagh et al., 2011)—belief in one's ability to accomplish specific academic tasks or goals. According to Komarraju and Nadler (2013), self-efficacy plays a vital role by enabling the utilization of diverse metacognitive strategies and resources that hold significant importance for academic performance.
3. **Self-Regulation:** Self-Regulation is the best prediction factor of academic achievement (Motlagh et al., 2011). It helps to control behaviors, emotions, and attention during learning. According to Nota et al. (2004), learners who can self-regulate to manage their cognitive, motivational, and behavioral aspects tend to be more effective in their academic pursuits.
4. **Resilience:** Resilience is coping with challenges, setbacks, and stress. According to Sarwar et al. (2010), resilience involves achieving success even when facing obstacles that challenge students' paths to success. The achievement's influence plays a pivotal role in fostering resilience, potentially aiding stakeholders in enhancing the quality and results of resilience efforts.
5. **Mindset:** It means the attitudes and beliefs about intelligence, effort, and learning capabilities. Recently, there has been a notable emphasis on exploring personality as a predictor of academic success. One rationale behind linking academic achievement with personality revolves around the idea that, apart from intellectual capacity, the inclination to excel plays a pertinent role in achievement (Steinmayr et al., 2014).
6. **Social Skills:** Social skills are collaborating, communicating effectively, and engaging with peers and educators. It plays a protective role in achieving academic success, and training in these areas has enhanced social abilities and academic Performance (Feitosa et al., 2012).
7. **Emotional Well-being:** Mental health, emotional stability, positive affect towards learning. When students have better academic results, they experience more positive emotions, which indicates psychological well-being. Similarly, emotional well-being promotes academic success (Lv et al., 2016).

1.5.0 Relationship Between PSs, EA, and AA

Parenting styles (PSs) play a crucial role in shaping children's educational adjustment (EA) and academic achievement (AA) (Watson et al., 2022; Yu, 2024; Hayek et al., 2022). Studies reveal that adolescents with positive PSs have higher self-efficacy, adjustment, and academic success levels. The critical relationship between parenting styles and adolescent educational adjustment is vital for development. Studies indicate that authoritative parenting, characterized by firm discipline and warmth, is associated with better academic adjustment (Weiss & Schwarz, 1996; Digal, 2021). Conversely, unengaged and authoritarian-directive parenting styles are linked to poorer educational outcomes (Steinberg et al., 1992). Parental involvement within an authoritative home environment is highlighted as significant for effective educational adjustment (Rajput & Bala, 2023). Further, research indicates a robust association between educational adjustment and academic achievement. Higher academic performance is typically attained by students with improved overall adjustment (Verma, 1985). Jain (2017) states that social and emotional adjustment significantly influence academic results. Academic attainment is also impacted by supportive family and school settings and gender disparities in educational adjustment (Panchal & Desai, 2021; Kumar & Kamala, 2022). These studies demonstrate the strong correlation between students' academic success and educational adjustment (Digal, 2021; Maqbool et al., 2021; Rajput & Bala, 2023; Kirtania, 2019).

Research also emphasises the impact of parental influence on educational results by highlighting the association between PSs and student accomplishment (Taseer et al., 2023; Hanindiya, 2022; Rizwan et al., 2021; Rathee & Kumari, 2022). According to Steinberg et al. (1992), adolescents' academic performance is positively impacted by authoritative parenting. The presence of parents in the educational process amplifies this effect. Nonauthoritative parenting weakens the positive impact of parental involvement on academic success. Overall, an authoritative home environment promotes adolescent school achievement. Hassan et al. (2022) pointed out that the association between authoritative and permissive PSs and students' self-efficacy, self-regulatory learning, and AA orientation highlights the role of parenting in shaping students' EA and success and with parents more involved in their children's education, leading to higher grades, improved attendance, and greater motivation to learn (Taseer et al., 2023). Furthermore,

academic achievement is positively correlated with social and emotional adjustment, underscoring the profound impact of parenting styles on educational success (Sekar & Lawrence, 2016). Weiss and Schwarz (1996) found that children of unengaged and authoritarian-directive parents exhibited poorer outcomes, reinforcing the importance of authoritative parenting for positive developmental trajectories.

There is a close connection between academic achievement (AA), educational adjustment (EA), and parenting styles (PS). Like authoritative parenting, good parenting practices help children acclimate to school better and achieve better academic results by boosting their drive, self-control, and interest in learning (Watson et al., 2022; Yu, 2024). On the other hand, through affecting educational adjustment, authoritarian or permissive parenting styles may indirectly affect academic accomplishment (Hayek et al., 2022). This interplay highlights the need to recognize and encourage beneficial interactions among these variables, underscoring the significance of caring, supportive, and authoritative parenting methods in fostering better educational adjustment, academic success, and well-being among adolescents.

1.6.0 Theoretical Perspectives

Theoretical perspectives explore diverse frameworks shaping parenting styles, educational adjustment, and academic achievement. These perspectives offer valuable insights for understanding and enhancing children's educational journeys.

1.6.1 Theories of PSs

Theories suggest various parenting approaches significantly impact a child's growth and well-being, allowing psychologists and researchers to understand how parents' attitudes, behaviors, and methods shape their children's upbringing.

1. **Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1969):** The attachment theory, developed by Bowlby in 1969, is a significant model of parenting that explores the emotional connection between infants and their caregivers. It posits that attachment behaviors are how children maintain this closeness. In 1979, Ainsworth emphasized the caregiver as a secure foundation for infants to explore the world. Early attachment significantly shapes an individual's identity, coping abilities, adult relationships, and self-perception (Doinita & Maria, 2015). The theory emphasizes that childhood

attachment quality significantly influences relationships influenced by early attachment experiences (Ecke et al., 2006).

2. **Parenting Styles Framework (Baumrind, 1966):** Diana Baumrind's PS theory (1966) identifies four elements: responsiveness versus unresponsiveness and demanding versus undemanding. Three parenting styles emerged: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Authoritarian parents enforce strict rules without explanation, while authoritative parents set clear expectations and value children's perspectives. Permissive parents grant freedom but rarely establish rules and may appear lenient or less engaged in their children's lives (Baumrind, 1991).

3. **Parenting Styles Model (Lamborn et al., 1991):** Diana Baumrind's framework for parenting styles was expanded upon by Lamborn and colleagues (1991) by adding a fourth style: neglectful (or uninvolved) parenting. The model was also further developed by adding new subscales for parental warmth (involvement) and strictness (supervision). The four parenting styles are: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful (Kurniawan. 2023; Vasiou et al., 2023). Authoritative parenting is characterized by high responsiveness, high demandingness, warmth, and supportive involvement, fostering self-reliant and socially competent children. Authoritarian parenting exhibits low responsiveness, high demandingness, and strict supervision, often leading to children with higher anxiety levels and lower self-esteem (Zhussipbek & Nagayeva, 2023). Permissive parenting reflects high responsiveness but low demandingness and supervision, resulting in children lacking self-discipline and struggling with authority figures (A'isyah & Mariyati, 2020). Neglectful (uninvolved) parenting involves low responsiveness, low demandingness, and minimal parental involvement or supervision, potentially causing emotional and behavioral issues and low self-esteem in children (Hasan et al., 2023). This comprehensive framework helps identify the diverse impacts of different parenting behaviors on child development. It guides interventions promoting positive parenting practices and strengthening parent-child relationships across various contexts.

4. **Maccoby and Martin's Model (1983):** In the Handbook of Child Psychology, Maccoby and Martin (1983) refined Baumrind's parenting style by introducing two dimensions: responsiveness and demandingness. They emphasized that authoritative parents exhibit high demandingness and responsiveness, while authoritarian parents prioritize demandingness over responsiveness. Permissive-neglectful parenting, often

called uninvolved or neglected, reflects low demandingness and responsiveness with minimal parental involvement. They also suggested that children raised by permissive-neglectful parents face a higher risk of lacking essential skills compared to authoritative, authoritarian, or permissive-indulgent parents. (Radziszewska et al., 1996).

5. **Robinson, Mandleco, Hart, and Olsen's Model (1995, 2001):** Like Baumrind's parenting types, Robinson et al. (1995, 2001) developed an empirical approach focusing on warmth and controlling behavior (demandingness) from parents in preadolescent children. They characterized authoritative parenting as developing autonomy by allowing children to take charge of their schedules, activities, and thoughts while balancing behavioral regulation and parental affection. In contrast, authoritarian parenting emphasizes coercion, including verbal and physical punishment, and limited autonomy (Nelson et al., 2006). Unjustified use of punitive measures may indicate parental rejection and exacerbate children's behavioral issues. (Robinson et al., 2001).

6. **Rohner's theory of Parental Acceptance-Rejection**: Rohner's theory of Parental Acceptance-Rejection is renowned for its focus on socialization, encompassing four critical facets: children's behavioral, cognitive, and emotional development and adult personality functioning. This theory underscores the impact of varying levels of warmth and affection experienced by individuals from significant figures, particularly parents, shaping their developmental and lifelong psychological aspects (Hussain & Munaf, 2012).

1.6.2 Theories of Educational Adjustment

Educational adjustment theories explore how students adapt to learning environments, focusing on social engagement, behavioral competency, and environmental demands. Fundamental theories include social cognitive, ecological systems, and attribution theories.

1. **Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986):** Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), developed by Albert Bandura, emphasizes the value of self-efficacy, human agency, and observational learning in educational settings. It draws attention to how social interactions contribute to learning and behavior modification.

Intentionality, self-efficacy, and vicarious learning processes are among the ways students learn through seeing and imitating behaviors and developing beliefs about their academic aptitude (Verma & Jain, 2022). Self-efficacy influences academic achievement, perseverance, and motivation. It is essential for educational transition (Bussey, 2023; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2022; Myrick & Yang, 2022). According to Bandura's triadic reciprocal determinism, people have agency over their circumstances and interact dynamically with behavioral, environmental, and personal elements (de Mello et al., 2022). The approach emphasizes environmental, personal, and self-regulation elements in determining behavior. SCT's essential elements, such as self-efficacy and outcome expectations, are crucial in predicting and influencing behaviors (de Mello et al., 2022; Usher & Ford, 2022).

2. **Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979):** Urie Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory emphasizes how different environmental systems affect human growth and adaptation (Riva et al., 2023; Prasad & Shachi, 2023). Students are viewed as embedded inside layered systems, which include the macrosystem, exosystem, microsystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem, according to Amali et al. (2023). The pupils' educational experiences are impacted by these systems collectively. Peer relationships, neighborhood resources, family dynamics, the school environment, and social ideals are just a few variables that affect students' adjustment and educational outcomes. Students' everyday interactions are directly impacted by the microsystem, which consists of their surrounding contexts, such as school and home (Flynn & Mathias, 2023). Support networks and educational possibilities are also significantly shaped by interactions between microsystems (mesosystems) and exterior surroundings (exosystems), such as local resources and laws (Suwannawong et al., 2023). Furthermore, the macro system—including cultural and societal contexts—is essential in establishing educational expectations and norms, affecting how students pursue their education. The chronosystem focuses on how life transitions and societal changes affect developmental trajectories throughout time by examining the effects of time and historical events on individual development within ecological systems.

3. **Attribution Theory (Fritz Heider, 1958 and Bernard Weiner, 1986):** The field of attribution theory explores how people understand success and failure in academic contexts. It was developed by Bernard Weiner and built upon the research of Fritz Heider. It highlights how students' motivation and adjustment in school are highly impacted by their attributions (explanations) for performance results, such as ability, effort, or task difficulty (Spitzberg & Manusov, 2021; San Martín, 2019; Weiner, 2019; Kruglanski et al., 2018). While attributing failure to outside causes may reduce emotions of competence and motivation, attributing success to internal factors like ability can increase self-esteem and motivation (Fielden & Rico, 2018). The theory also takes into account attributions that are associated with controllability and stability, which have an impact on how people interpret and react to their academic experiences. Attribution theory provides insights into people's feelings, intentions, and relationships in learning environments by examining how they interpret their results. This helps to shape people's overall adjustment and learning outcomes.

1.6.3 Theories of Academic Achievement

Numerous models have emerged to explain the determinants of academic achievement, building upon the foundational work of scholars like John B. A. Carroll (1963) and Benjamin S. Bloom (1976). Carroll's influential model underscored the importance of the ratio between time spent and time needed for learning success. In contrast, Bloom's model expanded this by delineating three types of learning success: achievement, affective outcomes, and improved learning rates. Walberg's 1984 nine-factor model furthered this exploration, incorporating individual, scholastic, and extracurricular determinants alongside distal environmental factors, a departure from earlier models (Haertel et al., 1983). Eccles and Wigfield's expectancy-value model of 2002 introduced the distinction between distal and proximal determinants, highlighting how environmental factors, individual traits, and past experiences indirectly influence academic achievement. Byrnes and Miller's 2007 opportunity propensity model synthesized aspects of the Eccles-Wigfield and Walberg models, emphasizing that academic achievement hinges on access to effective learning environments and an individual's capacity to seize learning opportunities. These diverse models collectively

shed light on the multifaceted nature of academic success, integrating various factors that shape an individual's educational journey (Steinmayr et al., 2014).

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1.0. Introduction

A literature review is an in-depth overview and a powerful tool for guiding the research process. As Rewhorn (2018) points out, it compiles, examines, assesses, and synthesizes relevant material on a subject, providing examples from emerging domains, exception studies, ongoing or past research, and consensus on particular topics. It showcases the evolution of knowledge on the subject, helping to identify knowledge gaps, develop research questions, and set research objectives. This process empowers the researcher, giving them the confidence to navigate the specified study area.

This chapter serves as a solid theoretical foundation, equipping the researcher with the necessary knowledge about the findings and methodology of past investigations. Understanding the current investigation's theoretical framework, methods, and applicability (Norman et al., 2015) is crucial for producing reliable and trustworthy study outcomes. A comprehensive literature review, such as the one presented here, provides the necessary theoretical and conceptual background information about the interconnections, academic achievement (AA), educational adjustment (EA), and Parenting Styles (PSs) of Schedule Tribe students. This study, for instance, delves into how parenting practices affect Schedule Tribe students' AA and EA at the higher secondary level. It draws on various literature searches to establish a critical and comprehensive rationale and background knowledge, preparing the researcher to tackle research problems and engage with knowledge through a systematic study.

2.2.0. Objectives of the Literature Review

1. To identify knowledge gaps and obtain adequate baseline knowledge for this investigation.
2. To develop research questions, state the study problem, objectives, and hypotheses, and direct the research technique.
3. To help the researcher conduct the research process and identify the essential components or variables for this investigation.
4. To assist the researcher in appreciating the study's significance, applicability, relationship to other studies, and pedagogical implications.

2.3.0. Methodology of Literature Review

This review was done with a narrative and integrative literature review approach. Google Scholar, ProQuest, Science Direct, Scopus, and Shoodganga were among the databases used by the researcher. The researcher utilized numerous keywords when looking for this literature, including 'parenting style of schedule tribe,' 'educational adjustment,' 'academic achievement,' 'moderating role of academic achievement,' 'impact of parenting style on educational adjustment of schedule tribe pupils,' and so on. However, recently released material (from 2009 to 2023) has been determined in this regard.

The researcher retrieved 345 research articles and theses after scanning five databases, including Google Scholar, ProQuest, Science Direct, Scopus, and Shoodganga. Following an initial review of the titles and abstracts of these 345 research articles, the 110 works chosen for this chapter are most connected and relevant to the current research topic. Again, twenty of the 110 recognized research articles included only abstracts, but the entire document could not be found. As a result, twenty items were later removed. Finally, for this chapter, the researcher chose 90 articles. The distribution is shown in the table below for clarity, and the 90 identified publications and theses are briefly reviewed:

Table No. 2.1: List of Selecting Literature

Database	Papers and theses downloaded	Final included
Google Scholar	135	32
ProQuest	39	10
Science Direct	35	19
Scopus	130	43
Shoodganga	07	2
Total	345	110
Finally Selected		**90**

2.4.0. Review of Related Literature

2.4.1. Studies on PSs

Parenting styles are influenced by various demographic factors, as evidenced by previous studies. Bibi et al. (2021) conveniently selected 100 adolescents to conduct a cross-sectional study investigating PS and psychological flexibility in Pakistan. They observed no significant gender differences and noted a positive correlation between PS and psychological flexibility using t-test and correlation analysis. In a similar vein, Zheng et al. (2022) investigated the link between PSs and related variables by looking at 3180 Chinese secondary school pupils. They found that PSs were predicted by gender, grade, residential location, family economic status, parents' marital status, and parental education by using regression analysis. In parallel, Romero-Acosta et al. (2021) studied 710 students to investigate relationships between PSs and their anxiety, sex, and age. Using multiple regression analysis, they discovered that, in comparison to authoritative parenting, negligent parenting was linked to lower symptoms of generalized anxiety. In a similar line, Yang and Kim (2021) surveyed 1,040 students to investigate the

associations between socioeconomic status and PS. They discovered that the prevalence of an authoritative parenting style was highly influenced by both household income and perceived socioeconomic position. Teuber et al. (2022) examined 789 German secondary school pupils who were chosen by cluster sampling in order to look into the stability and variations of parental profiles related to autonomy and how those changes affected the students' academic and psychological growth. They found supportive parenting fosters their healthy, academic, and psychological development while controlling parenting hinders the growth of autonomy, makes psychopathology worse, and lowers academic performance. Additionally, the PSs vary during early to mid-adolescence and are less consistent than anticipated.

In Indian studies, Joseph et al. (2015) randomly selected 60 school students in Andhra Pradesh, India, for a cross-sectional study to examine how parenting practices affected their academic performance. They found maternal parenting styles correlated with her age, family income, career, and number of children. They also observed that authoritative parenting positively impacted academic performance compared to authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles. Especially in West Bengal, Kisku (2018) surveyed 124 ST secondary students in West Bengal, India. Parenting styles were strongly impacted by parental education, family kinds, and the number of siblings, according to the results of the t-test and ANOVA. In the meantime, no discernible influence was shown by variables such as gender, caste, religion, or habitat. Similarly, Sing (2016) compared PSs with demographics by conveniently choosing 193 ST secondary students in West Bengal. With the exception of the number of siblings, he discovered that gender, environment, and family monthly income had no discernible effects on parenting styles based on lower-level PS, t-test, and ANOVA results.

2.4.2. Studies on Educational Adjustment

Many academics have noted that a range of characteristics influence emotional intelligence. In a cross-sectional study on 1712 Romanian teens, Cristescu and Băban (2022) investigated the mediating effects of perceived social support in the association between exposure to abuse and adjustment to school. It was discovered that, in comparison to adolescents who had not experienced abuse, those who had reported

experiencing abuse had lower levels of perceived social support and lower school adjustment. In order to investigate the effects of peer interactions and parent-child attachment on school adjustment, Zhang and Deng (2022) conducted a survey with 405 Chinese kids. They discovered that these students had worse levels of parent-child attachment and school adjustment. Peer ties, on the other hand, were a strong predictor of school adjustment levels, especially for children whose parents moved abroad. Ram and Madan (2021) surveyed 367 secondary students to assess academic success and adjustment in the classroom environment. Their mediation analysis revealed that teacher assistance, student relationships with classmates, and parental engagement significantly influence academic success and classroom adjustment. In order to find out how self-control and self-adjustment affect morality, as well as if self-control mediates the relationship between morality and self-adjustment, Hidayah (2021) conducted a survey of 210 senior high school students. According to multiple linear regressions, students' morality is favourably influenced by both self-adjustment and self-control, with self-control serving as a mediator between the two. Moreno Méndez et al. (2020) investigated the relationship between parenting styles (PSs) and internalising, externalising, and adjustment issues in children by looking at 422 kids and parents from Colombian public schools. They discovered that internalising, externalising, and overall maladjustment issues are highly influenced by family dynamics and parental behaviours. Regression study showed that through externalising issues, parental roles and behaviours have an indirect impact on general maladjustment. Stella and Chukwunonyenim (2019) conducted a cross-sectional study on 388 students from secondary schools in Nigeria, finding high levels of test anxiety among participants. Multiple regression analysis showed that achievement motivation and school adjustment significantly predicted test anxiety, while locus of control also predicted test anxiety, albeit to a lesser extent. Together, locus of control, achievement motivation, and school adjustment were significant predictors of test anxiety. 522 teenagers and their parents were polled by Ratelle et al. (2017) in order to predict school adjustment from a variety of parental behaviour viewpoints. According to their structural equation modelling (SEM), parents' self-evaluations, in addition to the assessments of their children, provided extra variance in the way their kids adjusted to school. While positive parental acts predicted academic adjustment, positive mother behaviours predicted both academic and emotional adjustment. Lower academic and personal-emotional adjustment were predicted by paternal control. Espinoza et al. (2014) looked into the effects of peer and parent support

on 412 Mexican-American teens' school adjustment. Regression analysis was used to determine the moderating effects of parental and friend support levels on the strong connection found between school adjustment and peer affiliations. Nettle (2009) surveyed 285 school students to explore the influence of neighborhood on school adjustment. The findings suggested that neighborhoods positively influence academic performance and moderate the effects of parental behavior on schooling outcomes. Furthermore, the association between school adjustment and family and child hazards is mediated by neighbourhood risk factors. In order to investigate the contributions of school adjustment and family duties to understanding teenage immigrants, Van Geel and Vedder (2011) questioned 277 national adolescents and 175 non-western immigrant adolescents in the Netherlands. Adolescent immigrants outperformed native teenagers in terms of family responsibilities and school adjustment. In both national and immigrant teenagers, the outcomes of adaptation were strongly correlated with household responsibilities and school adjustment. Aunola et al. (1999) investigated the relationships between self-esteem and school adjustment by surveying 1185 Swedish teenagers. Their structural equation modelling (SEM) showed a correlation between poor self-esteem and teens' use of maladaptive coping mechanisms, which were linked to school maladjustment caused by internalising and externalising problem behaviours.Additionally, school adjustment partially mediated the relationship between externalizing problem behaviors and maladaptive behaviors in teenagers.

Indian studies such as Kaur and Gupta (2021) purposively selected 200 high school students for a comprehensive survey in Punjab, India, to explore how adjustment is affected by gender, locality, and academic stream. The t-test results showed that rural and male students exhibited higher adjustment levels than their counterparts, with similar levels observed between science and art students. In the same line, Barik and Dhara (2019) surveyed 350 high school students in West Bengal to evaluate their personal and social adjustment abilities in high school. They found moderate adjustment abilities among HS students. Female students showed higher adjustment abilities than males, and students from rural areas and joint families demonstrated higher adjustment abilities compared to urban residents and nuclear families. Urban male and female students exhibited similar adjustment abilities utilizing t-tests and ANOVA. In a similar vein, Gill (2014) conducted a survey study in which 100 high school students from Haryana, India were purposefully chosen to evaluate the students' emotional, social, and academic

adjustment. There was no discernible difference between male and female students' educational, social, or emotional adjustments in the classroom. Shah and Sharma (2012) investigated the association between social maturity, school adjustment, and academic achievement (AA) by surveying 347 female high school students from girls' residential institutions in North India. Social maturity and school adaptability were shown to be significantly correlated, with noticeable differences between low, high, and average academic groups. Furthermore, Yadav and Iqbal (2009) examined how life skill training affected the self-esteem and adjustment of sixty teenagers from Punjab's Hans Raj Model School. While social adjustment did not significantly increase, participants who received life skill training shown significant gains in self-esteem, emotional adjustment, overall adjustment, and academic adjustment. In order to compare the academic, social, and emotional adjustments of 200 schoolchildren in Panchkula, India, according to gender and location, Wadhawan (2018) conducted a survey. Girls outperformed boys in terms of emotional, social, and academic adjustment, according to the independent sample t-test. Furthermore, compared to their rural counterparts, urban students demonstrated superior emotional, social, and intellectual adjustment.

2.4.3. Studies on Academic Achievement

Edgerton and McKechnie (2023) surveyed 441 secondary school students in Scotland to observe the mediating effects of the physical learning environment on AA. They found a strong correlation between students' subjective evaluations of their school environment, attendance, gender, socioeconomic status, and AA. In-school behaviors like engaged conduct and environmental challenges moderated the relationship between AA and students' assessment of their school environment. Zhou et al. (2023) conducted a cross-sectional study on 9394 students in China to investigate the interaction between AA and parental/peer tobacco use on adolescents' intention to smoke. Their MANOVA results revealed that low AA was more strongly associated with teenage smoking intention when peers or both parents smoked. Promoting social connections among academically low-performing students, enhancing school involvement, and creating smoke-free homes may decrease adolescents' intention to smoke. Reyes et al. (2023) conducted a correlational study on 1712 students using cluster sampling to analyze the mediating roles of study habits, learning techniques, and study attitudes in explaining AA. SEM results revealed

that learning strategies, study habits, and attitudes mediated the relationship between AA and background characteristics like age, gender, and cognitive or behavioral involvement. Study habits and learning techniques were crucial mediators between educational support, school involvement, and academic success. Banda and Nzabahimana (2022) purposively selected 280 Malawian secondary-level students to investigate the impact of simulated learning on motivation and AA. In the quasi-experimental design, the experimental group received simulated training, while the control group received traditional training. The t-test results indicated a significant difference in post-test AA between the two groups, with linear regression results suggesting that the intervention caused disparities in post-test AA. ANCOVA revealed significant differences between the study groups in motivation components related to self-efficacy, active learning techniques, performance objectives, accomplishment goals, stimulation of the learning environment, and attitudes about computer-assisted learning. Cross et al. (2018) interviewed 45 students from low-income homes and 36 students from high-income families to explore challenges in school adjustment and perceived barriers to AA in America. Students from low-income backgrounds highlighted challenges in attendance and social distancing from classmates, while wealthy students expressed feelings of social isolation from teachers and peers.

In Indian studies, Abid et al. (2022) surveyed 1614 science students in Punjab, Pakistan, to examine the connections between study techniques, reading habits, and English academic achievement. They found moderately positive associations between reading habits and scholarly achievement in English and highly positive relationships between reading habits, study skills, and English AA. Reading habits and study skills moderately predicted AA, with significant regression analysis results.

2.4.4. Studies on Relations between Parenting Style and Academic Achievement

Kim and Kim (2021) studied 2590 South Korean middle school students, finding that positive parenting styles boosted academic accomplishment through increased self-esteem and educational engagement. These factors mediated the relationship between parenting and academic success. Huang H. et al. (2022) investigated 683 nursing undergraduates, discovering a significant association between parenting styles, coping

mechanisms, resilience, and academic procrastination. They found that Positive parenting styles directly influenced lower levels of academic procrastination. Mengjie et al. (2021) conducted a cross-sectional study on 122 junior high school children and found that perceived father-child visual likeness strongly influenced adolescents' academic achievement (AA) more than mother-child facial resemblance. This association was mediated by the loving parental support (PS) of fathers. Tsela et al. (2022) surveyed 101 elementary students in Greece to examine the connection between parenting patterns and school achievements and they found that authoritative parenting styles were linked to higher school achievement, while authoritarian styles were associated with lower achievement. Combining an autocratic style with involvement practices significantly predicted grades. Rizwan et al. (2021) examined a cross-sectional study of 720 secondary students to investigate the impact of PSs on AA in Punjab, Pakistan. And study revealed a positive correlation between academic achievement (AA) and parental support (PS), particularly in responsiveness and control. Hayek et al. (2021) studied on 345 students from Mount Lebanon and the Beirut area's private and public schools to explore the link between PS, AA, and the mediating role of self-efficacy and intention in obtaining good grades and they found positive relationship between authoritative parenting, academic performance, and self-efficacy/intention. Amani et al. (2019) Conducted a surveyed on 341 early adolescents, 341 mothers, and 20 teachers selected in Iran to investigate how PS influences AA as a mediator of early adolescents' self-regulated learning (SRL). And study discovered that authoritative parenting positively influences academic achievement through self-regulated learning. Garcia and Serra (2019) identified a positive correlation between various parenting styles (authoritarian, indulgent, authoritative, neglectful) and scholastic performance in 610 young adolescents and 469 middle-aged teenagers. Mihret, A. M. (2019) surveyed 192 secondary students selected randomly in Ethiopia, to assess the association between AA and PSs. Finding indicated a substantive association between authoritative and authoritarian PSs and students' AA. Strong and negative relationships between neglectful PSs and students' motivation for AA. Further, a significant relationship was observed between indulgent PS and students' academic. Carlo et al. (2018) made a cross-sectional study on 462 Mexican teenagers in the USA to investigate parental practices and pro-social behaviors as long-term determinants of academic performance. Their results identified that authoritative parents showed higher levels of pro-social behavior, positively associated with scholastic outcomes. Conversely, less active PSs were related with lower pro-social behavior and academic achievement

levels. Yasmin and Kiani (2015) randomly selected 350 HS students in Pakistan to measure the association between different PSs and AA. According to their correlation analysis, academic adjustment was negatively connected with authoritarian and permissive PSs, but positively correlated with authoritative PSs. Dzever (2015) conducted a stratified approach survey of 300 Nigerian secondary students to investigate the impact of the family environment on academic performance. The results of the correlation showed a strong positive link between permissive PS and academic adjustment. Factors such as income, educational background, employment levels, and permissive parenting were primary predictors impacting students' academic adjustment. Pinquart (2015) conducted a meta-analysis of 308 studies to examine the relationship between parental styles and teenage academic attainment. The analysis revealed that improved academic achievement was associated with parental warmth, behavioral control, autonomy granting, and authoritative parenting. However, correlations with authoritarian, permissive, and harsh control were statistically insignificant. The child's age, race, quality of parenting, and measure of success, as well as the claimed effects on parenting and academic attainment, were found to moderate these relationships. Yunus et al. (2014) surveyed 168 secondary students to examine the impact of family environment on academic performance and adjustment issues. They found no Gender differences in AA and school adjustment and a significant impact of family environment on academic achievement and school adjustment. The family environment influenced school adjustment, but its effect on academic success was minimal. In 2014, Khan and colleagues looked into factors that were associated with academic success in 200 Malaysian special education pupils. They discovered strong links between family practices, AA, and motivation for schooling. Gender, ethnicity, parental support for education, and support from friends and siblings were found to be important predictors of academic performance by multiple regression analysis. Parsasirat et al. (2013) investigated the connection between AA and PS in a cross-sectional study involving 546 Iranian students. They discovered a favourable relationship between authoritarian parenting and AA. Out of the three PSs, regression analysis showed that authoritative parents were the best at predicting AA. Furthermore, the study discovered no appreciable gender variations in AA. Dehyadegary et al. (2012) randomly selected 382 HS students in Iran to investigate the association between AA and PS. Correlation analysis revealed that AA positively correlated with authoritative parenting and negatively correlated with permissive parenting. However, academic success did not significantly correlate with

authoritarian parenting. Besharat et al. (2011) surveyed 371 purposefully selected Iranian HS students to examine the associations between PSs and AA. They found authoritative and authoritarian PSs negatively affected AA, while AA did not significantly correlate with permissive PSs. Garcia and Gracia (2009) randomly selected 1,416 Spanish students for a cross-sectional study to investigate the PS associated with positive outcomes. They found authoritative and indulgent PSs were linked to better outcomes than neglectful and authoritarian PSs. Sapienza et al. (2009) conducted a correlational study on 66 high school students in Germany to explore the relationships between social competence, parental practices, and AA. They found that high AA students were perceived by their parents as socially competent and were raised with more positive parental practices. Moreover, AA was influenced by social competence and parental educational approaches. Pong et al. (2005) surveyed 631 Asian and Hispanic adolescents to explore the relationship between parenting practices, social capital, and school performance across ethnic groups and immigrant generations. They found significant differences in parenting techniques and social capital based on race/ethnicity and generational position. However, these factors did not mitigate ethnic-generational inequalities in academic achievement, even when family socioeconomic status was considered. Darling and Dornbusch (1995) conducted a cross-sectional study on 4,500 students to investigate the association between PSs and AA, psychosocial competence, and adjustment. Regression analysis discovered that supportive parental behavior positively influenced psychosocial competence and school adjustment, while parental authoritativeness was associated with better academic performance. 80 specially chosen secondary-level students (ages 14 to 16) in Uttar Pradesh, India were polled by Prevatt, F. F. (2023) to determine whether PSs would have a moderating influence on the link between risk and protective factors and a direct impact on child outcomes. Positive family attributes were more strongly connected with positive child outcomes, according to hierarchical regression models, while negative family features were more significantly correlated with negative child outcomes. PSs did not significantly alter the connection between risk and protective factors and outcomes, despite having a direct impact on children's outcomes.

2.4.5. Studies on Relations between Academic Achievement and Educational Adjustment

Sánchez-Sandoval and Verdugo (2021) surveyed 831 adolescents to investigate whether academic success and adjustment predict positive peer preferences. Linear regression analysis revealed that EA and good performance significantly predict successful social ties. The SEM that personal and personal-family risk variables pose challenges for teenagers to be accepted by their peers. Similarly, Chauhan (2013) purposively surveyed 111 HS students to assess academic performance and adjustment by gender and grade. The t-test showed that grades (XI & XII) did not significantly impact academic performance and adjustment. Female students exhibited better adjustment, while students with higher achievement scores adjusted comparatively better than those with lower academic performance. Ahmadi et al. (2009) purposively served 400 students in Iran to examine the impact of academic majors on motivation power and EA. They found a significant difference in EA between medical students and other majors, likely due to the demanding nature of medical training. Chi-square analysis indicated that many medical students face significant hardship, leading to subpar academic achievement, academic dishonesty, cynicism, and substance addiction. Balboni and Pedrabissi (1998) conducted a cross-sectional study on 216 students in to investigate the effects of their sociocultural background and parents' expectations on their AA and the relationship between school pupils' adjustment and AA. They found parental expectations and sociocultural background influence the capacity to adjust to academic demands, with a significant relationship between adjustment and achievement.

Bhagat (2017) conducted a study of 200 secondary school students in Jammu Division, India, with the aim of examining the differences between EA and AA with respect to gender and kind of school. According to the t-test results, students at government schools are better at adjusting than those in private schools, and female students are less capable of doing so than male students. Furthermore, a noteworthy correlation was discovered between AA and EA. Similarly, in order to learn more about the emotional, social, and EA of 350 high school students from Tamil Nadu, India, Sekar and Lawrence (2016) conducted a stratified random sampling survey. The correlation between HS students' emotional, social, and EA with regard to AA was found to be significant, according to their coefficient results. Likewise, Kirtania (2019) polled 202 high school students in

North Bengal, India, to investigate school adjustment and AA about their socio-demographic variables. They found no notable variations in AA and social integration between male and female high school students. However, their caste, parents' education, and occupation affect students' school adjustment. Taviyadi and Patel (2014) surveyed 345 HS students selected randomly in South India to investigate the relationship between adjustment and AA. They found significant differences in AA and adjustment between males and females. AA is positively connected with AA. Devi, N. (2011) randomly surveyed 699 high school students in Haryana, India, to examine their adjustment in emotional, social, educational, and overall domains. Correlation analysis revealed that extraversion positively influenced social, academic, and general adjustment, while neuroticism negatively affected emotional, social, educational, and general adjustment. However, achievement motivation did not significantly impact adjustment. ANOVA results indicated that school location and gender did not affect adjustment, but rural students exhibited better social, academic, and overall adjustment than urban students.

2.4.6. Review of the Relationship between Parenting Style and Educational Adjustment

Muarifah et al. (2022) conducted a correlational study on 116 HS school students in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, to explore the influence of PSs on self-adjustment. They found significant relationships between PSs, coping strategies, and self-adjustment, with authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive parenting styles and problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies contributing to self-adjustment. Bhuiyan et al. (2020) conducted a cross-sectional study on 360 students in Urban Dhaka, Bangladesh, to investigate the link between PSs and adolescent adjustment. They found that most parents adopted a permissive parenting style, and gender significantly impacted both PSs and adjustment. Hadjicharalambous and Dimitriou (2020) administered a cross-sectional survey of 336 secondary students to study the relationship between parents' PSs, demographic factors, and students' psychological adjustment and academic performance. They found a positive correlation between authoritative parenting and children's social skills, self-esteem, family relationships, and academic performance, while authoritarian parenting negatively correlated with parental assessments of children's adjustment. Garcia et al. (2020) surveyed 871 students in Spain to examine the connection between parenting approaches and psychological adjustment. Despite variations in parenting

practices across generations, they discovered consistent relationships between parenting methods and psychosocial adjustment. Muza and Muhammad (2020) randomly selected 291 HS students in Nigeria to assess the effect of PSs on school adjustment and reported that democratic, autocratic, and permissive PSs significantly impact students' school adjustment by utilizing ANOVA. Fuentes et al. (2019) investigated relationships between PSs and school adjustment among 437 Spanish adolescents and maintained that parenting related to high acceptance/involvement facilitate successful school transitions for Spanish adolescents, regardless of sex or educational level. Ferrer et al. (2019) conducted a longitudinal study on 1304 Spanish students to examine connections between cyber-aggression, school adjustment, and parental socialization patterns. They found that authoritative and indulgent families showed higher levels of family involvement and academic competency, while authoritarian families displayed higher levels of cyber-aggression behavior. Parra et al. (2019) surveyed 1047 students from Spain and Portugal to examine the impact of parenting styles on adjustment through a correlational study. They found that authoritative and permissive styles were most helpful, with authoritarian style correlating more strongly with psychological distress or maladjustment. Serna and Martínez (2019) surveyed 1043 Spanish students to examine the relationship between parental involvement and school adjustment. They found a positive correlation between parental involvement, academic performance, and school adjustment, emphasizing parental involvement as a protective factor regardless of academic performance. Jaureguizar et al. (2018) conducted a correlational study on 1285 students in Spain to investigate the typologies and aspects of parenting and the correlations between adolescents' adjustment and parenting. They found that the interaction between fathers' and mothers' parenting styles significantly affected clinical maladjustment. Students from families with authoritative fathers and neglectful mothers showed the highest level of clinical maladjustment. Sayyadi et al. (2018) surveyed 370 secondary school students selected randomly from Katsina metropolis to investigate the impact of PSs on school adjustment. Their regression analysis indicated that students reared by authoritative PSs had better school adjustment than students reared by authoritarian and permissive PSs. Desjardins and Leadbeater (2016) conducted a longitudinal study on 240 adolescents in Canada to examine how school adjustment and workforce were predicted by parents' emotional support and psychological control. They found parental emotional support positively predicted adjustment to school and the workforce, while psychological control negatively impacted adjustment. Ahn and Lee (2016) surveyed in Korea, utilizing data

from 2,092 adolescents selected and their SEM results revealed poor PSs more negatively impacted adolescents with chronic illnesses in terms of their self-concept compared to their peers without chronic illnesses. Wang et al. (2016) purposively selected 589 Chinese adolescents for a cross-sectional study to investigate the association between parenting behaviors and school adjustment of adolescents. The SEM analysis revealed that school adjustment challenges mediated the association between certain parenting behaviors and adolescent issue behavior. Additionally, maternal monitoring was found to have a moderately mediated relationship with adolescent problem behavior through school adjustment. Shek (2002) surveyed 229 teenagers in China to investigate the relationship between perceptions of parental qualities and school adjustment. They found adolescents' perceptions of parental traits significantly influenced their psychological well-being and school adjustment. Moreover, maternal characteristics showed a stronger correlation with psychological health and school adjustment compared to paternal qualities. Murray (2009) conducted correlational research with 129 teenagers in the USA to explore the relationship between school adjustment and parent-child relationships. The study found significant variations in student-rated school engagement, competence, and reading proficiency based on the quality of the parent-child connection. Closeness and trust with teachers and unclear expectations in interactions with parents facilitated school adjustment. Chen et al. (2005) conducted a longitudinal study with 535 Chinese students to investigate the moderating effects of peer groups on the relationship between social and academic adjustment and maternal supportive parenting. They found group antisocial-destructive functioning diminished the benefits of supportive parenting on social and academic adjustment. In contrast, group social-cooperative functioning enhanced the positive influence of supportive parenting on developing social and academic competence. Spera (2005) conducted a literature review of 47 studies to examine the relationship between school adjustment and PS. They found PSu and PI are robust predictors of teenage academic success. While PI tends to decrease during adolescence, authoritative parenting practices are often associated with higher levels of academic adjustment. However, these outcomes may vary based on cultural, ethnic, and socioeconomic factors. Adegboyega et al. (2017) surveyed 240 secondary school students in Ogun State, to explore the influence of PS on AA and social adjustment. They found significant differences in social adjustment among teenagers from autocratic, democratic, and permissive parenting families, with those from democratic households exhibiting better social adjustment. Additionally, academic attainment varied

significantly based on PS, with democratic parenting positively impacting AA more than autocratic and permissive parenting. Kaufmann et al. (2000) surveyed 145 students to investigate the relationship between socio-emotional adjustment and authoritative and authoritarian PS. Their findings indicated that authoritative parenting was positively correlated with healthy adjustment and negatively correlated with maladaptive behavior, as reported by parents and teachers. Regression analyses revealed that authoritative parenting better predicted children's competency than maladaptive behavior, and demographic factors like family income, gender, grade level, or ethnicity did not mitigate the impact of PS on adjustment. Ketsetzis et al. (1998) surveyed 161 secondary and 151 higher secondary students to examine the direct and indirect relationships between family relations, school-focused parent-child interactions, child personal characteristics, and school adjustment. Their path analyses showed that children's traits most consistently and positively correlated with school social adjustment did not include self-esteem, while indirect predictors of school adjustment were related to home life and parent-child interaction variables. Chen and Zhou (1997) conducted a cross-sectional study with 128 students and their parents in China to explore the relationship between PS and social and academic adjustment. Their findings indicated that authoritative and authoritarian PSs were strongly correlated with Chinese children's social and intellectual achievement. However, authoritarian parenting was negatively associated with peer acceptance, sociability-competence, distinguished studentship, and AA, while positively associated with aggression. Bronstein et al. (1993) surveyed 136 students from various family backgrounds to compare PS with their offspring's social, psychological, and academic adjustment. They found students in intact homes demonstrated higher adjustment, and parents in married, monogamous households tended to exhibit more positive parenting and co-parenting behaviors. Additionally, parenting and child adjustment differences were observed based on the child's gender and specific family structures.

In Indian studies, Mohanan and George (2022) surveyed 678 HS students in Nagaland, India, to examine the mediating roles of attachment, emotional regulation, and academic self-efficacy between PSs, AA, and school adjustment. Their SEM results revealed that permissive and authoritarian parenting indirectly influenced school adjustment through attachment and emotional regulation, while authoritarian parenting directly impacted AA. Strict maternal PS was notably linked with school adjustment and directly correlated with AA. Similarly, Chandola and Bhanot (2008) surveyed 120 HS students in Uttar

Pradesh, India, to explore the correlation between adjustment and PSs. They found a significant association between students' adjustment and PSs, with children experiencing low parenting displaying more unsatisfactory adjustment than those experiencing positive parenting. Dutta (2016) randomly surveyed 246 secondary school students in Delhi, India, to investigate the relationship between PS and adjustment. They found authoritative parenting was negatively correlated with social adjustment, whereas authoritarian parenting positively correlated with social adjustment.

2.5.0. Research Trends

As of right now, the literature review is involved. Following a thorough examination and assessment of all the papers at his disposal, the researcher determined that 90 of them were mostly pertinent to the topic under investigation. Six domains were used to group the studies: studies on the parenting styles of students from schedule tribes, studies on academic achievement and educational adjustment separately, studies on the relationship between academic achievement and educational adjustment, and studies on parenting style and educational adjustment. The researcher found that parenting style had 8 articles (9%), academic achievement had 6 articles (6%), and educational adjustment had 17 articles (19%), respectively. Further, the concern on relationship analyses between parenting style and academic achievement have 24 articles (27%), educational adjustment and academic achievement have 9 articles (10%), and parenting style and educational adjustment have 26 articles (29%), respectively. Domain-wise distribution of the literature reviewed is shown in the following Fig.-2.1.

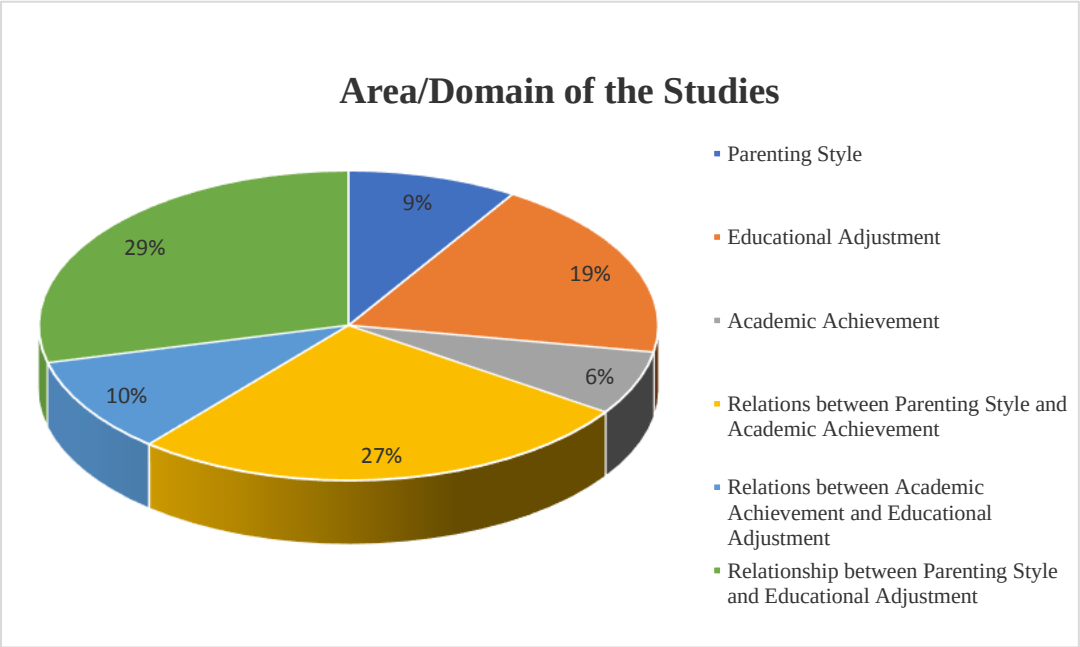

Fig.2.1: Area/Domain wise distribution of the reviewed studies

In terms of the research methods and design employed, the review-based, cross-culturally designed, qualitative (only case study), cross-sectional, longitudinal, and descriptive surveys, as well as co-relational, review-based, cross-culturally designed, and quasi-experimental research designs, were the most commonly used research methods. The following bar graph (fig-2.2) shows that the number of studies conducted through survey, qualitative research, review-based, cross-cultural designed, co-relational, and quasi-experimental methods were 76 (84.44%), 1 (1.11%), 3 (3.33%), 2 (2.22%), 7 (7.78%), and 1(1.11%) respectively. Hence, the research trends revealed that cross-sectional survey methods were the most popular research methods, and they will be suitable and appropriate for further studies in the field.

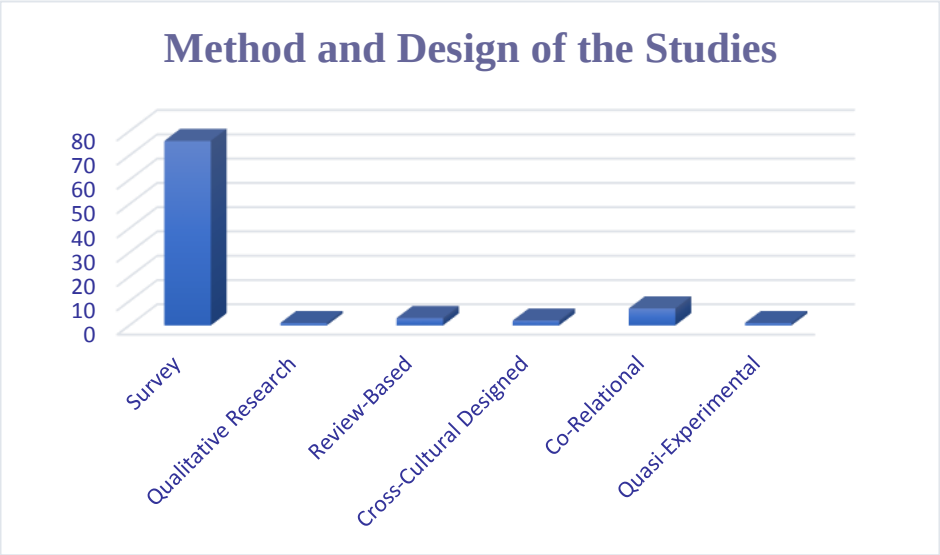

Fig 2.2: Method and Design distribution of the reviewed studies

Further, from the following pie-chart-2.3, while analyzing the trends of location and countries of review literature in this study, the investigator found that most of the studies, i.c, 74 (82%) out of 90 studies, in the area, were conducted abroad only 16 (18%) relevant studies found in India which needs more attention.

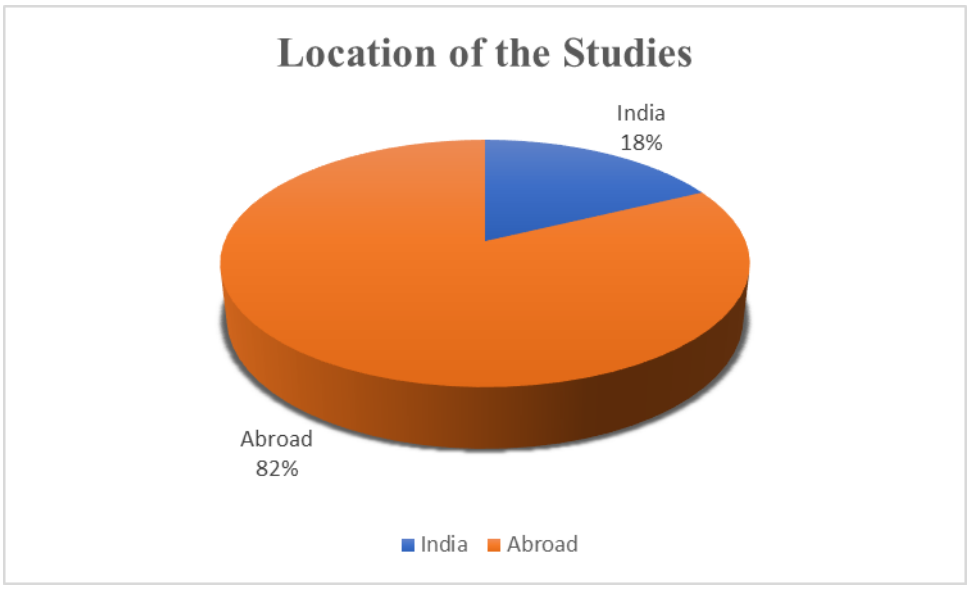

Fig2.3: Location-wise distribution of Reviewed studies

Again, concerning publication years of the studies, the review of these 90 literatures given in the following (figure -2.4) shows that the numbers of relevant studies published

before 1989-1993, 1994-1998, 1999-2003, 2004-2008, 2009-2013, 2014-2018, and 2019-2023 years were 1 (1.11%), 4 (4.44%), 3 (3.33%), 4 (4.44%), 13 (14.44%), 24 (26.67%), and 41 (45.56%) respectively.

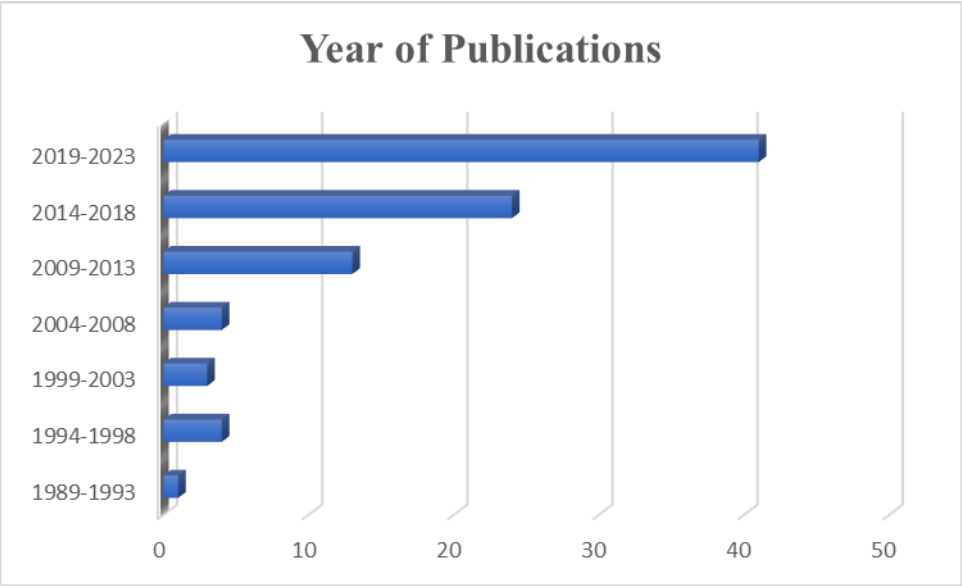

Fig. 2.4: Year-wise distribution of the reviewed studies

The research trend shows very few studies were taken before 2008, whereas from 2009 onwards, gradual progress was observed. Interestingly, the analysis of these studies revealed that during the year 2019-2023, an encouraging number of studies, 41 (45.56%) worldwide, have taken place. This field is becoming more popular, and researchers are showing interest in exploring various aspects of this broad field of research. That means it has great importance and potential research value in the contemporary world. It appears as one of the most fertile areas of study.

CHAPTER-III

PROBLEM STATEMENT

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PROBLEM STATEMENT

3.1.0. Introduction

The current chapter, "Problem Statement," lays the foundation for the following sections, laying the groundwork for the research. This chapter provides readers with a thorough understanding of the study's purpose and its significance in augmenting the existing body of knowledge through an exploration of the rationale, identification of knowledge gaps, articulation of the problem statement, definition of critical terms, clarification of objectives, formulation of hypotheses, and establishment of the study's delimitations.

3.2.0. Assumptions, Background, and Positionality of the Researcher in the Study

The researcher belongs to a tribal family and is an assistant teacher in an HS school in WB. As a member of the tribal community, he faced many problems throughout his academic life. Being a school teacher, he observed and experienced many issues and challenges with tribal students. Notably, his experience has exposed him to a variety of parenting approaches as well as the specific issues that tribal adolescents confront in secondary school. He chose this study because he wanted to learn more about these issues. In this connection, earlier, he did his M.Phil dissertation on the correlation between perceived parenting styles and social adjustment among ST students and gained preliminary ideas concerning the area. However, it had some limitations and was not in-depth. Based on all these earlier experiences, he wants to do extensive work on this issue to understand the scope of these issues thoroughly and, ultimately, to aid tribal teachers, students, parents, community members, and policymakers working on tribal students for their educational and overall well-being.

3.3.0. Rationale of the Study

Comprehending higher secondary (HS) level school students' parenting styles (PSs), particularly those of Scheduled Tribe (ST) students, is crucial for several reasons. It has a significant effect on their academic achievement (AA), social-emotional well-being, school adjustment, and holistic development, as studies revealed that adolescent self-esteem, values internalization, social skills, family relationships, academic performance, and academic self-efficacy are significantly influenced by warmth, authoritative, and permissive parenting (Martinez et al., 2020; Parra et al., 2022; Said et al., 2020; Hadjicharalambous & Dimitriou, 2020). Parent-child relationship quality also influences students' school engagement, competence, and AA Murray (2009). Authoritative parenting positively impacted academic outcomes and outperformed authoritarian and neglectful PSs (Joseph, 2015). Hence, the knowledge of PSs can assist in addressing the difficulties that ST students encounter, such as economic disadvantages, marginalization due to culture, and restricted access to resources. PSs have been studied extensively, with predominant authoritative and neglectful styles (Acosta et al., 2021). For instance, Joseph (2015) reported that most mothers followed authoritative parenting, while a smaller percentage followed authoritarian and neglectful styles. In contrast, permissive parenting was the most common, with smaller percentages following authoritative and negligent styles in the study of Bhuiyan et al. (2020). In the context of ST students, a low level of PSs was identified (Sing, 2016).

Few studies also explored the influence of various demographic factors on PSs. They identified significant associations between parents' age, gender, place of residence, education, family income, occupation, and number of children with PSs (Joseph, 2015; Hadjicharalambous & Dimitriou, 2020). Participants' gender, grade, residential area, family economic level, parental marital relationship, parental educational level, and number of siblings were significant factors for PSs (Zheng et al., 2022; Babu, 2015; Bhuiyan et al., 2020). Yang (2021) also showed that socio-economic status significantly influences high maternal levels of authoritative PS and different modes of fathering style. However, Sing (2016) found that gender, habitat, and family monthly income had no significant impact on PSs, fathering styles, or mothering styles, except for the number of siblings among ST students in WB.

For HS students from Scheduled Tribe (ST) homes, it is crucial to understand the pattern of educational adjustment (EA) and the factors that affect it, particularly demographic characteristics and parenting styles (PSs), for improving academic success and overall well-being in diverse educational settings. Tribal students show more adjustment-related issues than non-tribal students at the secondary school level (Akhtar, 2012; Actovin et al., 2023). They face difficulties in school adjustment due to various socio-demographic factors (Shelly, 2017), such as gender, family type, number of siblings, birth order, father's occupation and education, language, resources, educational level, cultural identity, ethnic and differences (Sing et al., 2023; Jenna et al., 2019; Shelly, 2017; Mistry, 2014). Several scholars revealed differences in gender and family structure in students' adjustment abilities (Barik & Dhara, 2019) while rural (Bhagat' 2017) and male students exhibited higher levels of EA at the secondary level (Bhagat, 2017; Kaur & Gupta, 2021). The study of Gill (2014) indicated that gender may not be an essential factor in school students' educational, social, and emotional adjustment levels. Several other factors, including teacher assistance, peer relationships, parental engagement, child characteristics, family life, and family dynamics, were also reported as playing significant roles in students' academic success, classroom and school social adjustment and adaptation (Ram & Madan, 2021; Ketsetzis et al., 1998; Van Geel & Vedder' 2011).

Further concerning the academic achievement (AA) of rural ST HS students, various studies revealed that demographic factors significantly influence it positively and negatively. Factors such as gender, age, urban/rural locality, family size, income level, self-concept, parental education, socio-economic status, personality traits, and emotional intelligence positively impact the AA of tribal students at the HS level (Jabbar & Zeb, 2011; Puhan & Nibedita, 2017; Khan, 2005; Das & Choudhury, 2016; Hanafi & Noor, 2016; John & Singh, 2015). On the other hand, poor infrastructural facilities, high student-teacher ratios, high levels of student attendance, indigenous status, and insufficient resources negatively contribute to the AA of tribal students (Basu & Chatterjee, 2014; Puhan & Nibedita, 2017; O'Connor et al., 2021). Several studies emphasized the complexity of the relationship between demographic factors and AA among rural tribal students at the HS level, highlighting the need for targeted interventions to address both positive and negative influences.

Concerning the effect of PSs on school adjustment of HS students, studies posit that different PSs significantly affected social adjustment (Muza & Muhammad, 2020), self-

adjustment (Muarifah et al., 2022), behavioral adjustment (Slicker, 1998), and may play a significant role in HS students' coping mechanisms (Aunola, 1999). While family configuration impacted parenting practices (Bronstein,1993), Gong et al. (2020) maintained that family dynamics and parental practices affect children's internalizing, externalizing, general maladjustment problems, and overall adjustment. Parra et al. (2019) and Kaufmann (2000) emphasized the positive effects of authoritative parenting on children's adjustment. Mohanan and George (2022) found that authoritarian and permissive PSs indirectly influenced school adjustment through adolescent attachment and emotional regulation. Sayyadi et al. (2018) indicated that authoritative parenting improved school adjustment and less test anxiety than authoritarian and permissive PSs. Regardless of gender or education, supportive parenting styles were linked to positive school adjustment among Spanish-speaking teens, highlighting the importance of parental involvement and acceptance (Fuentes et al., 2019). Parent self-evaluations were also significant predictors of children's school adjustment, with varying effects observed for mothers and fathers (Ratelle et al., 2016).

Several studies explored the relationship between PSs, school performance, motivation for AA, and AA and showed a positive link between them (Rizwan et al., 2021; Garcia & Serra, 2019; Mihret, 2019). Perceived father-child facial resemblance also influenced academic performance through fathers' caring parenting style (Mengjie et al., 2023). Parental involvement, monitoring, and support contribute significantly to children's positive academic and psychological development and social competency (Prevatt, 2003; Chen et al., 2005), while the controlling profile hinders autonomy development and impairs AA (Teuber et al., 2022). High academic achievers were perceived as socially competent and raised with positive parental practices (Sapienza et al., 2009). Most of the researchers claimed authoritative parenting positively is associated with various cognitive skills and development including AA, academic efficacy, and performance (Sadeghi et al., 2022; Prevatt, 2003; Yasmin & Kiani, 2015; Dehyadegary et al., 2012; Parsasirat et al., 2013; Tsela et al., 2022), while authoritarian parenting negatively causing lower achievement (Sadeghi et al., 2022; Tsela et al., 2022). Authoritative and persistent PSs were associated with higher pro-social behaviors, academic outcomes, and discipline (Carlo et al., 2017; Abd Algani et al. (2021), and authoritative parenting, parent involvement, and self-regulated learning significantly explained variance in AA variance (Amani et al. 2019). Dzever (2015) showed a positive relationship between

permissive PSs and academic performance, whereas a negative correlation was observed in the work of Kiani, 2015 and Dehyadegary et al., 2012. Some studies reported mediated factors between parenting and AA, as well as predictive factors. For instance, Kim and Kim (2021) revealed that self-esteem and academic engagement mediate the relationship between positive PSs and AA. Positive PSs contribute to higher self-esteem and greater academic engagement, which, in turn, lead to improved AA. PSs, including harsh parental control, psychological control, neglectful, authoritarian, and permissive styles, were associated with lower AA with small effect sizes and moderated by child age, ethnicity, parenting, and AA quality in these relationships (Pinquart, 2015). Hayek et al. (2021) found self-efficacy and intention toward getting good grades mediate the relationship between parenting style and AA. Adolescents with authoritative parents are more likely to develop self-efficacy, solid beliefs, and great intentions, leading to superior academic accomplishment than their peers with neglectful parents.

Attempts have been taken to explore the relationship between EA and AA (Sekar, 2016; Taviyadi & Patel, 2014; Gill, 2014). Some of these studies reveal a noteworthy relationship between emotional, social, and EA with AA of HS school students (Sekar, 2016), suggesting that overall adjustment may impact their academic performance (Taviyadi & Patel, 2014). Most of the scholars reported a positive significant relationship between EA and AA among rural ST school students, which means the students with higher AA adjust to school better than those with lower AA and vice versa (Arul & Arul, 2016; Lew, 2013; Chen, 2012; Willems et al., (2021); Pathak, 2022) and Kumar & Tankha (2020). Devi (2015), Winga et al. (2011), and Karimi et al. (2010) reported a low positive relationship between AA and EA among HS tribal students. On the other hand, Pathak and Tiwari (2015) reported a medium-level link between AA and EA for male and female adolescents living in urban and rural areas. Willems et al. (2021) found that EA influences AA more in professional programs at the HS level. Together, these results highlight the significance of EA in determining HS tribal students' AA. School adjustment can be better comprehended when aligned with AA goals (Shim and Finch, 2014). School adjustment difficulties mediate the relationship between parenting behaviors and adolescent problem behavior, and school adjustment is vital in shaping students' behavior (Wang et al., 2016).

Attempts have also been made to understand the relationship between PSs, EA, and AA. For instance, Yazedjian et al. (2009) argued that the quality of parental relationships can

indirectly influence AA through school adjustment. Authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth, support, and clear expectations, is positively associated with EA and AA (Hickman & Crossland, 2004). A supportive and nurturing family environment, combined with authoritative parenting, fosters positive educational adjustment and ultimately enhances academic success. Conversely, autocratic, authoritarian, and permissive PSs, which involve strict or low levels of control and support, negatively impact children's behavioral adjustment and academic achievement (Nicoll, 1992). These children may struggle with EA, leading to lower AA. Additionally, emotional and social factors play significant roles in EA, highlighting the inter-relationship between PS, EA, and AA (Arul & Arul, 2016). These findings underscore the importance of supportive parenting practices in facilitating successful EA and AA in children and adolescents.

Based on the above discussion along with an extensive integrative literature review of 90 studies (Chapter-ii), the review Metrix (Appendix-F), and trend analysis, it is evident that an increasing interest in the areas of research on ST students, PSs, EA, and AA, particularly from 2009 to 2023. Despite the abundance of research, these fields still need the special attention of researchers. Concerning PSs, the distribution of studies across domains showed a significant emphasis on the significance of PSs, the prevalence of various PSs such as warmth, authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, caring, supportive and neglectful PSs, parental involvement, and control, etc. and their influence on students or children's various aspects of development were explored. However, no study comprehensively investigated parental warmth/involvement, parental strictness/supervision subscales of PSs, and authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful PSs.

Reported demographic factors influencing PSs are parents' age, gender, place of residence, family income, occupation, students' gender, grade, residential area, parental marital relationship, parental educational level, and number of siblings. However, studies on ST students reveal inconsistencies in the impact of gender, habitat, and family income on parenting styles. Even though few studies have been conducted on ST students, no study has analyzed perceived PSs among various ST subcastes. It has also been identified that while several studies have examined different types of localities, residences, or habitats as demographic variables, none have exclusively investigated ST students from rural settings. Further, few studies have examined parental education as a significant

factor influencing PSs, with some focusing on either fathers' or mothers' educational levels. However, there have been limited efforts to consider paternal and maternal educational qualifications separately to understand their impacts on PSs. The same scenario is also observed in educational adjustment and academic achievement. Hence, extensive research is needed on the intricate interactions between demographic factors like gender, sub-caste, family income, parental education, and PSs, EA, and AA, exploring variations in PSs, EA, and AA across different subcastes and separately analyze the impact of paternal and maternal education on these variables within the rural ST HS students. Concerning studies on EA among ST HS students, it is noticed that mainly the impact of factors like gender, family type, residence, parental education, teacher assistance, peer relationships, parental engagement, and PSs on students' social, behavioral, school and self-adjustment and adaptation in general and their relationship with other developmental outcomes including academic were the focused areas. However, no study has rarely investigated these factors, concentrating exclusively on the EA of rural tribal HS students. Research on AA of Scheduled Tribe (ST) HS students reveals that demographic factors like gender, age, locality, family size, income level, parental education, and infrastructure quality influence AA. However, though very few studies found where the impacts/influence of socio-demographic factors were measured separately on PSs or EA or AA of rural ST HS students, not a single study comprehensively studied the same altogether.

Research on children's adjustment has shown that family dynamics, parental practices, gender, location, and personality traits influence their academic performance and emotional, social, educational, and general adjustment. Research indicates a positive relationship between EA and AA among HS rural tribal students. Understanding EA is crucial for predicting and supporting academic success in HS rural tribal students, as school adjustment mediates the relationship between parenting behaviors and adolescent outcomes. Further research is needed to explore how cultural, socio-economic, and individual factors interact with EA to influence AA outcomes. Most studies claimed PSs significantly and positively impacted school performance, motivation for AA, AA, academic psychological development, social competency, academic efficacy, pro-social behaviors, and discipline, with substantial literature on AA; authoritative parenting benefits cognitive development, academic efficacy, and school adjustment.

Conversely, authoritarian and permissive styles correlate with lower achievement. Parental involvement, monitoring, and support are crucial for positive development. Despite the growth, there remains a knowledge gap concerning the specific contextual influences of PSs on EA and AA, particularly within diverse cultural and socio-economic settings like ST communities. More research is needed to understand particular parenting behaviors' effects across diverse contexts, exploring how cultural identity and socio-economic disparities influence parental practices and develop culturally sensitive interventions to promote positive EA and AA outcomes among ST students. A few studies investigated the influence of PSs through moderation analysis of specific factors on AA. The studies of gender influence on academic adjustment and achievement revealed contradictory results. No study found where attempts have been made to investigate the family-related influential factors of parenting, adjustment, and AA in a single study.

It is observed that though several studies were conducted on PSs, EA, and AA separately or on the relationship between any two of them, rarely any comprehensive attempt had been taken to explore the relationships among all three variables together, considering the demographics as background variables. No studies have investigated the impact of PSs on EA and AA, the association between Parental Involvement (PI), Parental Supervision (PSu), EA, and AA, the combined effects and predictive value of PI and PSu on the variation in EA and AA, the portion of AA variance influenced by EA, and the collective impact and potential predictiveness role of PI, PSu, and EA on AA variance among rural tribal HS students in WB. Most significantly, most of the studies were conducted abroad, and few studies were found in India, but no such research was found in the WB context. However, in most studies, the rural tribal HS link is missing. A critical knowledge gap exists in understanding cultural factors. That's the main reason the present researcher wanted to comprehensively study PSs, EA, and AA concerning socio-demographic characteristics among rural tribal HS students of WB. Further research should explore nuanced relationships between PSs, AA, and EA, considering diverse demographic and cultural factors, for effective interventions and support strategies tailored to specific contexts and to provide insights for improving academic and social outcomes among ST HS students. In light of the recognized research trends and information gaps in the areas of PSs, EA, and AA among rural tribal students, the following research questions sprang to the researcher's mind:

1. What are the prevalence rates of PSs, EA, and AA of rural tribal students at the HS level?
2. How do demographics influence the PSs, EA, and AA of rural tribal students at the HS level?
3. How are PSs, EA, and AA interconnected, and how do they independently and collectively affect and predict each other among rural tribal students at the HS level?

Hence, a thorough investigation is required to examine the relationship between PSs, EA, and AA among HS level rural ST students in WB while considering various socio-demographic characteristics to provide answers to the concerns raised above and close any information gaps that have been found.

3.4.0. Statement of the Problem

Based on the comprehensive literature review, research trends, research questions, researcher's assumptions and positionality, the above rationale, the identified research gaps, and research questions, the problem for the present study can be stated as "**Interplay Between Parenting Style, Educational Adjustment and Academic Achievement: An Investigation of Rural Tribal Students**."

3.5.0. Operational Definition of the Major Terms Used

Parenting Style: Parenting style is defined as parental efforts aimed at assisting their child in bringing out a child. Parents' parenting style is the strategy or method used to raise and nurture their children.

In the present study, parenting style is operationally defined as a combination of parental warmth or involvement and strictness or supervision among tribal parents using many aspects of child-rearing, such as discipline, communication, emotional support, etc.

Educational Adjustment: Adjustment generally balances an individual's needs and satisfaction (Bhagat, 2017). According to Bhagat (2017), educational adjustment refers to

how students carry out their academic responsibilities and whether or not they achieve their goals.

In the present study, educational adjustment refers to the ability of rural tribal students to adapt and succeed effectively within an educational environment. This adaptability encompasses numerous aspects of a tribal student's academic and social experience, such as learning, social relationships, and overall well-being in the educational context.

Academic Achievement: Academic achievement (AA) refers to a student's level of success in academic pursuits, which is often measured by grades, examination results, and overall performance in educational activities. It reflects how well an individual has met an educational institution's learning objectives and requirements.

In the present study, AA refers to the academic marks obtained by rural tribal HS students in their last final summative evaluation.

Tribal Students: A Tribal is a social group of a simple kind, the members of which speak a standard dialect and act together for such everyday purposes as warfare; a tribal is a territorial human group that is bound together by commonness concerning locality, language, social codes, and economic pursuits. Tribal students refer to the scheduled tribe school-going students studying at a higher secondary level and belonging to rural tribal areas.

3.6.0 Objectives of the Study

The present study was undertaken to meet the following objectives:

1.1. To determine the level of Parental Involvement (PI) and Parental Supervision (PSu) and the prevalent Parenting Styles (PSs) among the rural tribal Higher Secondary (HS) students in West Bengal (WB);

1.2. To compare PI and PSu among rural tribal high students in WB across demographics (gender, family type, sub-caste, Parental education, and family income);

1.3. To explore the influence of demographics (gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and family income) on PS among the rural tribal HS students in WB;

2.1. To examine the extent of Educational Adjustment (EA) among rural tribal HS students in WB;

2.2. To explore how various demographics (gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and family income) affect the level of EA among the rural tribal HS students in WB;

3.1. To investigate the level of academic achievement (AA) among rural tribal HS students in WB;

3.2. To examine variations in AA among rural tribal HS students in WB across demographics including gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and family income;

4.0. To scrutinize the interplay between PSs, EA, and AA among rural tribal HS students in WB;

4.1. To investigate the influence of PSs on EA and AA among rural tribal HS students in WB;

4.2. To explore the association between PI, PSu, EA, and AA among the rural tribal HS students in WB;

4.3. To determine the combined effect and potential predictiveness of PI and PSu on explaining the variance in EA among the rural tribal HS students in WB;

4.4. To determine the combined impact of PI and PSu in explaining the variance in AA among the rural tribal HS students in WB;

4.5. To assess the effect of EA in explaining the variance in AA among the rural tribal HS students in WB;

4.6. To determine the combined impact of PI, PSu, and EA in explaining the variance in AA among the rural tribal HS students in WB.

3.7.0 Hypotheses of the Study

In keeping with the problem formulated and objectives stated, the following hypotheses were proposed to be tested:

- **$H_0$1:** PI and PSu levels do not vary significantly across demographics (gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and family income) among rural tribal HS students in WB.

- **$H_0$2:** Demographics (Gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and familial monthly income) have no significant influence on the PSs of the rural tribal HS students in WB.

- **$H_0$3:** EA is not significantly affected by Demographics (gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and family income) of the rural tribal HS students in WB;

- **$H_0$4:** There is no statistically significant variation in AA among rural tribal HS students in WB across demographics (gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and family income).

- **$H_0$5:** PSs do not significantly influence the EA and AA of rural tribal HS students of WB.

- **$H_0$6:** PI, PSu, EA, and AA of the rural tribal HS students of WB are not significantly associated.

- **$H_0$7:** There is no significant combined effect of PI and PSu in explaining the variance in EA among rural tribal HS students in WB.

- **$H_0$8:** There is no significant combined effect of PI and PSu in explaining the variance in AA among rural tribal HS students in WB.

- **$H_0$9:** EA does not significantly explain the variance in AA among rural tribal HS students in WB.

- **$H_0$10:** The combined effect of PI, PSu, and EA does not significantly explain the variance in AA among rural tribal HS students in WB.

3.8.0. Delimitations of the Study

Due to time and other social constraints, the present study was limited to the following areas:

1. The geographical scope of this study is limited to the Jhargram district in WB.
2. The study is limited to four tribal communities (Santal, Munda, Bhumji, Lodha, Kora, and Borga) in WB.
3. This study's sample comprises only tribal students enrolled in HS levels (Class XI and XII).
4. The present study included only 623 rural tribal HS students as representatives.
5. The current study data were collected from only 16 schools within eight blocks in Jhargram district.
6. The study is limited to measuring the ST students' PSs, EA, and AA.
7. Bengali versions of the questionnaires were used for data collection.
8. Socio-demographic characteristics (independent variables) considered in the study include gender, sub-caste, types of family, family monthly income, father's educational qualification, and mother's educational qualification.
9. The study is limited to administering consent letters, socio-demographic profile sheets, and two questionnaires for collecting data.
10. The study is only limited to Bengali-medium schools under the WBCHSE board.

3.9.0. Conceptual Framework

Based on the theoretical and conceptual perspectives discussed earlier (Chapter I), the researcher developed a conceptual framework visually representing the interplay between PSs, EA, AA, and demographic factors among rural tribal students. Here's the conceptual framework for the study:

1. Independent Variables: Demographic Factors, PSs, EA

2. Dependent Variable: AA

3. Theoretical Links:

Baumrind's Parenting Styles Framework: Classifies parenting into authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful styles, providing insights into how different parenting approaches influence children's educational outcomes.

Lamborn et al.'s Parenting Theory: Extension of Baumrind's parenting styles framework underscores the complexity and variability of parental behaviors and their implications for children's well-being.

Ecological Systems Theory: Examines how parenting styles (microsystem) interact with broader environmental factors (mesosystem, exosystem) to influence educational adjustment and academic achievement.

Social Learning Theory: Illustrates how perceived parental behaviors and attitudes are internalized by children, affecting their educational experiences and academic outcomes.

Bloom's Taxonomy of Education Objectives: Although not directly related to parenting styles, it is relevant for designing assessments and evaluating learning outcomes. It classifies educational objectives into levels of cognitive complexity (remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating).

4. Hypothesized Relationships:

Demographic Factors → PSs, EA, AA: Demographic factors may influence PSs, EA, and AA.

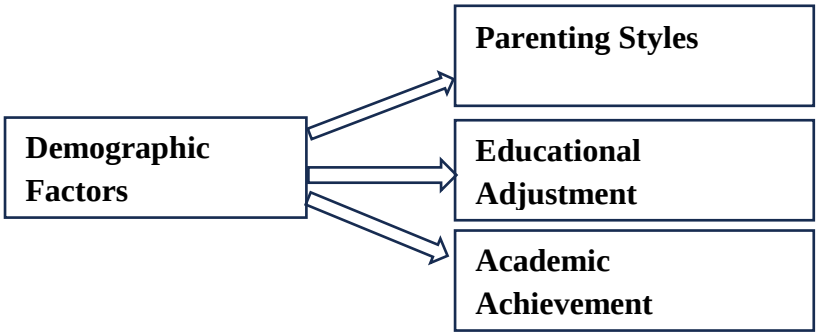
PSs → EA: PSs are hypothesized to influence EA.

PSs → AA: PSs are hypothesized to influence EA.

EA → AA: EA is expected to impact AA.

5. Visual Representation:

5.1. Demographic Factors → PSs, EA, AA



5.2. PSs → EA ⟷ AA

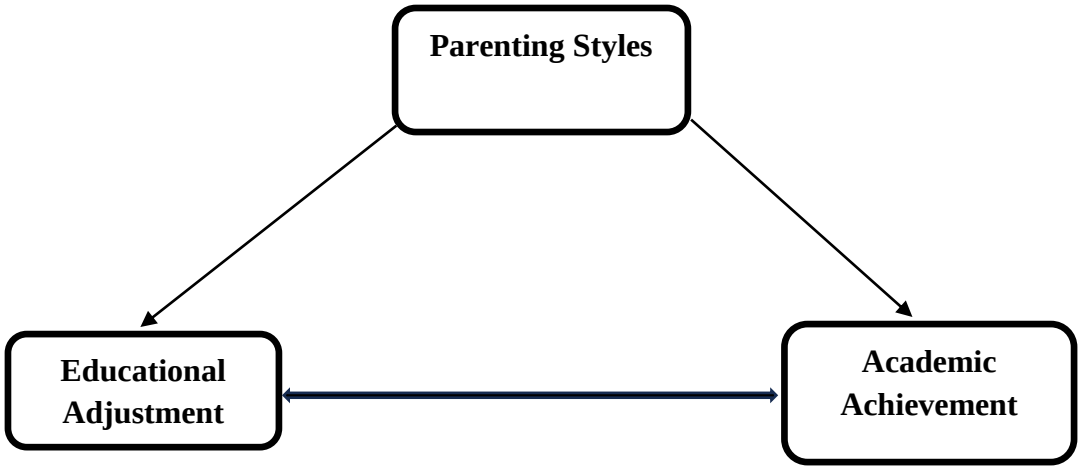


Figure No. 3.1.: Conceptual Framework of the study

By employing this conceptual framework, the researcher tried to systematically investigate the complex interactions between key variables and theoretical constructs in this study, providing valuable insights into the factors influencing educational adjustment and achievement among tribal students. This framework guided data collection, analysis, and interpretation, facilitating a comprehensive understanding of the research phenomena.

CHAPTER-IV

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER-IV
METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

4.1.0. Introduction

This chapter provides a comprehensive guidelinefor the methodology used in the current study. Its objective is to offer a detailed exposition of the research method, the target population, and sample and sampling techniques. Furthermore, it also describes the data collectioninstruments and process, data cleaning and mining, the statistical methods applied for data analysis, the tools utilized for analysis and writing, and the ethical considerations in this study.

4.2.0. Method of the Study

The present cross-sectional survey study examined the interplay between PS, EA, and AA among rural tribal students. This research method is used in social science and other fields to simultaneously collect data from the specified target population (Lavrakas, 2008). A cross-sectional survey enables the researchers to generalize the findings to a large population (Creswell, 2014). As Lavrakas (2008) suggested, researchers employed this design to determine the prevalence or trends related to a common theme observed in the gathered data. Consequently, the researcher deemed this design the most suitable choice for the current study.

4.3.0. Population of the Study

The target population of this study comprises rural tribe students currently attending higher secondary (HS) schools in the Jhargram district. Jhargram is a district located in the state of West Bengal (WB), India. It was established on April 4, 2017, as the 22nd district of WB after being separated from the Paschim Medinipur district. The district spans an area of approximately 3,037.64 km^2. According to the Census of India (2011), Jhargram district had a population of 1,136,548, with 96.52% residing in rural areas and only 3.48% in urban areas. Among the population, 20.11% belonged to Scheduled Castes (SC), and 29.37% belonged to Scheduled Tribes (ST)—most tribal people live in rural areas in the Jhargram district. For this reason, the researcher chose the rural tribal

population. However, according to the West Bengal Council of Higher Secondary Education (WBCHSE), Bikash Vaban, the total number of ST students was 2658 in class XI and 3855 in class XII in the academic year 2023–24. Therefore, the study's total population is 6513 higher secondary ST students in the Jhargram district. Therefore, the Jhargram district is essential for studying ST students. So, the researcher selected ST students, who are studying at higher secondary levels in this district, as the population of the study.

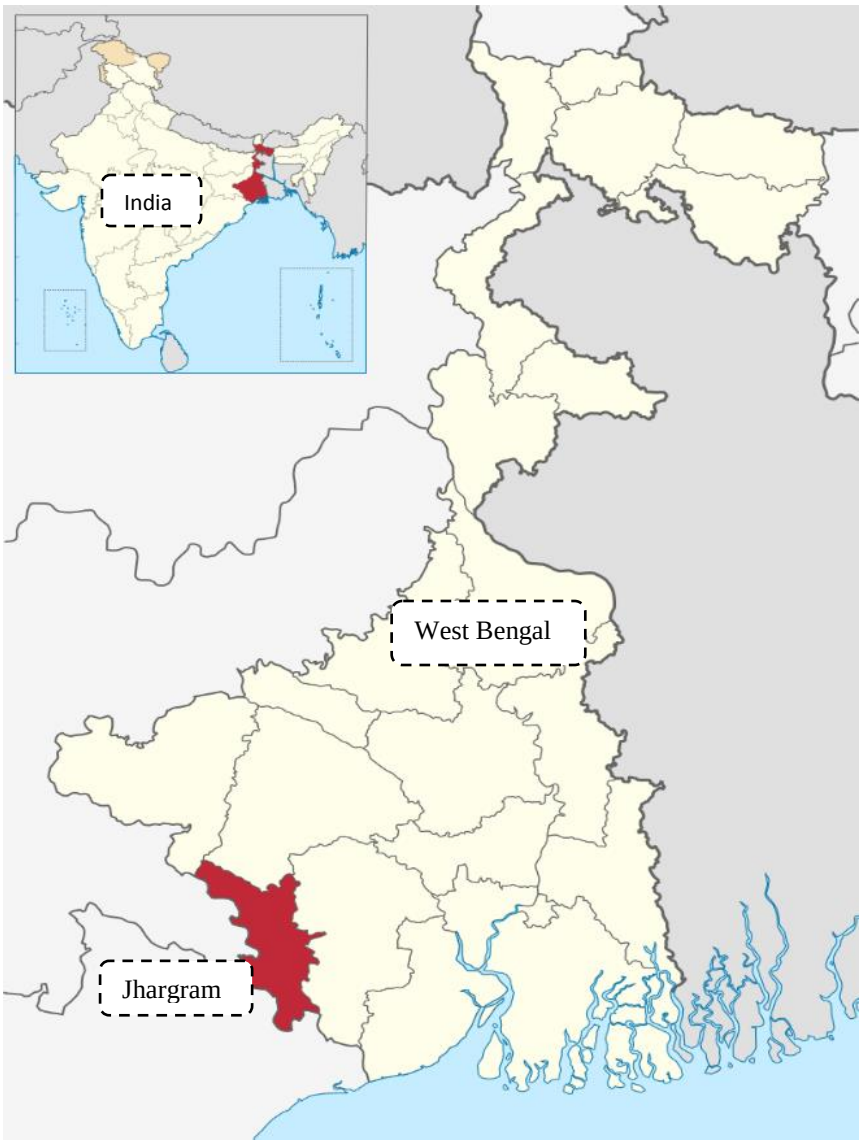


Figure 4.1: Geographical Location of Jhargram District as Population of the Study

4.4.0.Sample of the Study

The sample is a crucial representation of a larger population in survey research. The effectiveness and reliability of any survey research depend on selecting an appropriate

representative sample, which presents a significant challenge to researchers. In this study, the researcher first determined the sample size and then carefully selected the sample.

4.4.1. Sample Size Determination

Sample size determination is necessary for any sample survey's known/unknown population. Using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) formula, the researcher calculated the right sample size for the investigation. This method was adopted to ensure satisfactory representativeness and unbiasedness (Ezugu & Akimbo, 2014). The formula indicates that 363 should be the estimated minimum number of samples for this study's finite population (i.e., 6513). The researcher also cross-validated the sample size determined by Krejcie and Morgan method through the Raosoft sample size calculator [When the 5% margin of error, 95% confidence interval, assuming a response rate of 50% (Aliyu et al., 2019; Ahmat et al., 2018), and the population is 6513, the sample size should be 362] This online software is used because it is straightforward to use and give reliable and valid calculation. The Krejcia and Morgan (1970) formula for sample size determination has been given below.

Formula for determining sample size

$$s = X^2 NP(1 - P) \div d^2 (N - 1) + X^2 P(1 - P)$$

s = required sample size
X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841)
N = the population size
P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size)
d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05)

4.4.2. Sample and Sampling Technique

In this study, the researcher gathered information from 629 students currently enrolled in higher secondary education and the Scheduled Tribescategory. These students were selected from sixteen schools in the Jhargram district of West Bengal. The district was chosen for data collection due to its notable ST population and various subcultures. Jhargram district is divided into eight community development Blocks, and the researcher randomly chose two schools from each for data collection purposes.

The researcher visited each selected school to gather data from classes XI and XII students. During this data collection phase, 629 data points were initially obtained from the 16 schools. However, after a thorough data cleaning process, six incomplete records were identified and subsequently removed from the dataset. As a result, the final sample for this study comprises 623 higher secondary students from ST backgrounds who attend schools in the Jhargram district.

Table No. 4.1.Sample Size of the Study

SL. No.	Block	School's Name	Learning stage	No. of students
1	Gopiballavpur-I	ChhatnasolS.C. High School (HS)	XI&XII	120
		Bansda S.C. High School (HS)	XI&XII	
2	Gopiballavpur-Il	Saria Tribal High School (HS)	XI&XII	107
		DhansolAdibasi High School (HS)	XI&XII	
3	Nayagram	Patina SC High School (HS)	XI&XII	54
		Chandabile S.C. High School (HS)	XI&XII	
4	Jhargram	Ektal D. M. High School (HS)	XI&XII	57
		JhargramBanitirtha High School (HS)	XI&XII	
5	Sankrail	Rohini C. R. D. High School (HS)	XI&XII	64
		Rohini Balika Vidyalaya (HS)	XI&XII	
6	Binpur-I	Binpur High School (HS)	XI&XII	72
		BanpukhuriaAhladi High School (HS)	XI&XII	
7	Binpur-II	Beipahari S.C. High School (HS)	XI&XII	81
		Bamundiha High School (HS)	XI&XII	
8	Jamboni	Chichra High School (HS)	XI&XII	68
		Dharsa Deshbandhu Adarsha Vidyamandir (HS)	XI&XII	
Total				623

Table No. 4.2. Sample Distribution of the Study

Sl.No.	Variables	Classification	Frequency(N)	Percentage (%)
1	Gender	Male	299	48.0 %
		Female	324	52.0 %
2	Sub-Caste	Santal	465	74.6 %
		Munda	108	17.3 %
		Bhumji	16	2.6 %
		Lodha	24	3.9 %
		Kora and Borga	10	1.6 %
3	Types of family	Joint family	87	14.0 %
		Nuclear family	536	86.0 %
4	Familial Monthly Income	Up to 10,000	553	88.8 %
		10,001 to 20,000	53	8.5 %
		Above 20,000	17	2.7 %
5	Father's Educational Qualification	Illiterate	136	21.8 %
		Class-I to IV	83	13.3 %
		Class-V to VIII	187	30.0 %
		Class-X to X	141	22.6 %
		HS and Above (Class-XI to XII or Graduate)	76	12.2 %
6	Mother's Educational Qualification	Illiterate	260	41.7 %
		Class-I to IV	87	14.0 %
		Class-V to VIII	183	29.4 %
		Class-Ix to X	72	11.6 %
		HS and Above (Class-XI to XII or Graduate)	21	3.4 %

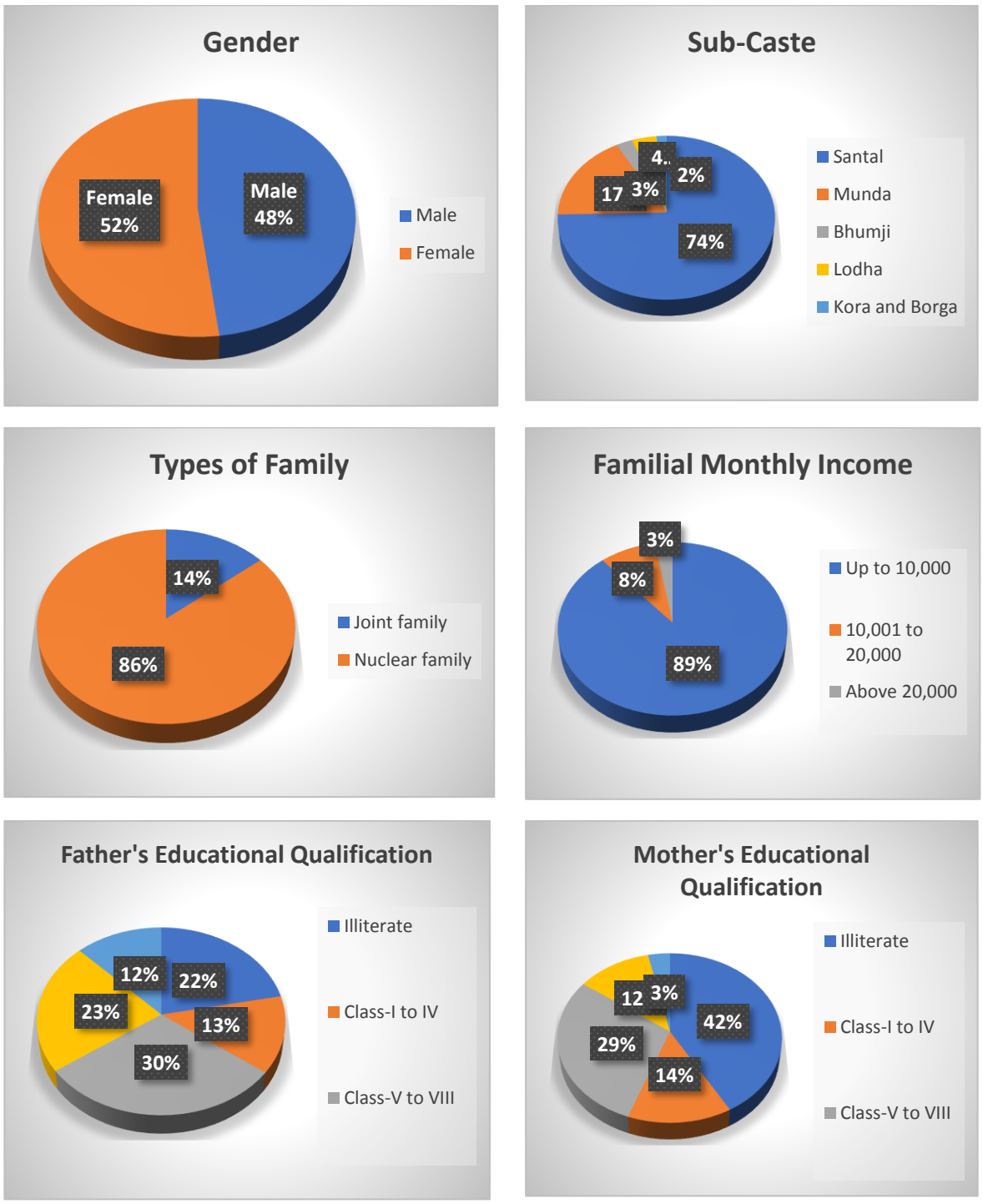


Fig 4.2: Sample Distribution of the Study

4.5.0. Major Variables of the Study

A variable is a characteristic, attribute, or factor that can be measured, observed, or manipulated as part of an investigation (Peecher & Solomon, 2001). In this research, variables can be divided into two broad categories, i.e., Sociodemographic Variables

(Independent Variables) and Measured Variables (Dependent Variables). A comprehensive description of these variables is presented below.

4.5.1. *Sociodemographic Variables*

In the current study, it is essential to note that some demographic variables are treated as independent variables. Independent variables are influential factors that can affect the dependent variables. The following independent variables have been considered in this study. Below is a thorough explanation of each of the independent variables.

1. **Gender:**Gender is consideredindependent and influences dependent variables.It has been categorized into two groups: Boys and Girls.
2. **Sub-caste:** Sub-caste is an independent variable representing subdivisions within more prominent tribal castes. It is divided into five categories: Santal, Munda, Bhumij, Lodha, and Kora & Borga.
3. **Types of Family:** Family type is included as an independent variable and classified into two categories: joint and nuclear family.
4. **Parent Educational Qualification:**
   - **4.1.Fathers'educational qualifications:**The father's educational qualifications are considered an independent variable and classified into five categories: Illiterate, Class I to IV, Class V to VIII, Class IX to X, and Class XI to XII or Graduate.
   - **4.1.Mothers' educational qualification:**Similarly, the mother's academic qualification is considered an independent variable and classified into five categories: Illiterate, Class I to IV, Class V to VIII, Class IX to X, and Class XI to XII, or Graduate.
5. **Family monthly income:** As an independent variable, family monthly income is categorized into three groups: up to 10000, 10001–20000, and above 20000.

4.5.2. *Measured Variables*

Measured variables are those variables that are evaluated through numerical values. Sometimes, these measured variables are also known as Dependent or Outcome Variables. The present study considered parenting style and its dimensions, educational adjustment, and academic achievement as the measured variables. Details of these measured variables are provided below:

1. **Parenting style:**In the current study, parenting style (PS) has two significant dimensions or subscales: 1) parental warmth/involvement (PI) and 2) parental

strictness/supervision (PSu). PS and its dimensions (PI and PSu) are treated as dependent and independent variables. These variables served a dual role, functioning as both an independent variable during regression analysis and a dependent variable when assessing mean differences.

2. **Educational adjustment:** In this study, educational adjustment was treated as the independent variable (at the time of the regression analysis) and the dependent variable (at the time of testing mean difference).
3. **Academic achievement:**In the current study, Academic achievement refers to the marks obtained in participants' last academic test or examination (secondary and Class XI exams). This variable is treated as the dependent variable.

4.6.0. Tools for Data Collection

In the present study, the researcher employed four instruments to obtain primary data from the selected representatives, i.e.,consent letter, sociodemographic profile sheet, and two questionnaires designed to assess parenting style (for both fathers and mothers) and educational adjustment. All participants were kindly asked to respond to each component of these instruments. Detailed descriptions of each instrument are provided below:

4.6.1. Consent Latter

The researcher gave participants a consent letter with essential details about the study. This consent letter included the research title, the identities of the investigator and supervisor, the research objectives, background information, descriptions of the research tools, the target participants, brief instructions of the tools, the confidentiality of responses, and a request for voluntary participation in the study, as well as the provision of relevant data.

4.6.2. Sociodemographic Profile Sheetof the Participants

This sociodemographic profile sheet collected and recorded participants' sociodemographic and personal information. It consists of 16 items. The items are as follows- 1. Name, 2.Gender(male/female/others), 3. Age(year), 4. Class,5.Sub-cast, 6.Habitat,7.Family type (joint family/nuclear family),8.Member of family, 9.Siblings, 10.Birthing order, 11.Father occupation, 12.Mother occupation, 13.Father educational qualification, 14.Mother educational qualification, 15. Marks obtained in the last examination, 16. Total marks of last exam, 17. Family income(less than 10000, 10001-20000, 20001-30000, 30001-50000,50001-80000, above80001).

4.6.3. Adjustment Inventory for the School Students

This inventory has been developed by Sinha and Singh(2013). It was a Likert-type scale comprising 60 items under three dimensions or sub-scales, i.e.,emotional, social, and educational adjustment; each dimension has 20 itemswith three choices, viz. Always, Sometimes and Never. Of 60 items, 23 were negative, and 37 were positive.In the current study, the investigator used only educational adjustment to measure the educational adjustment of ST school students.The educational adjustment sub-scale had 20 items. Of 20 items, 10 were negative, and 10 were positive. For the 10 positive items with three choices, a score of 0 was assigned for always, 1 for sometimes, and 2 for forever. Scoring for the negative items was reversed. The researcher translated this sub-scale into the Bengali language.Completing this Scale takes only 15 minutes. In this tool, statements are given in simple sentences, and it is requested that the students to put a tick mark in the response box. A high score indicates unsatisfactory adjustment, and a lower score indicates better adjustment.

Table No. 4.3. Scoring System

Types of items	Always	Sometimes	Never
Positive	2	1	0
negative	0	1	2

4.6.3.1. Technical Information about the Scale

The researcher used a part of this tool to measure educational adjustment. The reliability coefficient of the original Scale (educational adjustment) was 0.96. Previous researchers also used this Scale and reported similar or higher reliability coefficients than the original study. While using the tool in this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study on 77 representatives to ensure the reliability and usability of the test. The results of the pilot study are given in the below table.

Table No. 4.4. Reliability Coefficient of the Tool

Tool	**Dimension of the Scale**	**Reliability coefficient**	
Sinha & Singh (2013).	Educational Adjustment	Split-half	0.96
		Test-retest	0.93
		K-R Formula-20	0.96
Pilot study	Educational Adjustment	Cronbach’s Alpha	0.805
		Split-half	0.847

4.6.4. Parenting Style Scale

This scale was developed by Lamborn et al. (1991). The researcher used this Scale to measure the parenting style of ST students.The researcher and his supervisor translated and adapted the tool into Bengali.This Scale was a Likert-type scale consisting of 19 items. This Scale has two dimensions: parental warmth/involvementand Parental Strictness/Supervision. First, parental warmth/involvement constitutes items (i.e., items 1-10). Out of these ten items,the first 5 items have 2 choices (viz." usually true" and "usually false"), next3 items have 3 choices (viz. "never," "sometimes," and "usually"), and last 2 items having 4 choices, (viz., "almost every day," "a few times a week," "a few times a month," and "almost never"). Similarly, Parental Strictness/Supervision has 9 items (i.e., items no. 11-19). The out of 9 items, the first 2 items having 7 choices, (viz."Not allowed out," "Before 8:00", "8:00 to 8:59," "9:00 to 9:59," "10:00 to 10:59," "11:00 or later," and "As late as I want,") and then 2 items has 2 choices,(viz. "Yes" and "No"), following 3 items has 3 alternatives,(viz. are"Don't try," "Try a little," "Try a lot"). The last 3 items have 3 choices(viz. are"Don't know" Know a little," Know a lot").

There were each parent's level of involvement and supervision was measured using 10 items for involvement or warmth and 9 items for strictness or supervision. The fathers' involvement was calculated by adding up the scores from the 10 items related to their involvement, while their supervision score was derived from the 9 items assessing their supervision style. Similarly, the mothers' involvement score was obtained by summing up their scores on the 10 involvement-related items, and their supervision score was determined based on the 9 items evaluating their supervision approach.

The Parental Involvement score was calculated as the average of fathers' and mothers' involvement, while the Parental Supervision score was determined similarly using their supervision levels. These scores were divided into two categories based on median values: scores up to the median were considered as low involvement or low supervision, whereas scores above the median were labeled as high involvement or high supervision. These distinctions were used to identify four types of parenting styles based on the levels of involvement and supervision. Which are:

1. High involvement and high supervision indicate Authoritative Parenting Style.
2. Low involvement and high supervision indicate Authoritarian Parenting Style.
3. High involvement and low supervision indicate Indulgent Parenting Style.
4. Low involvement and low supervision indicate Neglectful Parenting Style.

Table No. 4.5. The Dimensions and their Respective Items and the Scoring Procedure for the Parenting Style Scale

Dimensions of Parenting Style Scale			
SL.NO.	Dimension of the Scale	Serial-wise item No.	No. of Items
I	ParentalWarmth/Involvement	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10	10
II	Parental Strictness/Supervision	11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19	9
		Total	19

Scoring Parental of Warmth/Involvement Items	
Scoring System for five responses	
Usually, true	Usually, false
2	1

Scoring System for three responses		
Never	Sometimes	Usually,
1	2	3

Scoring System for two responses			
almost every day	a few times a week	a few times a month	almost never
4	3	2	1

Scoring Parental Strictness/Supervision items						
Scoring System for two responses						
Not allowed out	Before 8:00	8:00 to 8:59	9:00 to 9:59	10:00 to 10:59	11:00 or later	As late as I want
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Scoring System for one response	
Yes	No
2	1

Scoring System for three responses		
Do not try	Try a little	Try a lot
1	2	3

Scoring System for three responses		
Don’t know	Know a little	Know a lot
1	2	3

4.6.4.1 Technical Information about the Scale

The original Scale's Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients were α =.72 for parental warmth/involvementand α =.76 for parental strictness/supervision. Various other researchers also used this Scale and reported similar or higher reliability coefficients than the original study. While using the tool in this study, the researcher conducted a pilot study on 77 representatives to ensure the test's reliability and usability. The results of the pilot study are given in the below table.

Table No. 4.6. Reliability Coefficient of the Tool

Tool	Dimension of the Scale	Reliability coefficient
Lamborn et al. (1991)	Parental Warmth/Involvement	Cronbach's α - 0.72
	Parental Strictness/Supervision	Cronbach's α - 0.76
Pilot study	Parental Warmth/Involvement	Split-half- 0.970
	Parental Strictness/Supervision	Cronbach's Alpha- 0.937

4.6.5. Academic Achievement

In the present study, AA refers to the marks obtained by students in the last academic end-term examination. The researcher did not conduct any academic achievement tests. He collected AA data as marks obtained and total marks of participants in the last academic examination using the 'Sociodemographic Profile Sheet of the Participants.' These marks are converted into the percentage for analysis. WBBSE and WBCHSE give the grading system for categories the AA score given below,

Table No. 4.7: Grading System of WBBSE and WBCHSE

Grading System for Secondary Education (Class-X)						
90-100%	80-89%	60-79%	45-59%	35-44%	25-34%	Below 25%
AA	A+	A	B+	B	C	D
Outstanding	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Satisfactory	Marginal	Unsatisfactory
Grading System for Higher Secondary (Class-XI)						
80-100%	60-79%	45-59%	30-44%	Below 30%		
A+	A	B	C	D		
Excellent	Very Good	Good	Satisfactory	Disqualification		

4.7.0. Data Collection Procedure

To gather data for this study, the researcher had to meet with potential volunteers in person and introduce themselves before outlining the goal and topic of the study. Upon obtaining their voluntary consent, participants were given a detailed consent letter, which they were instructed to read thoroughly and sign. Subsequently, participants were handed questionnaires, including the Consent Form, demographic data sheet, Parenting Style Scale, and Educational Adjustment Inventory, with specific instructions to read and respond to each item carefully. The researcher converted these instruments for ease of use. Data collection commenced following approval from the Research Advisory Committee (RAC) and with a bona fide letter from the research supervisor. While 629 participants were approached, only 623 returned fully completed questionnaires. This comprehensive data collection process occurred between August 26, 2022, and October 27, 2022, adhering to ethical standards and ensuring high-quality data collection.

4.8.0. Storage and Protection of Data

4.8.1. Data Screening

In the research, the initial step involved evaluating participant responses to ensure the survey questionnaires were completed in full. The screening criteria included retaining responses that had completed consent and survey questions. Notably, declining to provide demographic information was not considered a reason to exclude participant responses. Following the data screening process, which involved data mining and cleaning, all collected data were consolidated into a single Microsoft Excel file. This file was securely stored on the researcher's personal computer. It is crucial to emphasize that the stored data were accessible exclusively to the present researcher.

4.8.2. Tabulation of Data

A systematic and sequential tabulation of data was carried out to facilitate further analysis and interpretation aimed at drawing meaningful inferences related to the study's objectives. The raw data collected from 623 higher secondary ST students was meticulously tabulated within an MS Excel spreadsheet. This structured method of tabulating data thoroughly examines the study objectives and is an essential starting point for the subsequent analysis phases.

4.9.0. Statistical Analysis

The researcher securely accessed the MS Excel spreadsheet stored on his computer during the statistical analysis phase. To analyze the data effectively, the researcher utilized SPSS-20 software. To achieve this, the data from the MS Excel spreadsheet was initially transferred into an SPSS data sheet. Subsequently, a wide range of statistical analyses were conducted using this software, with the guidance and assistance of the research supervisor. This collaborative approach ensured an accurate and comprehensive examination of the data for research purposes.

4.9.1. Outliers

The researcher first checked the normality of the data by running Skewness and Kurtosis statistics. Subsequently, to identify and review outliers, SPSS was utilized to calculate the interquartile ranges through Tukey's hinges output values. Boxplots were generated to identify data values outside the +1.5 and -1.5 interquartile ranges (outside the third and first quartiles, respectively) and extreme outliers with data values outside the +3 and -3 interquartile ranges. If any outliers were removed, they were communicated in the final analysis and report of findings.

4.9.2. Descriptive Data Analyses

Specific descriptions for the personal demographic profile ofST students at the highersecondary level, such as gender, grade, sub-cast,types of family, father educational qualification,mother educational qualification, and family income, are provided through frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. Chapter V of the thesis presents descriptive information regarding the distribution of educational adjustment and academic achievement, the dimensions of parenting style, and their corresponding scores for higher secondary ST students.

4.9.3. Parametric Analysis

Parametric statistics, a specialized branch of inferential statistics, is employed in this study for hypothesis testing and drawing meaningful inferences. The parametric statistic consists of a combination of descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. Specifically, the researcher applied Pearson correlation analysis to examine the relationships between parenting style, educational adjustment, and academic achievement among higher secondary ST students. The significant mean differences in the dependent variables based on the sociodemographicparameters were assessed using ANOVA and independent

sample t-tests. Based on the results of the correlation study, regression analyses were also performed to look into the effects of parenting styles and educational adjustments on academic achievementamong higher secondary ST students. These parametric analyses collectively contribute to testing the research hypotheses.

4.9.3.1. Parametric Assumptions

The parametric assumptions of data normality were assessed through Skewness and Kurtosis statistics. The outliers were also checked. The range accepted for skewness and kurtosis is ±2 and ±7, respectively (Bryne, 2010); Curran et al. (1996). Similarly, Kline (2005) considered Skewness and Kurtosis variation up to ±3 and ±10. Next, a secondary assessment of normality was conducted using the Shapiro-Wilk test, which was expected to yield no significant results to assume normality. After conducting the normality tests, a Q-Q plot displayed observed and expected values. A successful normality test should display values in a straight line. The homogeneity of the variance would then be observed with a histogram and a box-and-whisker plot to allow for outliers to be examined and addressed. At the significance level of 0.05, each hypothesis was tested.

4.9.4. Analysis Design of The Study

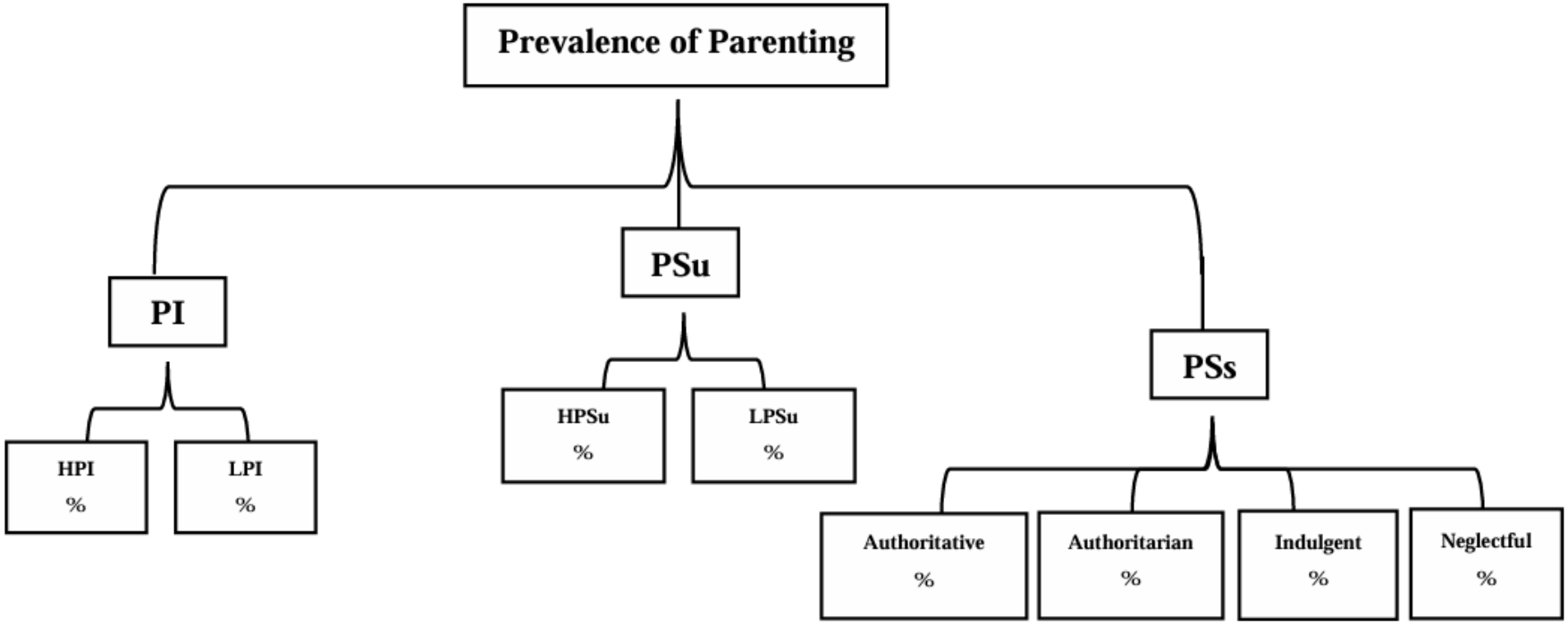


Figure 4.3: Analysis Design 1

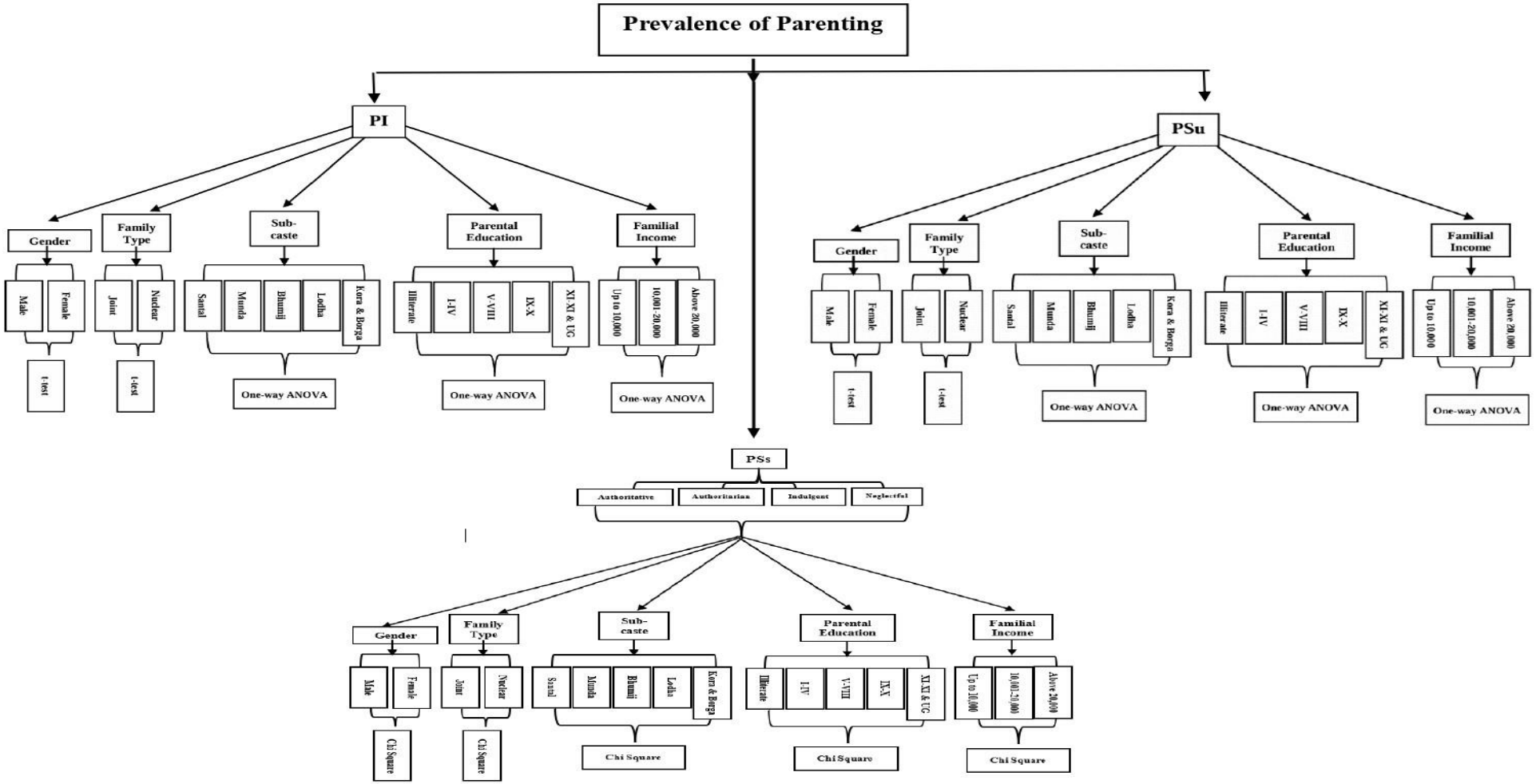


Figure 4.4: Analysis Design 2

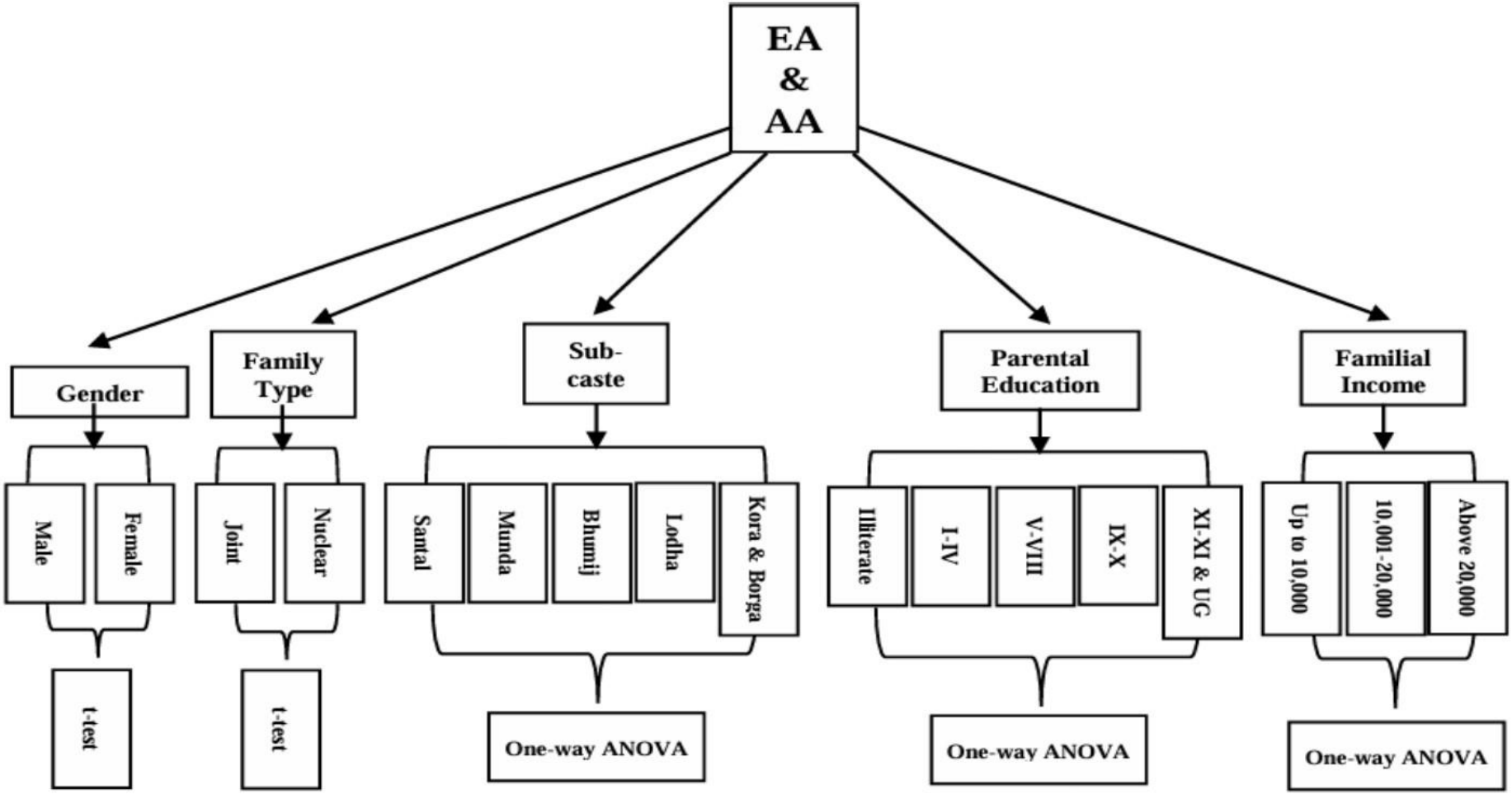


Figure 4.5: Analysis Design 3

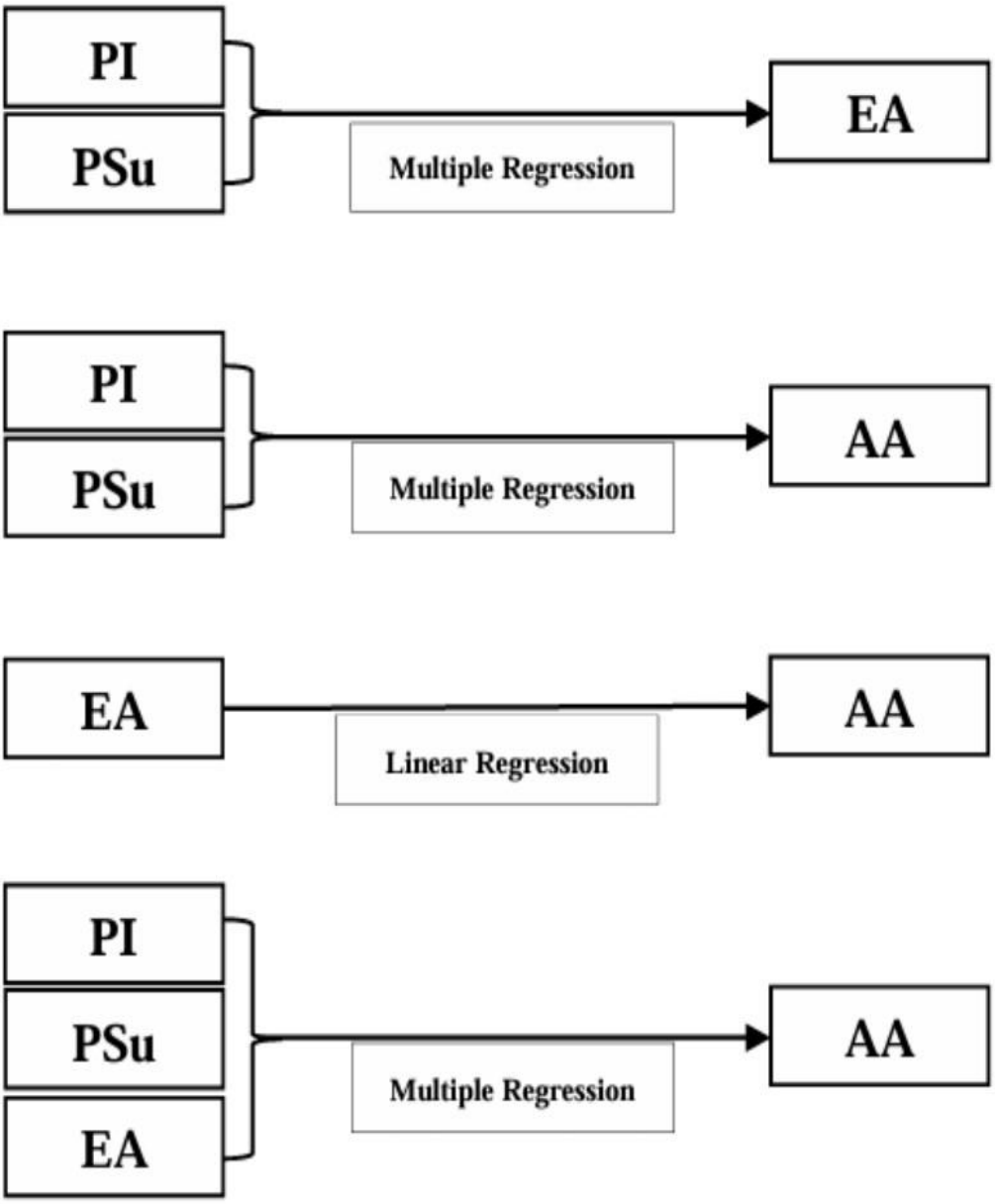


Figure 4.6: Analysis Design 4

4.10.0. Tools Used for Data Analysis and Report Writing

The researcheremployed MS Excel 2021 to store and manage the collected data and create tables and graphs. Additionally, IBM SPSS-20 softwarewereutilized for the analysis of the data. For writing the research report (thesis), he used MS Word 2021. He also used AI tools, i.e., Chat-GPT-3.5 developed by OpenAI, SciSpeace, Quillbot, Grammarly, etc., to enhance the language quality, generate, summarise, paraphrase, rewrite, concise the content, and remove grammatical mistakes and plagiarism.

4.11.0. Assumptions, Limitations, and Ethical Considerations

The assumptions, limitations, and ethical considerations have been discussed to communicate the study's validity. This encompasses factors such as input errors and data accuracy, along with any other potential obstacles and relevant information essential for guiding future research efforts. It is important to note that statistical assumptions for correlation analysis and normal distribution have been made in relevant sections within this document, specifically in the sections that delve into correlation and statistical methods.

4.11.1. Assumptions

One assumption underlying this study was that participants would provide honest, accurate, and friendly survey responses, correctly identifying themselves as Scheduled Tribe students at the higher secondary level. Additionally, it was assumed that this honesty and accuracy would contribute to protecting participants' personal information, encompassing demographic details and survey responses.

4.11.2. Limitations

This study relied entirely on self-reported responses from participants, assuming that these reports were accurate and impartial. Moreover, participants were exclusively contacted about the study, which may have limited the depth of data collected.

4.11.3. Ethical Considerations

Throughout this survey research, ethical principles were diligently upheld. The study aimed to enhance our understanding of the relationships between variables without making causational claims. The correlational study commenced after obtaining approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to ensure ethical compliance. In all

communication with potential participants, we provided clear and comprehensive information about the study's purpose and topic, ensuring that there was no element of coercion or undue pressure in our messages. Before conducting the research, informed consent forms were administered, and participants' signatures were obtained per the standards set by Jadavpur University, the Research Advisory Committee (RAC), and the broader scientific community. The principles of confidentiality and anonymity were rigorously maintained, and no identifiable information was collected that would necessitate disclosure. Moreover, throughout the study, a keen focus was placed on ensuring accurate data input, enhancing the study's overall validity and applicability for making informed claims.

CHAPTER-V

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

CHAPTER-V

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1.0. Introduction

This chapter covers data analysis, interpretation, and presentation. It involves employing statistical techniques to analyze the available data. The chapter serves as the foundation for the entire study. Any study must include data analysis and interpretation since they are the basis for the research findings. As a result, without this portion, the research work is always incomplete.

5.2.0. Analysis and Interpretations

5.2.1. Data Normality

Before going to descriptive statistics and hypothesis testing, the researcher first checked the data normality among the representatives for Academic Achievement (AA), Educational Adjustment (EA), Parental Involvement (PI), and Parental Supervision (PSu) through the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, Shapiro-Wilk test, Skewness (Sk) and Kurtosis (Ku). The test results are in the table below: 5.1a and 5.1b.

Table No. 5.1a: Showing the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test Statistics

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
AA	.069	623	.000	.974	623	.000
EA	.076	623	.000	.984	623	.000
PI	.091	623	.000	.962	623	.000
PSu	.140	623	.000	.892	623	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

Table No. 5.1b: Representing the Sk and Ku Statistics and its Standard Error

		Statistic	Std. Error
AA	Sk	.320	.098
	Ku	-.711	.195
EA	Sk	-.146	.098
	Ku	.971	.195
PI	Sk	-.066	.098
	Ku	1.711	.195
PSu	Sk	-1.025	.098
	Ku	.365	.195

Interpretation

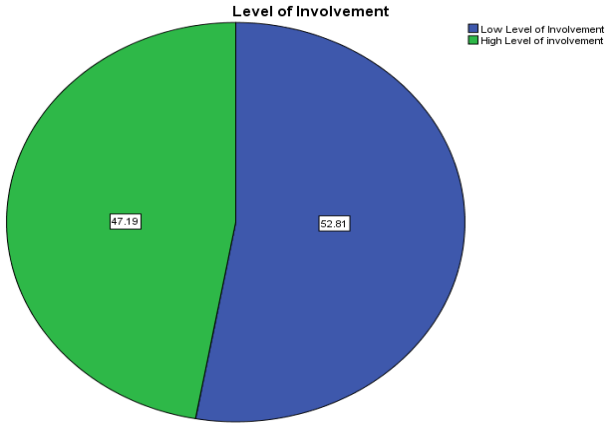
The basic assumption of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk tests is the data is usually distributed among the sample units. The test statistics show that the *p*-value (Sig.) is less than 0.05 for AA, EA, PI, and PSu. A significant result in these tests rejects the normality assumptions and indicates that the data distribution is non-normal. As a result, the researcher further calculated the Sk and Ku statistics. Data is regarded as usual in the Sk and Ku tests when the Sk statistic is zero and the Ku statistic is .263. The deviation in these values indicates the non-normality of the data. However, some empirical evidence exists in social sciences where a statistical deviation of 1 to 7 is considered normal or near normal. Curran et al. (1996) considered up to 2 variations for Sk and 7 for Ku. Similarly, Kline (2005) considered the variation between Sk and Ku to be 3 and 10. Following Curran et al. (1996) and Kline (2005), the researcher in this study assumed that the distribution among the representatives was expected because the Sk and Ku statistics for AA, EA, PI, and PSu were all within the considered range of variation.

5.2.2. Distribution of PI, PSu, and PSs

5.2.2.1. Level of PI

Table No. 5.2 and Figure No. 5.1: Depicting the Level of PI

Level of PI					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low Level of PI	329	52.8	52.8	52.8
	High level of PI	294	47.2	47.2	100.0
	Total	623	100.0	100.0	



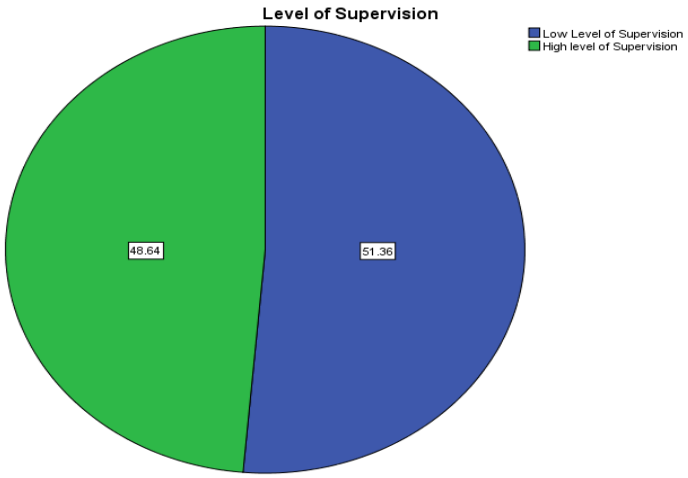
Interpretation

The above table 5.2 and Figure 5.1 reflect that out of 623 schedule tribe(ST) students, 329 students (52.8%) reported a low level of PI, and 294 students (47.2%) reported a high level of PI. This means most ST students PI (52.8%) is low.

5.2.2.2. Level of PSu

Table No. 5.3 and Figure No. 5.2: Depicting the Level of PSu

Level of PSu					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low Level of PSu	320	51.4	51.4	51.4
	High level of PSu	303	48.6	48.6	100.0
	Total	623	100.0	100.0	



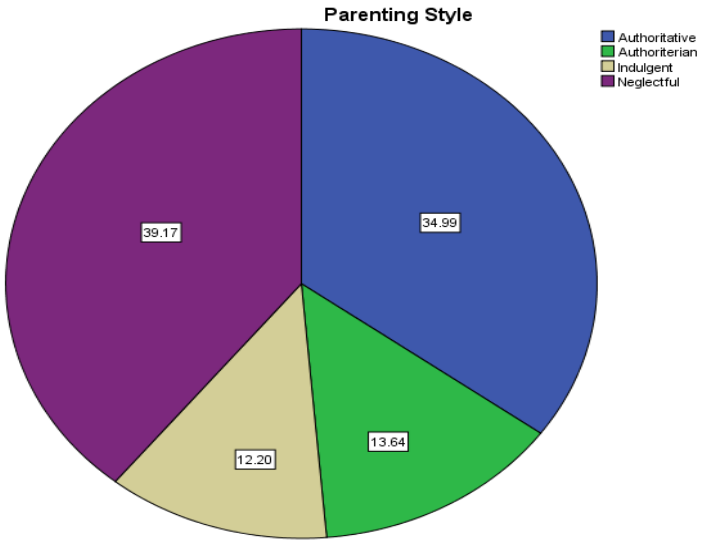
Interpretation

Table no. 5.3 and figure no. 5.2 reflects that out of 623 ST students, 320 students (51.4%) reported a low level of parental PSu, and 303 students (48.6%) reported a high level of PSu. This means most of the ST students PSu (51.4%) are low.

5.2.2.3. Distribution of PSs

Table No. 5.4 and Figure No. 5.3: Depicting the distributions of PSs

PSs					
PSs		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Authoritative	218	35.0	35.0	35.0
	Authoritarian	85	13.6	13.6	48.6
	Indulgent	76	12.2	12.2	60.8
	Neglectful	244	39.2	39.2	100.0
	Total	623	100.0	100.0	



Interpretation

Above table no. 5.4 and figure no. 5.3 reflects that out of 623 ST students, 218 students (35%) face an authoritative PS, 85 students (13.6%) face an authoritarian PS, 76 students (12.2%) face an indulgent PS, and 244 students (39.2%) faces neglectful PS. This means most ST students, i.e., 35% and 39.2%, face authoritative and neglectful PS.

5.2.3. Comparison of PI and PSu across Demographics among rural tribal higher secondary (HS) students in West Bengal (WB)

$H_0$1: *PI and PSu levels do not vary significantly across demographics (gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and family income) among rural tribal HS students in WB.*

5.2.3.1. Comparison of PI and PSu about Gender

Table No. 5.5: Gender-wise Comparison of PI and PSu

Gender	N	PI				PSu			
		M	SD	MD	t (*p*)	M	SD	MD	t (*p*)
Female	299	20.91	2.53	1.51	6.779	30.79	3.42	5.89	14.565
Male	324	19.40	3.00		(.000)	24.90	6.18		(.000)

Interpretation

Table no. 5.5 represents the independent samples t-test results for PI and PSu concerning the participants' gender. It shows that the mean score of PI for female students (i.e., 20.91) is higher than for male students (i.e., 19.40), and the mean score difference between them is 1.51, which is statistically significant (p=.000<0.05). Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PI among rural tribal students concerning gender.

The table also shows that the mean score of PSu for female students (i.e., 30.79) is much higher than for males (i.e., 24.90), and the mean score difference between them is 5.89, which is statistically significant (p=.000<0.05). Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PSu among rural ST students concerning gender.

5.2.3.2. Comparison of PI and PSu Concerning Type of Family

Table No. 5.6: Type of Family Wise Mean Comparison of PI and PSu

Type of Family	N	PI				PSu			
		M	SD	MD	t (*P*)	M	SD	MD	t(*P*)
Joint Family	87	20.48	2.64	.412	1.23 (.217)	27.48	5.97	-.279	-.414 (.685)
Nuclear Family	536	20.07	2.92			27.76	5.82		

Interpretation

Table no. 5.6 represents the independent sample t-test results for PI and PSu concerning their family type. It shows that the mean score of PI for joint family students (i.e., 20.48) is higher than for nuclear family (i.e., 20.07), and the mean score difference between them is .412, which is statistically not significant (p=.217>0.05). Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PI among rural tribal students concerning their family type.

The table also shows that the mean score of PSu for nuclear family students (i.e., 27.76) is higher than joint family (i.e., 27.48), and the mean score difference between them is -

.279, which is statistically not significant (p=.685>0.05). Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PSu among rural ST students concerning their family type.

5.2.3.3. Comparison of PI and PSu Concerning Sub-Caste

Table No. 5.7 (A): Sub-Caste Wise Mean Comparison of PI and PSu

Sub-Caste	N	PI				PSu			
		M	SD	df	F (p)	M	SD	df	F (p)
Santal	465	20.14	2.87	4/618	7.656 (.000)	27.93	5.67	4/618	8.477 (.000)
Munda	108	20.31	2.68			27.91	5.61		
Bhumij	16	21.40	2.86			28.59	4.13		
Lodha	24	17.40	2.91			21.22	7.63		
Kora & Borga	10	22.00	1.35			30.05	4.41		
Total	623	20.12	2.88	622		27.72	5.83	622	

Table No. 5.7(B): Sub-Caste Wise Multiple Comparisons of PI and PSu

Dependent Variable	Sub-caste (I)	Sub-caste (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
PI	Santal	Munda	-.17470	.30146	.562
		Bhumij	-1.27077	.71760	.077
		Lodha	2.73965*	.59077	**.000**
		Kora and Borga	-1.86452*	.90202	**.039**
	Munda	Bhumij	-1.09606	.75602	.148
		Lodha	2.91435*	.63689	**.000**
		Kora and Borga	-1.68981	.93288	.071
	Bhumij	Lodha	4.01042*	.91088	**.000**
		Kora and Borga	-.59375	1.13768	.602
	Lodha	Kora and Borga	-4.60417*	1.06226	**.000**
PSu	Santal	Munda	.02237	.60921	.971
		Bhumij	-.65934	1.45014	.650
		Lodha	6.70524*	1.19384	**.000**
		Kora and Borga	-2.11559	1.82283	.246
	Munda	Bhumij	-.68171	1.52779	.656
		Lodha	6.68287*	1.28705	**.000**
		Kora and Borga	-2.13796	1.88519	.257
	Bhumij	Lodha	7.36458*	1.84073	**.000**
		Kora and Borga	-1.45625	2.29907	.527
	Lodha	Kora and Borga	-8.82083*	2.14664	**.000**

Interpretation

Table no. 5.7 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for PI and PSu concerning their sub-caste. It shows that the mean score of PI for students who belong to the Kora and Borga (i.e., 22.00) community is highest, comparatively to Bhumij (21.40), Munda (20.31), Santal (20.14), and Lodha (17.40) community students. This means that students from the Kora and Borga communities have higher PI than students from other communities. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=7.656, *p*=.000<0.05) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PI among rural tribal students concerning their sub-caste. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.7 (B)] on PI through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between Santal and Lodha (*p*=.000<0.05), Santal and Kora and Borga (*p*=.039<0.05), Munda and Lodha (*p*=.000<0.05), Bhumij and Lodha (*p*=.000<0.05), and Lodha and Kora and Borga (*p*=.000<0.05).

In the case of PSu, the same table also shows that the mean score is highest among Kora and Borga community students (i.e., 30.05), followed by Bhumij (i.e., 28.59), Santal (i.e., 27.93), Munda (i.e., 27.91) and Lodha (i.e., 21.22) community students. This means that students from the Kora and Borga communities have higher PSu than others. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=8.477, *p*=.000<0.05) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PSu among rural tribal students concerning their sub-caste. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.7 (B)] on PSu through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between Santal and Lodha (*p*=.000<0.05), Munda and Lodha (*p*=.000<0.05), Bhumij and Lodha (*p*=.000<0.05), Lodha and Kora and Borga (*p*=.000<0.05).

5.2.3.4. Comparison of PI and PSu Concerning Parental Education

5.2.3.4.1. Comparison of PI and PSu Concerning Fathers' Educational Qualification

Table No. 5.8 (A): Fathers' Educational Qualification Wise Mean Comparison of PI and PSu

Fathers Educational Qualification	N	PI				PSu			
		M	SD	df	F (*p*)	M	SD	df	F (*p*)
Illiterate	136	20.14	3.162			27.26	6.16		
Class-I to IV	83	19.47	2.793			27.47	5.61		

Class-V to VIII	187	19.60	3.101	4/618	5.847 (.000)	27.03	6.17	4/618	2.538 (.039)
Class-IX to X	141	20.74	2.473			28.54	5.71		
Class XI to XII or Graduate	76	20.91	2.134			29.01	4.51		
Total	623	20.12	2.882	622		27.72	5.84	622	

Table No. 5.8 (B): Fathers' Educational Qualification Wise Multiple Comparisons in LSD Test on PI and PSu

Dependent Variable	(I) Father's Educational Qualification	(J) Father's Educational Qualification	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
PI	Illiterate	Class-I to IV	.66748	.39532	.092
		Class-V to VIII	.54178	.31985	.091
		Class-IX to X	-.60484	.34111	.077
		Class-XI- to XII or Graduate	-.77109	.40647	.058
	Class-I to IV	Class-V to VIII	-.12570	.37433	.737
		Class-IX to X	-1.27232*	.39265	**.001**
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-1.43857*	.45059	**.001**
	Class-V to VIII	Class-IX to X	-1.14662*	.31655	**.000**
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-1.31287*	.38608	**.001**
	Class-IX to X	Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-.16625	.40387	.681
PSu	Illiterate	Class-I to IV	-.21120	.80928	.794
		Class-V to VIII	.23529	.65478	.719
		Class-IX to X	-1.27430	.69831	.069
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-1.74187*	.83211	**.037**
	Class I to IV	Class-V to VIII	.44649	.76632	.560
		Class-IX to X	-1.06310	.80383	.186
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-1.53068	.92244	.098
	Class V to VIII	Class-IX to X	-1.14662*	.31655	**.000**
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-1.31287*	.38608	**.001**
	Class IX to X	Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-.16625	.40387	.681

Interpretation

Table no. 5.8 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for PI and PSu concerning their fathers' educational status. It shows that the ST students whose fathers' educational qualifications are class-XI to XII or graduate (20.91) have higher PI than class-IX to X (20.74), Illiterate (20.14), class-V to VIII (19.60) and up to class-I to IV (19.47). It means that students whose fathers' educational qualification is Class-XI to XII or Graduate level have higher PI than fathers' lower educational status. And the one-way ANOVA shows

that (F=5.847, *p*=.000<0.05) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PI among rural tribal students based on their fathers' educational qualifications. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.8 (B)] on PI through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between class-I to IV and class-IX to X (*p*=.001<0.05), class-I to IV and class-XI to XII or graduate (*p*=.001<0.05), class-V to VIII and class-IX to X (*p*=.000<0.05), class-V to VIII and class-XI to XII or graduate (*p*=.001<0.05) educated fathers.

The same table also shows that the ST students whose fathers' educational qualifications are class-XI to XII or graduate (29.01) have higher PSu comparatively to class-IX to X (28.54), up to Class-I to IV (27.47), Illiterate (27.26) and Class-V to VIII (27.03). This means that students whose fathers' educational qualifications are Class-XI to XII or Graduate level have higher PSu and comparatively lower educational status than fathers. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=2.538, *p*=.039<0.05) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PSu among rural tribal students based on their fathers' educational qualifications. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.8 (B)] on PSu through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between illiterate fathers and class-XI to XII or graduate fathers (*p*=.037<0.05), class-V to VIII and class-IX to X (*p*=.000<0.05), class-V to VIII and class-XI to XII or graduate (*p*=.001<0.05) educated fathers.

5.2.3.4.2. Comparison of PI and PSu Concerning Mothers' Educational Qualification

Table No. 5.9 (A): Mothers' Educational Qualification-wise Mean Comparison of PI and PSu

Mothers Educational Qualification	N	PI				PSu			
		M	SD	Df	F (*p*)	M	SD	df	F (*p*)
Illiterate	260	19.76	3.08	4/618	7.257 (.000)	27.27	6.11	4/618	2.652 (.032)
Class-I to IV	87	19.12	2.55			26.57	6.02		
Class-V to VIII	183	20.66	2.79			28.32	5.53		
Class-IX to X	72	21.02	2.45			28.96	5.58		
Class-XI to XII or Graduate	21	20.64	1.96			28.62	4.01		
Total	623	20.12	2.88	622		27.73	5.83	622	

Table No. 5.9(B): Mothers' Educational Qualification-wise Multiple Comparisons of PI and PSu

Dependent Variable	(I) Mother's Educational Qualification	(J) Mother's Educational Qualification	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
PI	Illiterate	Class-I to IV	.60831	.34999	.083
		Class V to VIII	-.89744*	.27266	**.001**
		Class IX to X	-1.25855*	.37631	**.001**
		Class XI to XII or Graduate	-.87363	.64104	.173
	Class-I to IV	Class V to VIII	-1.50575*	.36798	**.000**
		Class IX to X	-1.86686*	.45020	**.000**
		Class XI to XII or Graduate	-1.48194*	.68703	**.031**
	Class-V to VIII	Class IX to X	-.36111	.39311	.359
		Class XI to XII or Graduate	.02381	.65104	.971
	Class-IX to X	Class XI to XII or Graduate	-1.48194*	.68703	**.031**
PSu	Illiterate	Class I to IV	.68302	.71936	.343
		Class V to VIII	-1.05044	.56043	.061
		Class IX to X	-1.68910*	.77347	**.029**
		Class XI to XII or Graduate	-1.34982	1.31761	.306
	Class I to IV	Class V to VIII	-1.73347*	.75635	**.022**
		Class IX to X	-2.37213*	.92534	**.011**
		Class XI to XII or Graduate	-2.03284	1.41212	.150
	Class V to VIII	Class IX to X	-.63866	.80799	.430
		Class XI to XII or Graduate	-.29938	1.33816	.823
	Class IX to X	Class XI to XII or Graduate	.33929	1.44044	.814

Interpretation

Table no. 5.9 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for PI and PSu concerning their mothers' educational status. In PI, it shows that the ST students whose mothers' educational status is illiterate, up to class-I to IV, class-V to VIII, class-IX to X, and class-XI to XII or graduate, their mean scores are 19.76, 19.12, 20.66, 21.02 and 20.64 respectively. It means that students whose mothers' educational status is class-IX to X have higher PI than other categories. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=7.257,

p=.000<0.05) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PI among rural tribal students based on their mothers' educational qualifications. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.9 (B)] on PI through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between illiterate and class-V to VIII (*p*=.001<0.05), illiterate and class-IX to X (*p*=.001<0.05), class-I to IV and class-V to VIII (*p*=.000<0.05), class-I to IV and class-IX to X (*p*=.000<0.05), class-I to IV and class-XI to XII or graduate (*p*=.031<0.05), class-IX to X and class-XI to XII or graduate (*p*=.031<0.05) educated mothers.

In PSu, the same table also shows that the ST students whose mothers' educational status is illiterate, up to class-I to IV, class-V to VIII, class-IX to X, and class-XI to XII or graduate, their mean scores are 27.27, 26.57, 28.32, 28.96 and 28.62 respectively. It means that students whose mothers' educational status is class-IX to X have higher PSu than other categories. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=2.652, *p*=.032<0.05) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PSu among rural tribal students based on their mothers' educational qualifications. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.9 (B)] on PSu through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between illiterate and class-IX to X (*p*=.029<0.05), class-I to IV, and class-V to VIII (*p*=.022<0.05), class-I to IV and class-IX to X (*p*=.011<0.05) educated mothers.

5.2.3.5. Comparison of PI and PSu Concerning Monthly Family Income

Table No. 5.10 (A): Monthly Family Income Wise Mean Comparison of PI and PSu

Monthly Family Income	N	PI				PSu			
		M	SD	Df	F (*p*)	M	SD	df	F (*p*)
Up to 10,000	553	20.11	2.90	4/618	.014 (.363)	27.85	5.76	4/618	5.124 (.006)
10,001 to 20,000	53	19.93	2.77			25.60	6.59		
Above 20,000	17	21.05	2.47			30.12	3.95		
Total	623	20.12	2.8	622		27.72	5.84	622	

Table No. 5.10 (B): Monthly Family Income Wise Multiple Comparisons of PI and PSu

Dependent Variable	(I) Familial Monthly Income	(J) Familial Monthly Income	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
PSu	Up to 10,000	10,001 to 20,000	2.24885*	.83406	**.007**
		Above 20,000	-2.26502	1.42828	.113
	10,001 to 20,000	Above 20,000	-4.51387*	1.61678	**.005**

Interpretation

Table 5.10 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for PI and PSu concerning their monthly family income status. In PI, the mean scores of 553 ST students from up to 10,000, 53 students from 10,001 to 20,000, and 17 students from above 20,000 monthly family income group are 20.11, 19.93, and 21.05, respectively. Students above the 20,000 family monthly income group have higher PI than other groups. Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=0.014, p=.363>0.05) the result is not significant. Hence, it indicates no significant difference in PI among rural tribal students concerning their family monthly income.

In PSu, the same table also shows that the mean score of 553 ST students from up to 10,000, 53 students from 10,001 to 20,000, and 17 students from above 20,000 monthly family income group are 27.85, 25.60, and 30.12, respectively. Students above the 20,000-family monthly income group have higher PSu than others. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=5.124, p=.006<0.05) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in PSu among rural tribal students concerning their family monthly income. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.10 (B)] on PSu through the LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between those ST students who belong to up to 10,000 and 10,001 to 20,000 (p=.007<0.05), 10,001 to 20,000 and above 20,000 (p=.005<0.05) monthly family income families.

5.2.4. Influence of Demographics on PSs among the rural tribal HS students

$H_0$2: Demographics (Gender, family type, sub-caste, father's educational qualification, mother's educational qualification, and familial monthly income) have no significant influence on the PSs of the rural tribal HS students in WB.

5.2.4.1. Influence of Gender on PSs

Table No. 5.11: Gender Wise Mean Comparison of PSs

Crosstab							
Gender of Students			PSs				Total
			Authoritative	Authoritarian	Indulgent	Neglectful	
Female		Count	155	58	27	59	299
		% within the Gender of the Student	51.8%	19.4%	9.0%	19.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	24.9%	9.3%	4.3%	9.5%	48.0%
Male		Count	63	27	49	185	324
		% within the Gender of the Student	19.4%	8.3%	15.1%	57.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	10.1%	4.3%	7.9%	29.7%	52.0%
Total		Count	218	85	76	244	623
		% within the Gender of the Student	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%
			Value	**df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**		
Pearson Chi-Square			120.757[a]	3	.000		

Interpretation

Table no. 5.11 represents the distribution of PSs of tribal students concerning the child's gender (reported by the students). It shows that out of 623 students, 299 were females, and 324 were males. In the case of female students, 155 (51.8%) reported authoritative parenting, 58 (19.4%) students reported authoritarian parenting, 27 students (9%) reported indulgent parenting and only 59 students (19.7%) reported neglectful parenting. In the case of male (N=324) students, only 63 students (19.4%) reported authoritative parenting, 27 students (8.3%) reported authoritarian parenting, 49 students (15.1%) reported indulgent parenting, and 185 students (57.1%) reported neglectful parenting. This means that parents are more authoritative for female students and more neglectful of male students. The results of Pearson Chi-square indicated that PSs significantly varied concerning their gender (p=.000<0.05).

5.2.4.2. Influence of Family Type on PSs

Table No. 5.12: Type of Family Wise Mean Comparison of PSs

Crosstab							
			PSs				Total
			Authoritative	Authoritarian	Indulgent	Neglectful	
Type of Family	Joint Family	Count	32	9	14	32	87
		% within Type of Family	36.8%	10.3%	16.1%	36.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	5.1%	1.4%	2.2%	5.1%	14.0%
	Nuclear Family	Count	186	76	62	212	536
		% within Type of Family	34.7%	14.2%	11.6%	39.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	29.9%	12.2%	10.0%	34.0%	86.0%
Total		Count`	218	85	76	244	623
		% within Type of Family	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.302[a]	3	.512

Interpretation

Table no. 5.12 represents the distribution of PSs of the parents of tribal students concerning their family type of child (reported by the students). It shows that out of 623 students, 87 students belong to a joint family, and 536 students are from a nuclear family. In the case of joint family, 32 (36.8%) students reported authoritative parenting, 9 (10.3%) students reported authoritarian parenting, 14 (16.1%) reported indulgent parenting, and 32 (36.8%) reported neglectful parenting. On the other hand, in the case of the nuclear family, 186 (34.7%) reported authoritative parenting, 76 (14.2%) students reported authoritarian parenting, 62 (11.6%) reported indulgent parenting, and 212 (39.6%) reported neglectful parenting. Therefore, the result indicates that the nuclear family's children are more neglected than the joint family. Further, Pearson's Chi-Square results confirmed that the tribal students' PSs who belong to joint families do not significantly differ from that of nuclear families (p=.512>0.01).

5.2.4.3. Influence of Sub-Caste on PSs

Table No. 5.13: Sub-Caste Wise Mean Comparison of PSs

Crosstab						
Sub-Caste of the Student		PSs				Total
		Authoritative	Authoritarian	Indulgent	Neglectful	
Santal	Count	167	63	58	177	465
	% within	35.9%	13.5%	12.5%	38.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	26.8%	10.1%	9.3%	28.4%	74.6%
Munda	Count	38	17	10	43	108
	% within	35.2%	15.7%	9.3%	39.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	6.1%	2.7%	1.6%	6.9%	17.3%
Bhumij	Count	6	1	5	4	16
	% within	37.5%	6.3%	31.3%	25.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	1.0%	0.2%	0.8%	0.6%	2.6%
Lodha	Count	1	3	1	19	24
	% within	4.2%	12.5%	4.2%	79.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	0.2%	0.5%	0.2%	3.0%	3.9%
Kora and Borga	Count	6	1	2	1	10
	% within	60.0%	10.0%	20.0%	10.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	1.0%	0.2%	0.3%	0.2%	1.6%
Total	Count	218	85	76	244	623
	% within	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%

	Value	**df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	29.834[a]	12	.003

Interpretation

Table no. 5.13 represents the distribution of PSs of the parents of tribal students concerning their sub-caste of the student (reported by the students). It shows that out of 623 ST students, 465 belong to the Santal community, 108 are from Munda, 16 are from Bhumij, 24 are from Lodha, and 10 are from the Kora & Borga community. In the case of the Santal community, 167 (35.9%) students reported authoritative parenting, 63 (13.5%) students reported authoritarian parenting, 58 (12.5%) reported indulgent parenting, and 177 (38.1%) reported neglectful parenting. Out of 108 students from the

Munda community, 38 (35.2%) students reported authoritative parenting, 17 (15.7%) students reported authoritarian parenting, 10 (9.3%) reported indulgent parenting, and 43 (39.8%) reported neglectful parenting. And out of 16 students from the Bhumij community, 6 (37.5%) students reported authoritative parenting, 1 (6.3%) student reported authoritarian parenting, 5 (31.3%) reported indulgent parenting, and 4 (25.0%) reported neglectful parenting. Out of 24 students from the Lodha community, 1 (4.2%) student reported authoritative parenting, 3 (12.5%) students reported authoritarian parenting, 1 (4.2%) reported indulgent parenting, and 19 (79.2%) reported neglectful parenting. Out of 10 students from the Kora and Borga community, 6 (60.0%) students reported authoritative parenting, 1 (10.0%) student reported authoritarian parenting, 2 (20.0%) reported indulgent parenting, and 1 (10.0%) reported neglectful parenting. In the context of the sub-caste, most students belonging to the Santal community showed a neglectful PS. Further, Pearson's Chi-Square results confirmed that the PSs of tribal students were significantly influenced by their sub-caste (p=.003<0.01).

5.2.4.4. Influence of Parental Education on PSs

5.2.4.4.1. Influence of Fathers' Educational Qualification on PSs

Table No. 5.14: Fathers' Educational Qualification-wise Mean Comparison of PSs

Crosstab						
Father's Educational Qualification		PSs				Total
		Authoritative	Authoritarian	Indulgent	Neglectful	
Illiterate	Count	48	14	21	53	136
	% within	35.3%	10.3%	15.4%	39.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	7.7%	2.2%	3.4%	8.5%	21.8%
Class-I to IV	Count	25	16	5	37	83
	% within	30.1%	19.3%	6.0%	44.6%	100.0%
	% of Total	4.0%	2.6%	0.8%	5.9%	13.3%
Class-V to VIII	Count	52	32	19	84	187
	% within	27.8%	17.1%	10.2%	44.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	8.3%	5.1%	3.0%	13.5%	30.0%
Class-IX to X	Count	61	17	18	45	141
	% within	43.3%	12.1%	12.8%	31.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	9.8%	2.7%	2.9%	7.2%	22.6%

HS and Above (Class-XI to XII or Graduate)	Count	32	6	13	25	76
	% within	42.1%	7.9%	17.1%	32.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	5.1%	1.0%	2.1%	4.0%	12.2%
Total	Count	218	85	76	244	623
	% within	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%

	Value	**df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	24.778[a]	12	.016

Interpretation

Table no. 5.14 represents the distribution of PSs of tribal students concerning their father's educational qualifications (reported by the students). It shows that out of 623 students, 136 students mentioned that their fathers are illiterate, 83 students stated that their father's educational qualifications are class-I to IV, 187 students' fathers are class-V to VIII pass, 141 students mentioned their father's qualifications are class-IX to X, and 76 students stated their father's qualification are higher secondary level or graduate level. Of a total of 136 illiterate fathers, 48 (35.3%) are authoritative, 14 (10.3%) are authoritarian, 21 (15.4%) are indulgent, and 53 (39.0%) are neglectful. Similarly, out of 83 class-I to IV pass fathers, 25 (30.1%) are authoritative, 16 (19.3%) are authoritarian, 5 (6.0%) are indulgent, and 37 (44.6%) are neglectful fathers. Of a total of 187 class V to VIII qualified fathers, 52 (27.8%) are authoritative, 32 (17.1%) are authoritarian, 19 (10.2%) are indulgent, and 84 (44.9%) are neglectful. Of a total of 141 fathers who are qualified class-IX to X, 61 (43.3%) are authoritative, 17 (12.1%) are authoritarian, 18 (12.8%) are indulgent, and 45 (31.9%) are neglectful. Of a total of 76 Class-XI to XII or graduate-qualified fathers, 32 (42.1%) are authoritative, 6 (7.9%) are authoritarian, 13 (17.1%) are indulgent, and 25 (32.9%) are neglectful. In the context of the father's educational level, students responded that those fathers' education levels up to class V to VIII are more neglectful to their children. Further, Pearson's Chi-Square results confirmed that the PSs of tribal students were significantly influenced by fathers' educational qualifications ($p=.016<0.01$).

5.2.4.4.2. Influence of Mothers' Educational Qualification on PSs

Table No. 5.15: Mothers' Educational Status Wise Mean Comparison of PSs

Crosstab							
			PSs				Total
			Authoritative	Authoritarian	Indulgent	Neglectful	
Mother's Educational Qualification	Illiterate	Count	85	36	28	111	260
		% within	32.7%	13.8%	10.8%	42.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	13.6%	5.8%	4.5%	17.8%	41.7%
	Class-I to IV	Count	20	14	6	47	87
		% within	23.0%	16.1%	6.9%	54.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	3.2%	2.2%	1.0%	7.5%	14.0%
	Class-V to VIII	Count	70	27	31	55	183
		% within	38.3%	14.8%	16.9%	30.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	11.2%	4.3%	5.0%	8.8%	29.4%
	Class-Ix to X	Count	35	7	8	22	72
		% within	48.6%	9.7%	11.1%	30.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	5.6%	1.1%	1.3%	3.5%	11.6%
	HS and Above (Class-XI to XII or Graduate)	Count	8	1	3	9	21
		% within	38.1%	4.8%	14.3%	42.9%	100.0%
		% of Total	1.3%	0.2%	0.5%	1.4%	3.4%
Total		Count	218	85	76	244	623
		% within	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%

	Value	**Df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	27.987[a]	12	.006

Interpretation

Table no. 5.15 represents the distribution of PSs of tribal students concerning their mother's educational qualifications (reported by the students). It shows that out of 623 tribal students, 260 students mentioned that their mothers are illiterate, 87 students stated that their mother's qualifications are class-I to IV, 183 students mothers are class-V to VIII pass, 72 students mentioned their mother's qualifications are class-IX to X, and 21 students stated their mother's qualification are higher secondary or graduation level. Of a

total of 260 illiterate mothers, 85 (32.7%) are authoritative, 36 (13.8%) are authoritarian, 28 (10.8%) are indulgent, and 111 (42.7%) are neglectful mothers. Similarly, of 87 mothers whose qualifications are class-I to IV, 20 (23.0%) are authoritative, 14 (16.1%) are authoritarian, 6 (6.9%) are indulgent, and 47 (54.0%) are neglectful style. Among 183 mothers who are qualified class-V to VIII, 70 (38.3%) are authoritative, 27 (14.8%) are authoritarian, 31 (16.9%) are indulgent, and 55 (30.1%) are neglectful mothers. A total of 72 mothers who are qualified class-IX to X, 35 (48.6%) are authoritative, 7 (9.7%) are authoritarian, 8 (11.1%) are indulgent, and 22 (30.6%) are neglectful mothers. And out of 21 class-XI to XII or graduate level qualified mothers, 8 (38.1%) are authoritative, 1 (4.8%) are authoritarian, 3 (14.3%) are indulgent, and 9 (42.9%) are neglectful mothers. In the context of the mother's educational level, students responded that illiterate mothers are more neglectful to their children. Further, Pearson's Chi-Square results confirmed that the PSs of tribal students are significantly influenced by the mother's educational qualification ($p=.006<0.01$).

5.2.4.5. Influence of Familial Income on PSs

Table No. 5.16: Monthly Family Income Wise Mean Comparison of PSs

Crosstab							
			PSs				Total
			Authoritative	Authoritarian	Indulgent	Neglectful	
Familial Monthly Income	Up to 10,000	Count	195	77	66	215	553
		% within	35.3%	13.9%	11.9%	38.9%	100.0%
		% of Total	31.3%	12.4%	10.6%	34.5%	88.8%
	10,001 to 20,000	Count	14	7	7	25	53
		% within	26.4%	13.2%	13.2%	47.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	2.2%	1.1%	1.1%	4.0%	8.5%
	Above 20,000	Count	9	1	3	4	17
		% within	52.9%	5.9%	17.6%	23.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	1.4%	0.2%	0.5%	0.6%	2.7%
Total		Count	218	85	76	244	623
		% within	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	35.0%	13.6%	12.2%	39.2%	100.0%

	Value	**df**	**Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)**
Pearson Chi-Square	5.910[a]	6	.433

Interpretation

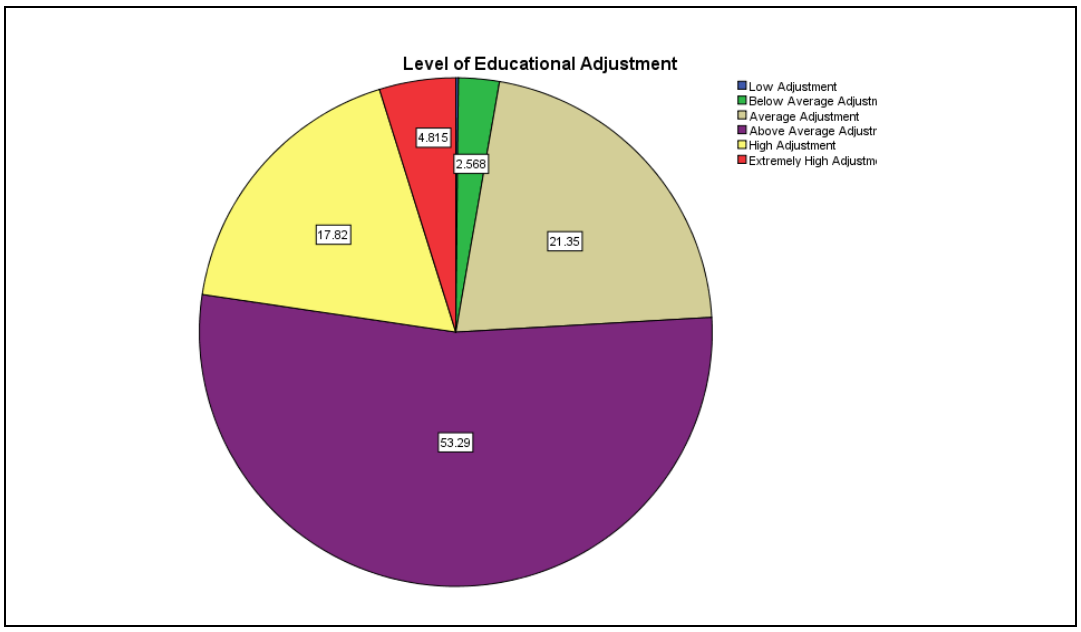
Table no. 5.16 represents the distribution of PSs of tribal students concerning their family monthly income (reported by the students). It shows that out of 623 tribal students, 553 responded their family income was up to 10,000, 53 students mentioned their family income was between 10,001 and 20,000, and 17 students confirmed their family income was above 20,000. Of a total of 553 respondents, 195 (35.3%) are authoritative, 77 (13.9%) are authoritarian, 66 (11.9%) are indulgent, and 215 (38.9%) are neglectful. Similarly, out of 53 students whose family income is 10,001 to 20,000, 14 (26.4%) are authoritative, 7 (13.2%) are authoritarian, 7 (13.2%) are indulgent, and 25 (47.2%) are neglectful parents. Out of 17 students, 9 (52.9%) are authoritative, 1 (5.9%) are authoritarian, 3 (17.6%) are indulgent, and 4 (23.5%) are neglectful parents. In the context of monthly family income, students responded that those families with incomes up to 10,000 are more neglected by their parents. Further, Pearson's Chi-Square results confirmed that the PSs of tribal students are not significantly influenced by monthly family income (p=.433>0.01).

5.3.0. The Extent of EA among rural tribal HS students in WB

5.3.1. The Level of EA among rural tribal HS students in WB

Table No. 5.17 and Figure No. 5.4: Depicting the Level of EA

Level of EA					
Level of EA		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Low Adjustment	1	.2	.2	.2
	Below Average Adjustment	16	2.6	2.6	2.7
	Average Adjustment	133	21.3	21.3	24.1
	Above Average Adjustment	332	53.3	53.3	77.4
	High Adjustment	111	17.8	17.8	95.2
	Extremely High Adjustment	30	4.8	4.8	100.0
	Total	623	100.0	100.0	



Interpretation

Above table no. 5.17 and figure no. 5.4 reflects that out of 623 ST students, 1 student (0.2%) showed low adjustment level, 16 students (2.6%) showed below average adjustment level, 133 students (21.3%) showed average adjustment level, 332 students (53.3%) showed above average adjustment level, 111 students (17.8%) showed high adjustment level, and only 30 students showed (4.8%) extremely high adjustment level. That means that, cumulatively, most of the ST students (92.4%) showed an average of a high level of EA.

5.3.2. Effect of Demographics on EA among the rural tribal HS students in WB

$H_0$3: EA is not significantly affected by Demographics (gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and family income) of the rural tribal HS students in WB

5.3.2.1. Effect of Gender on EA

Table No. 5.18: Gender Wise Mean Comparison of EA

Gender	N	EA			
		M	SD	MD	T (*P*)
Female	299	24.91	4.30	0.81	2.12 (.034)
Male	324	24.10	5.14		

Interpretation

Table 5.18 represents the independent samples t-test results for EA concerning their gender. It shows that the mean score of EA for female schedule tribe students (i.e., 24.91) is higher than males (i.e., 24.10), and the mean score difference between them is 0.81, which is statistically significant (t=2.12, *p*=.034<0.05). Hence, it indicates a significant difference in EA among rural ST students concerning gender.

5.3.2.2. Effect of Family Type on EA

Table No. 5.19: Type of Family Wise Mean Comparison of EA

Type of Family	N	EA			
		M	SD	MD	T (*P*)
Joint Family	87	24.52	4.58	0.032	.058
Nuclear Family	336	24.49	4.80		(.953)

Interpretation

Table 5.19 represents the independent samples't-test results for EA concerning their family types. It shows that the mean EA score for joint family students (i.e., 24.52) is higher than for nuclear family students (i.e., 24.49), and the mean score difference between them is 0.032, which is statistically not significant (t=0.058, *p*=.953>0.01). Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EA among rural ST students concerning their family type.

5.3.2.3. Effect of Sub-Caste on EA

Table No. 5.20: Sub-Caste Wise Mean Comparison of EA

Sub-Caste	N	EA			
		M	SD	df	F (*p*)
Santal	465	24.69	5.013	4/618	2.209 (.067)
Munda	108	24.24	3.724		
Bhumij	16	24.56	4.690		
Lodha	24	21.83	3.435		
Kora &Borga	10	23.90	4.483		
Total	623	24.49	4.766	622	

Interpretation

Table no. 5.20 represents the one-way ANOVA results for EA concerning their sub-caste. It shows that the mean score of EA of students who belong to the Santal (i.e., 24.69) community is highest, comparatively to Bhumij (24.56), Munda (24.24), Kora and Borga (23.90), and lowest for Lodha community students (21.83). Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that the result is not significant (F=2.209, p=.067>0.05). Hence, it indicates no significant difference in EA among rural ST students concerning their sub-caste.

Further, the multiple comparisons on EA through the LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between Santal and Lodha (*p*=.004<0.05), Munda and Lodha (*p*=.025<0.05) communities, and rural ST students.

5.3.2.4. Effect of Parental Education on EA

5.3.2.4.1. Effect of Fathers' Educational Qualification on EA

Table No. 5.21 (A): Fathers' Educational Qualification Wise Mean Comparison of EA

Fathers Educational Qualification	N	EA			
		M	SD	df	F (*p*)
Illiterate	136	24.99	5.31	4/618	6.549 (.000)
Class-I to IV	83	23.72	4.42		
Class-V to VIII	187	23.32	5.02		
Class-IX to X	141	25.23	3.86		
Class-XI to XII or Graduate	76	25.93	4.27		
Total	623	24.49	4.77	622	

Table No. 5.21 (B): Fathers' Educational Status Wise Multiple Comparisons of EA

Dependent Variable	(I) Father's Educational Qualification	(J) Father's Educational Qualification	MD (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
EA	Illiterate	Class-I to IV	1.262	.652	.053
		Class-V to VIII	1.664*	.528	**.002**
		Class-IX to X	-.249	.563	.659
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-.949	.671	.158
	Class-I to IV	Class-V to VIII	.402	.618	.515

		Class-IX to X	-1.511*	.648	**.020**
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-2.211*	.743	**.003**
	Class-V to VIII	Class-IX to X	-1.913*	.522	**.000**
		Class-XI to Graduate	-2.613*	.637	**.000**
	Class-IX to X	Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-.700	.666	.294

Interpretation

Table 5.21 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for EA concerning their fathers' educational status. It shows that the mean score of EA of ST students are higher whose fathers' educational qualification is class-XI to XII or graduate (i.e., 25.93) than class-IX to X (i.e., 25.23), illiterate (i.e., 24.99), up to class-I to IV (i.e., 23.72), and class-V to VIII (i.e., 23.32). This means that students whose fathers' educational qualifications are class-XI to XII or graduate level have higher EA than fathers with lower educational statuses. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=6.549, p=.000<0.05) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in EA among ST students concerning their fathers' educational status. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.21 (B)] on EA through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between those ST students whose fathers are illiterate and class-V to VIII (p=.002<0.05), class-I to IV and class-IX to X (p=.020<0.05), class-I to IV and class-XI to XII or graduate (p=.003<0.05), class-V to VIII and class-IX to X (p=.000<0.05), class-V to VIII and class-XI to XII to graduate (p=.000<0.05).

5.3.2.4.2. Effect of Mothers' Educational Qualification on EA

Table No. 5.22 (A): Mothers' Educational Status Wise Mean Comparison of EA

Mothers Educational Qualification	**N**	**EA**			
		M	**SD**	**df**	**F (*p*)**
Illiterate	260	24.38	5.136	4/618	5.262 (.000)
Class-I to IV	87	22.60	5.251		
Class-V to VIII	183	25.01	4.053		
Class-IX to X	72	25.51	3.993		
Class-XI to XII or Graduate	21	25.62	4.105		
Total	623	24.49	4.766	622	

Table No. 5.22 (B): Mothers' Educational Status Wise Multiple Comparisons of EA

Dependent Variable	(I) Mother's Educational Qualification	(J) Mother's Educational Qualification	MD (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
EA	Illiterate	Class-I to IV	1.787*	.582	**.002**
		Class-V to VIII	-.621	.454	.172
		Class-IX to X	-1.129	.626	.072
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-1.234	1.067	.248
	Class-I to IV	Class-V to VIII	-2.408*	.612	**.000**
		Class-IX to X	-2.916*	.749	**.000**
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-3.021*	1.143	**.008**
	Class-V to VIII	Class-IX to X	-.508	.654	.437
		Class-XI to Graduate	-.614	1.083	.571
	Class-IX to X	Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-.105	1.166	.928

Interpretation

Table 5.22 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for EA concerning their mothers' educational status. It shows that the mean score of EA of ST students is higher whose mothers' educational qualification is class-XI to XII or graduate (i.e., 25.62), comparatively to class-IX to X (i.e., 25.51), class-V to VIII (i.e., 25.01), illiterate (i.e., 24.38), and up to class-I to IV (i.e., 22.60). This means that students whose mothers' educational qualifications are class-XI to XII or graduate level have higher EA than their mothers' lower educational statuses. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=5.262, p=.000<0.05) the result is significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in EA among scheduled tribe students based on their mothers' educational status. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.22 (B)] on EA through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between those ST students whose mothers are illiterate and class-I to IV (p=.002<0.05), class-I to IV and class-V to VIII (p=.000<0.05), class-I to IV and class-IX to X (p=.000<0.05), class-I to IV and class=XI to XII or graduate (p=.008<0.05).

5.3.2.5. Effect of Monthly Family Income on EA

Table No. 5.23 (A): Monthly Family Income Wise Mean Comparison of EA

Family Monthly Income	N	EA			
		M	SD	df	F (*p*)
Up to 10,000	553	24.42	4.725	2/620	3.777 (.023)
10,001 to 20,000	53	24.21	5.013		
Above 20,000	17	27.59	4.515		
Total	623	24.49	4.766	622	

Table No. 5.23 (B): Monthly Family Income Wise Multiple Comparisons of EA

Dependent Variable	(I) Family Monthly Income	(J) Family Monthly Income	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
EA	Up to 10,000	10,001 to 20,000	.214	.682	.754
		Above 20,000	-3.167*	1.168	**.007**
	10,001 to 20,000	Above 20,000	-3.381*	1.322	**.011**

Interpretation

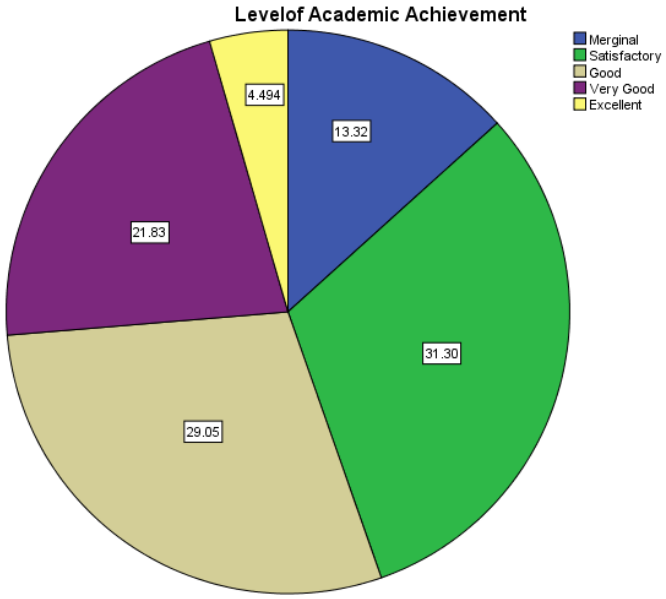
Table 5.23 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for EA concerning their monthly family income. It shows that the mean score of EA of ST students is higher whose family monthly income is above 20,000 (i.e., 27.59), comparatively to up to 10,000 (i.e., 24.42), and 10,001 to 20,000 (i.e., 24.21) family monthly income. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=3.777, P=.023<0.05) the result is statistically significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in EA among ST students based on their family monthly income. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.23 (B)] on EA through the LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between those ST students who belong to up to 10,000 and above 20,000 (*p*=.007<0.05), 10,001 to 20,000 and 20,000 ((*p*=.011<0.05) family monthly income categories.

5.4.0. Distribution of AA among rural tribal HS students in WB

5.4.1. Level of AA among rural tribal HS students in WB

Table No. 5.24 and Figure 5.5: Depicting the Level of AA

Level of AA				
		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Marginal	83	13.3	13.3
	Satisfactory	195	31.3	44.6
	Good	181	29.1	73.7
	Very Good	136	21.8	95.5
	Excellent	28	4.5	100.0
	Total	623	100.0	



Interpretation

Table 5.24 represents AA levels among rural tribal HS students in WB. It shows that out of 623, 13.3% of student's AA is at a marginal level, 31.3% at a satisfactory level, 29.1% at good, 21.8% at very good, and only 4.5% of students have excellent academic achievement. However, not a single student is found to be disqualified or at an outstanding level. It means cumulatively, 73.7% of student's AA is at marginal to reasonable level, and only 26.3% are at very good to excellent level.

5.4.2. Variations in AA across Demographics (Gender, Family Type, Sub-Caste, Parental Education, and Family Income) among rural tribal HS students in WB

$H_0$4: There is no statistically significant variation in AA among rural tribal HS students in WB across demographics (gender, family type, sub-caste, parental education, and family income).

5.4.2.1. Variations in AA Concerning Gender

Table No. 5.25: Gender Wise Mean Comparison of AA

Gender	N	AA			
		M	SD	MD	T (*P*)
Female	299	50.29	13.64	-0.20	-.187 (.852)
Male	324	50.49	12.85		

Interpretation

Table no. 5.25 represents the independent samples t-test results for AA concerning their gender. It shows that the mean score of AA for male ST students (i.e., 50.49) is higher than for females (i.e., 50.29), and the mean score difference between them is -0.20, which is statistically not significant (t=-0.187, *p*=.852>0.05). Hence, it indicates no significant difference in AA among ST students concerning gender.

5.4.2.2. Variations in AA Concerning Type of Family

Table No. 5.26: Type of Family Wise Mean Comparison of AA

Type of Family	N	AA			
		M	SD	MD	T (*P*)
Joint Family	87	50.74	13.14	0.41	.268 (.789)
Nuclear Family	536	50.33	13.25		

Interpretation

Table 5.26 represents the independent samples t-test results for AA among students of different family types. It shows that the mean score of AA for joint family students (i.e., 50.74) is higher than for nuclear family students (i.e., 50.33), and the mean score difference between them is 0.41, which is statistically not significant (t=0.268, *p*=.789>0.01). Hence, it indicates no significant difference in AA among ST students concerning their family type.

5.4.2.3. Variations in AA Concerning Sub-Caste

Table No. 5.27 (A): Sub-Caste Wise Mean Comparison of AA

Sub-Caste	N	AA			
		M	SD	df	F (*p*)
Santal	465	51.27	13.34	4/618	2.791 (.026)
Munda	108	47.94	12.56		
Bhumij	16	45.20	11.71		
Lodha	24	50.75	11.10		
Kora & Borga	10	43.39	16.82		
Total	623	50.39	13.22	622	

Table No. 5.27 (B): Sub-Caste Wise Multiple Comparisons of AA

Dependent Variable	Sub-caste (I)	Sub-caste (J)	MD (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
AA	Santal	Munda	3.326489*	1.404503	**.018**
		Bhumji	6.065246	3.343258	.070
		Lodha	.522389	2.752366	.850
		Kora and Borga	7.880246	4.202465	.061
	Munda	Bhumji	2.738757	3.522271	.437
		Lodha	-2.804101	2.967244	.345
		Kora and Borga	4.553757	4.346232	.295
	Bhumji	Lodha	-5.542857	4.243734	.192
		Kora and Borga	1.815000	5.300422	.732
	Lodha	Kora and Borga	7.357857	4.949002	.138

Interpretation

Table 5.27 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for AA concerning their sub-caste. It shows that the mean score of AA of students who belong to the Santal (i.e., 51.27) community is highest, comparatively to Lodha (50.75), Munda (47.94), Bhumij (45.20), and lowest for community students Kora & Borga (43.39). And the one-way ANOVA shows that ($F=2.791$, $p=.026<0.05$) the result is statistically significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in AA among ST students concerning their sub-caste. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.27 (B)] on AA through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between Santal and Munda ($p=.018<0.05$) communities ST students.

5.4.2.4. Variations in AA Concerning Parental Education

5.4.2.4.1. Variations in AA Concerning Fathers' Educational Qualification

Table No. 5.28 (A): Fathers' Educational Qualification Wise Mean Comparison of AA

Fathers' Educational Qualification	N	AA			
		M	SD	df	F (*P*)
Illiterate	136	48.29	13.78	4/618	8.417 (.000)
Class-I to IV	83	46.87	12.32		
Class-V to VIII	187	49.30	12.44		
Class-IX to X	141	52.45	12.92		
Class-XI to XII or Graduate	76	56.85	13.13		
Total	623	50.39	13.22	622	

Table No. 5.28 (B) Fathers' Educational Status Wise Multiple Comparisons of AA

Dependent Variable	(I) Father's Educational Qualification	(J) Father's Educational Qualification	MD (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
AA	Illiterate	Class-I to IV	1.424314	1.799556	.429
		Class-V to VIII	-1.003552	1.456005	.491
		Class-IX to X	-4.151663*	1.552790	**.008**
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-8.559222*	1.850306	**.000**
	Class-I to IV	Class-V to VIII	-2.427866	1.704017	.155
		Class-IX to X	-5.575977*	1.787422	**.002**
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-9.983536*	2.051184	**.000**
	Class-V to VIII	Class-IX to X	-3.148110*	1.440981	**.029**
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-3.148110*	1.440981	**.029**
	Class-IX to X	Class-XI to XII or Graduate	4.407559*	1.838507	**.017**

Interpretation

Table 5.28 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for AA concerning their fathers' educational status. It shows that the mean score of AA of ST students is higher whose fathers' educational qualification is class-XI to XII or graduate (i.e., 56.85) comparatively to class-IX to X (i.e., 52.45), class-V to VIII (i.e., 49.30), illiterate (i.e.,

48.29), and up to class-I to IV (i.e., 46.87). It means that students whose fathers' educational qualification is class-XI to XII or graduate level have higher AA than those with lower educational qualifications of fathers. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=8.417, p=.000<0.05) the result is statistically significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in the AA of ST students concerning their fathers' educational status. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.28 (B)] on AA through the LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between those ST students whose fathers are illiterate and class-IX to X (p=.008<0.05), illiterate, and class-XI to XII or graduate (p=.000<0.05), class I to IV and class-IX to X (p=.002<0.05), class-I to IV and class-XI to graduate (p=.000<0.05), class-V to VIII and class-IX to X (p=.029<0.05), class-V to VIII and class XI to XII or graduate (p=.029<0.05), class-IX to X and class XI to XII or graduate (p=.017<0.05).

5.4.2.4.2. Variations in AA Concerning Mothers' Educational Qualification

Table No. 5.29 (A): Mothers' Educational Qualification-Wise Comparison of AA

Mothers' Educational Qualification	N	AA			
		M	SD	Df	F (p)
Illiterate	260	49.21	13.30	4/618	2.628 (.034)
Class-I to IV	87	49.42	13.15		
Class-V to VIII	183	50.74	12.85		
Class-IX to X	72	53.07	13.37		
Class-XI to XII or Graduate	21	56.70	13.30		
Total	623	50.39	13.22	622	

Table No. 5.29 (B): Mothers' Educational Status Wise Multiple Comparisons of AA

Dependent Variable	(I) Mother's Educational Qualification	(J) Mother's Educational Qualification	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
AA	Illiterate	Class-I to IV	-.209698	1.629394	.898
		Class-V to VIII	-1.533238	1.269397	.228
		Class-IX to X	-3.859383*	1.751959	**.028**
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-7.489032*	2.984452	**.012**
	Class-I to IV	Class-V to VIII	-1.323540	1.713186	.440
		Class-IX to X	-3.649685	2.095948	.082
		Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-7.279334*	3.198530	**.023**
	Class-V to VIII	Class-IX to X	-2.326145	1.830147	.204
		Class-XI to Graduate	-5.955793	3.031012	.050
	Class-IX to X	Class-XI to XII or Graduate	-3.629649	3.262671	.266

Interpretation

Table 5.29 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for AA concerning their mothers' educational status. It shows that ST students whose mothers' educational qualification is class-XI to XII or graduation scored higher AA (i.e., 56.70), comparatively to class-IX to X (i.e., 53.07), class-V to VIII (i.e., 50.74), up to class-I to IV (i.e., 49.42), and illiterate (i.e., 49.21) mothers. It means that students whose mothers' educational qualifications are class-XI to XII or graduate level have higher AA than those with lower educational qualifications of mothers. And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=2.628, P=.034<0.05) the result is statistically significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in the AA of ST students concerning their mothers' educational status. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.29 (B)] on AA through the LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between those ST whose mothers are illiterate and class-IX to X (p=.028<0.05), illiterate and class-XI to XII or graduate (p=.012<0.05), class-I to IV and class-XI to XII or graduate (p=.023<0.05).

5.4.2.5. Variations in AA Concerning Familial Income

Table No. 5.30 (A): Monthly Family Income Wise Mean Comparison of AA

Family Monthly Income	N	AA			
		M	SD	df	F (p)
Up to 10,000	553	49.68	13.09	2/620	11.581 (.000)
10,001 to 20,000	53	53.47	11.96		
Above 20,000	17	63.96	13.45		
Total	623	50.39	13.22	622	

Table No. 5.30 (B): Monthly Family Income Wise Multiple of AA

Dependent Variable	(I) Monthly Family Income	(J) Monthly Family Income	MD (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
AA	Up to 10,000	10,001 to 20,000	-3.797514*	1.869996	.043
		Above 20,000	-14.286146*	3.202250	**.000**
	10,001 to 20,000	Above 20,000	-10.488632*	3.624862	**.004**

Interpretation

Table 5.30 (A) represents the one-way ANOVA results for AA concerning their family monthly income. It shows that the mean score of AA of ST students is those who belong to above 20,000 family's monthly income group (i.e., 63.96) comparatively to 10,001 to 20,000 (i.e., 53.47), and up to 10,000 (i.e., 49.68) monthly family income groups. And

the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=11.581, *p*=.000<0.05) the result is statistically significant. Hence, it indicates a significant difference in the AA of ST students concerning their family monthly income. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.30 (B)] on AA through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between those ST students who belong up to 10,000 and above 20,000 (*p*=.000<0.05), 10,001 to 20,000 and above 20,000 ((*p*=.004<0.05) family monthly income groups.

5.5.0. The Interplay between PSs, EA, and AA among rural tribal HS students in WB

$H_0$5: PSs have no significant influence on the EA and AA of rural tribal HS students of WB

5.5.1. Influence of PSs on EA and AA of rural tribal HS students of WB

Table No. 5.31 (A): Influence of PSs on EA and AA

PSs	N	EA				AA			
		M	SD	df	F (*p*)	M	SD	Df	F (*p*)
Authoritative	218	26.71	4.135	3/619	41.13 (.000)	50.80	14.89	3/619	.574 (.632)
Authoritarian	85	24.22	4.028			50.86	13.04		
Indulgent	76	25.50	3.079			48.59	13.29		
Neglectful	244	22.28	4.966			50.41	11.61		
Total	623	24.49	4.766	622		50.38	13.22	622	

Table No. 5.31 (B): PSs Wise Multiple Comparisons in LSD Test on EA

Dependent Variable	**(I) PSs**	**(J) PSs**	**MD (I-J)**	**Std. Error**	**Sig.**
EA	Authoritative	Authoritarian	2.487*	.558	**.000**
		Indulgent	1.211*	.581	**.038**
		Neglectful	4.428*	.407	**.000**
	Authoritarian	Indulgent	-1.276	.689	.064
		Neglectful	1.941*	.549	**.000**
	Indulgent	Neglectful	-3.217*	.573	**.000**

Interpretation

Table no. 5.31 (A) represents the influence of PSs on EA and AA among ST students. It shows that the mean score of EA of ST students is highest for those who face the Authoritative style (i.e., 26.71), comparatively to Indulgent style(i.e., 25.50),

Authoritarian style (i.e., 24.22), and lowest for Neglectful style (22.28). And the one-way ANOVA shows that (F=41.13, *p*=.000<0.05) the result is statistically significant. Hence, it indicates that PSs significantly influence EA. Further, the multiple comparisons [see Table No. 5.31 (B)] indicate the influence of PSs on EA through LSD test showed that the actual differences lie between Authoritative and Authoritarian (p=.000<0.05), Authoritative and Indulgent (p=.038<0.05), Authoritative and Neglectful (p=.000<0.05), Authoritarian and Neglectful (p=.000<0.05), Indulgent and Neglectful (p=.000<0.05) PS. The same table also shows that the mean AA score of ST students is highest for those who face the Authoritarian style (i.e., 50.86), comparatively to the Authoritative style (i.e., 50.80), Neglectful style (i.e., 50.41), and lowest for Indulgent style (i.e., 48.59). Further, the one-way ANOVA shows that the result is not significant (F=0.574, p=.632>0.05). Hence, it indicates that PS does not significantly influence AA.

5.6.0. Association between PI, Psu, EA, and AA among the rural tribal HS students in WB

$H_0$6: PI, PSu, EA, and AA of the rural tribal students of WB are not significantly associated.

5.6.1. Relationship between PI, PSu, EA and AA

Table No. 5.32: Correlation between PI, PSu, EA, and AA

		PSu	EA	AA
PI	Pearson Correlation	.657**	.460**	.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.700
	N	623	623	623
PSu	Pearson Correlation		.394**	.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.641
	N		623	623
EA	Pearson Correlation			.206**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000
	N			623
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

Interpretation

Table 5.32 shows the PI, PSu, EA, and AA relationship among ST students. The result shows a high positive and significant relationship between PI and PSu of HS ST students (i.e., r=.657, *p*=.000). An average positive but significant relationship between PI and EA

of HS ST students (i.e., r=.460, *p*=.000). Whereas, a low positive and insignificant relationship was found between PI and AA of HS ST students (i.e., r=.015, *p*=.700).

The above table shows low positive but significant relationships exist between PSu and EA of higher secondary tribal school students (i.e., r=.394, *p*=.000). In contrast, a low positive and insignificant relationship was found between PSu and AA of HS ST students (i.e., r=.019, *p*=.641).

The same table shows a low positive but significant relationship between EA and AA of HS ST students (i.e., r=.206, *p*=.000).

5.7.0. Effects and Potential Predictiveness

5.7.1 Combined Effect and Potential Predictiveness of PI and PSu on Explaining the Variance in EA among the rural tribal HS students in WB

$H_0$7: There is no significant combined effect of PI and PSu in explaining the variance in EA among rural tribal HS students in WB.

Table No. 5.33: Effect of PI and PSu on EA

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R^2	SE of Estimate
3	.476[a]	.226	.224	4.198

ANOVA						
Model		Sum Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
	Regression	3199.163	2	1599.581	90.765	.000[b]
	Residual	10926.519	620	17.623		
	Total	14125.682	622			

a. Dependent Variable: EA, b. Predictors: PSu and PI

Coefficients					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	9.057	1.188		7.625	.000
PI	.585	.077	.354	7.558**	.000
PSu	.132	.038	.162	3.448**	.001

Interpretation

Table 5.33 represents the results of our regression analysis, where EA is the dependent variable, and PI and PSu are the predictors (Independent variables). The model summary shows the multiple correlation between PI and PSu, and EA is .476 (R). The R Square

and the Adjusted R^2 tell that about 22% of the variations in EA are accounted for by PI and PSu. Further, the ANOVA results confirm that this model is significant (F=90.765, *P*=.000), which means PI and PSu are the significant predictors of EA.

Further, the coefficients show that among the predictors, PI is the strongest, positively significant predictor of EA (β=0.354, t=7.558, *P*=.000) than PSu (β=0.162, t=3.448, *P*=.001).

5.7.2. Combined Effects of PI and PSu in Explaining the Variance in AA among the rural tribal HS students in WB

$H_0$8: There is no significant combined effect of PI and PSu in explaining the variance in AA among rural tribal HS students in WB.

Table No. 5.34: Effect of PI and PSu on AA

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R^2	SE of Estimate	
	.019[a]	.000	-.003	13.243090	
ANOVA					
Model	Sum Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	40.016	2	20.008	.114	.892[b]
Residual	108735.245	620	175.379		
Total	108775.261	622			
a. Dependent Variable: AA, b. Predictors: PI and PSu					
Coefficients					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	48.930	3.747		13.058	.000
PI	.026	.244	.006	.105	.917
PSu	.034	.121	.015	.283	.777

Interpretation

Table 5.34 represents the results of our regression analysis, where AA is the dependent variable and PI and PSu are the predictors. The model summary shows the multiple correlation between PI and PSu, and AA is .019 (R). The R Square and the Adjusted R^2 tell that PI and PSu are not at all the predictors of AA (R Square=.000, Adjusted R^2=-

.003), that means PI and PSu account ono variation in AA. Further, the ANOVA results also confirm that this model is insignificant (F=.114, *P*=.892).

Further, the coefficients also show that among the predictors, the association PI with AA is almost nil (β=0.006, t=.105, *P*=.917) than PSu (β=0.015, t=.283, *P*=.777).

5.7.3. Effect of EA on explaining the variance in AA among the rural tribal HS students in WB

$H_0$9: EA dose not significantly explaining the variance in AA among rural tribal HS students in WB.

Table No. 5.35: Effect of EA on AA

Model Summary						
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R^2	SE of Estimate		
	.206[a]	.043	.041	12.949925		
ANOVA						
Model		Sum Square	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
	Regression	4633.210	1	4633.210	27.628	.000[b]
	Residual	104142.051	621	167.701		
	Total	108775.261	622			
a. Dependent Variable: AA, b. Predictors: EA						
Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	36.364	2.718		13.377	.000
	EA	.573	.109	.206	5.256	.000

Interpretation

Table 5.35 linear regression analysis result shows a low positive correlation between EA and AA (R=.206). The R^2 value is 0.043, which means EA explains only 4.3% of the variations in AA. The ANOVA results confirm that this model is significant at 0.05 (F=27.628, *P*=0.000). Further, the coefficient is also significant (β=0.206, t=5.256, *P*=.000) on AA.

5.7.4. Combined effects of PI, PSu, and EA in explaining the variance in AA among the rural tribal HS students in WB

$H_0$10: The combined effect of PI, PSu, and EA dose not significantly explain the variance in AA among rural tribal HS school students in WB.

Table 5.36: Combined effects of PI, PSu, and EA on AA

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.206[a]	.043	.041	12.949925
2	.225[b]	.051	.048	12.906002

a. Predictors: (Constant), EA

b. Predictors: (Constant), EA, PI

c. Dependent Variable: AA

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4633.210	1	4633.210	27.628	.000[b]
	Residual	104142.051	621	167.701		
	Total	108775.261	622			
2	Regression	5505.030	2	2752.515	16.525	.000[c]
	Residual	103270.231	620	166.565		
	Total	108775.261	622			

a. Dependent Variable: AA

b. Predictors: (Constant), EA

c. Predictors: (Constant), EA, PI

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	36.364	2.718		13.377	.000
	EA	.573	.109	.206	5.256	.000
2	(Constant)	42.522	3.819		11.135	.000
	EA	.701	.122	.253	5.735	.000
	PI	-.463	.202	-.101	-2.288	.022

a. Dependent Variable: AA

Excluded Variables						
Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	PI	-.101[b]	-2.288	.022	-.091	.788
	PSu	-.074[b]	-1.737	.083	-.070	.845
2	PSu	-.026[c]	-.501	.617	-.020	.558
a. Dependent Variable: AA						
b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EA						
c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), EA, PI						

Interpretation

Table 5.36 represents the results of our regression analysis using a stepwise method, where AA is the dependent variable and PI, PSu, and EA are the predictors (Independent variables).

From the model-1, the PI and PSu was excluded (as Beta value= -.101b, t= -2.288, *P*=.022 for PI and for PSu Beta= -.074, t=-1.737, *P*=.083). From model-2, only PSu was excluded (as Beta value=-.026, t=-.501, *P*=.617).

The model-1 summary (i.e., the effect of EA on AA) has already been presented and interpreted (See table 5.35). The model-2 summary shows that the multiple correlations of EA and PI with AA are .225 (R). The R Square tells that about 5% of the variations in AA are combinedly accounted for by EA and PI (PSu is excluded). Further, the ANOVA results confirm that this model-2 is significant (F=16.525, P=.000), which means EA and PI are the significant predictors of AA.

Further, the coefficients show that among the predictors, EA is the strongest, positively significant predictor of AA (β=0.253, t=5.735, *P*=.000) than PI, which hurts AA (β= -.101, t= -2.288, *P*=.022).

CHAPTER-VI

MAJOR FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

CHAPTER-VI
MAJOR FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

6.1.0. Introduction

The researcher has reached this crucial phase, guided by the comprehensive data analysis and interpretation presented in the previous chapter. This section provides a brief overview of the final aspects of the study, with a particular focus on incorporating critical elements of the conclusion to maintain the study's practicality. The current chapter is structured into five sub-sections: significant findings, discussion of the results, study's implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research. This framework is designed to enhance the clarity and cohesion of the content, ensuring the reader grasps the significance of the study.

6.2.0. Major Findings of the Study

Based on the previous chapter discussed the analysis and interpretations, the following significant findings were drawn:

6.2.1. Distribution of Parental Involvement (PI), Parental Supervision (PSu) and Parenting Styles (PSs)

1. Most of the rural tribal students' PI is low.
2. Most of the rural tribal students' PSu is low.
3. Most of the rural tribal students encounter authoritative and neglectful parenting.

6.2.2. Variations in PI and PSu among rural tribal students across Demographics

1. There is a notable disparity in PI and PSu among rural tribal students based on gender.
2. There is no significant variance in PI and PSu among rural tribal students based on their family type.
3. There is a notable contrast in PI and PSu among rural tribal high school students based on their sub-caste.
4. Significant differences are observed in PI and PSu among rural tribal students based on their fathers' educational qualifications.

5. There is a significant difference in PI and PSu among rural tribal students based on their mothers' educational qualifications.
6. There is no notable contrast in PI among rural tribal students based on their family monthly income.
7. There is a significant disparity in PSu among rural tribal students concerning their family monthly income.

6.2.3. Influences of Demographics on PSs among the rural tribal students

1. The gender of the rural tribal students significantly influences the PSs, and the parents tend to adopt a more authoritative approach toward female children and neglect male children.
2. The PSs of rural tribal students from joint families do not differ significantly from nuclear families.
3. The sub-caste of the rural tribal students significantly influences the PSs. Students from the Santal, Munda, and Lodha subcastes predominantly reported experiencing neglectful PS, whereas those from the Bhumij, Kora, and Borga subcastes tended to perceive authoritative PS.
4. Fathers' educational qualifications significantly influence PSs among rural tribal students. Students with fathers who had academic qualifications of illiteracy, Class-I-IV, and Class-V-VII levels mainly reported neglectful PS, while those with fathers educated in Class-IX-X and Class-XI and above experienced authoritative PS.
5. Mothers' educational qualifications significantly influence PSs among rural tribal students. Students with mothers having educational qualifications of illiterate, Class-I-IV, and Class-XI and above levels mainly reported neglectful PS. At the same time, those with fathers educated in Class-V-VIII and Class-IX-X experienced authoritative PS.
6. Family monthly income did not significantly influence PSs among tribal students.

6.2.4. Level of Educational Adjustment (EA) among rural tribal students

1. Most of the ST students showed an average to a high level of EA.

6.2.5. Variations in EA among rural tribal students across Demographics

1. Male and female rural tribal students exhibited significant differences concerning their EA.

2. No significant difference exists in EA among rural tribal students concerning their family type.
3. No significant difference exists in EA among rural tribal students concerning their sub-caste.
4. The EA of rural tribal students differs significantly based on their fathers' educational qualifications.
5. The EA of rural tribal students differs significantly based on their mothers' educational qualifications.
6. EA varies significantly in terms of the familial monthly income of the rural tribal students.

6.2.6. Level of Academic Achievement (AA) among rural tribal students

1. Most rural tribal students' AA (73.3%) is at a marginal to a reasonable level, and only 26.3% are at a very good to excellent level.

6.2.7. Variations in AA among rural tribal students in WB across Demographics

1. Gender has no significant influence on AA among rural tribal students.
2. There is no significant difference in AA among ST students concerning their family type.
3. A significant difference was observed between students in AA in the Santal and Munda communities.
4. Fathers' educational status significantly influenced AA among rural tribal students.
5. Their mothers' educational status significantly influences the AA of ST students.
6. Family monthly income significantly impacted AA among ST students.

6.2.8. Influence of PSs on EA and AA among rural tribal students

1. PS significantly affects EA among rural tribal students at the HS level.
2. PS did not significantly impact AA among rural tribal students at the HS level.

6.2.9. Association between PI, PSu, EA, and AA among rural tribal students

1. A highly positive and significant relationship between PI and PSu among the rural tribal students.

2. A moderately positive and significant relationship between PI and EA among rural tribal students is observed.
3. An insignificant low positive relationship is present between PI and AA among the rural tribal students.
4. A low positive and significant relationship exists between PSu and AA among the rural tribal students.
5. A low positive but insignificant relationship exists between PI and AA among the rural tribal students.
6. A low positive but significant relationship exists between EA and AA among the rural tribal students.

6.2.10. Effects of PI, PSu, and EA on AA among the rural tribal students

1. PI and PSu combinedly play a significant role in predicting EA among rural tribal students and among them PI is the most potential predictor.
2. PI and PSu have no significant combined effect on AA.
3. EA significantly predicts a lower portion of the variations in AA.
4. Concerning combined effect of PI, PSu, and EA on AA, result revealed PI and EA have significant combined effect in predicting variation in AA while PSu was excluded and among them EA is the most potential predictor.

6.3.0. Discussion of the Major Findings

PI, PSu, and PSs

While the prevalence rate of PI, PSu, and PSs was a concern, the study findings revealed that most tribal students' parents exhibit low levels of PI and PSu. This finding was supported by Stormont et al. (2013), who also reported that PI and PSu are vital factors in a student's academic success. It was essential to explore the factors contributing to this low level of PI and PSu among rural tribal students. Apart from that, most tribal parents prefer authoritative and neglectful PS. These authoritative parents are associated with higher optimism and lower hopelessness in children, while negligent parents are associated with lower optimism and higher hopelessness (Weber et al., 2003). These PSs can significantly affect a child's development and educational outcomes. Understanding why these PSs are common among tribe students' parents is crucial. In light of these findings, it is essential to delve deeper into the reasons behind the observed low level of

PI and PSU and the preferred authoritative and neglectful PSs among tribal students. It may be necessary to consider cultural, socioeconomic, and regional factors influencing these patterns and their impact on tribal students' educational experiences.

The present study findings revealed that the gender of rural tribal students significantly influences PI. This finding was supported by Kisku (2018), Aslam and Bhat (2017), Talluri and Suneela (2017), Zheng et al. (2022), and Singh and Banerjee (2019), it was indicated that female tribal students were more PI than male. On the contrary, Sing (2016), Samal (2012), Rashmi and Srivastava (2021), Patnaik (2012), and Bibi et al. (2021) found that gender has no significant difference in PI among tribal students. It is said that gender significantly impacts PI among tribal students; it may depend on various situations. For instance, gender does not influence parents' perceptions of PI in their children's English language education (Kalayci & Öz, 2018).

The current study revealed that tribal students' family types do not significantly impact PSu or PI. This finding was contradicted by Kisku (2018), who reported that the nature of the family substantially influences PS. However, Liu Y. (2021) reported that PI varies by family structure, and families with stable family structures and higher levels of PI tend to have better student achievements.

The study findings also indicated that the sub-caste of tribal students significantly influenced PI and PSu at the HS level. This finding was supported by the study of Kisku (2018), who observed a significant relationship between the sub-caste of tribal students and PS. This finding suggested that the various factors of sub-caste among tribal students, like low economic status, parental style, involvement, and lack of literacy parents, are responsible for the poor education of tribal students (Parhi, 2013). The study findings also showed that tribal parents' educational qualifications (fathers and mothers) significantly impacted PSu and PI. The study of Zheng et al. (2022), Jaiswal, S. (2018), Rajeswar & Usha (2014), Shumow et al. (2004), and Stevenson & Baker (1987) found similar results. This finding emphasizes the significance of parental education in determining their level of involvement in their children's schooling. Parents with higher education levels may be more actively involved in supervising and supporting their children's academic efforts.

The present study revealed that the monthly income of tribal families does not significantly impact PSu and PI. Similarly, Sing and Mohakud (2016) reported no significant relationship between family income and PS among tribal students. However, it

is noteworthy that contrary findings were reported by Zheng et al. (2022), Yang (2021), and Joseph (2015), indicating that PS is indeed influenced by family income. The finding suggested that, within the studied context, financial resources may not be a decisive factor in determining parental engagement in their children's education.

While PSs were a concern, the present study findings revealed that gender significantly influences PS. It was also found that tribal parents are more authoritative to female students and more neglectful to male students. This finding was corroborated by Singh & Banerjee (2019), but the study findings of Kisku (2018), Sing (2016), and Bibi et al. (2021) contradicted this finding. Hein and Lewko (1994) also reported that gender differences influence PS, with more family-related factors for females and motivational and science outcome variables for males. This finding suggests that mothers and fathers may exhibit distinct parenting behaviors based on traditional gender roles or societal expectations.

Furthermore, the study findings revealed that tribal students' family types do not significantly influence PS. Similar findings were reported by Kisku (2018). On the contrary, Obiunu, J. J. (2018) reported that the PS of the nuclear family and joint family have significant differences in PS, and the nuclear family was the most dominant. However, Nurhaeni et al. (2016) found that family type did not significantly influence PS, but a negative correlation exists between strict upbringing and high school brawls in adolescents. This finding implies that factors other than family types may play a more prominent role in shaping PSs within ST communities. However, the study findings revealed that their sub-caste significantly influenced the PS of rural tribal students. This finding was contradicted by Kisku (2018), but Munshi and Rosenzweig (2006) found similar results. In this study, most of the tribal students belong to the 'Santal' community and showed a neglectful PS. When looking at parents' educational qualifications, current study findings revealed that their parents' educational qualifications significantly influence the PS of tribal students. This finding is corroborated by Masud et al. (2019) and Fauziyah et al. (2017) but contradicted by Dornbusch et al. (2016). Another study highlights that parents' education and aspirations influence their PSs. This finding suggests that the academic qualifications of parents play a vital role in shaping PSs within tribal communities. The level of parents' education is crucial to their PS and behaviors toward their children. Doronina (2019) reported that fathers more frequently showed an authoritarian style of family education, while mothers tended to use a liberal PS, resulting

in reduced demands and emotional acceptance of the child. However, another social factor, the monthly income of tribal families, has not significantly influenced PS. This finding is supported by the study of Joseph (2015) and Sing (2016). Fauziyah et al. (2017) found that the authoritative PS is positively affected by family income and positive belief in child value but not the family's monthly income. This finding suggested that income disparities among indigenous families may be a minor factor in how parents handle their parenting responsibilities. Other factors, such as cultural norms, educational background, or personal convictions, may significantly impact parenting approaches in these societies.

Educational Adjustment

In the case of EA, the study findings revealed that most rural ST students displayed an average to high level of EA. Gupta et al. (1985) found similar findings at the Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay. The study also revealed that the gender of rural tribal pupils significantly affected EA. This finding conformed to the studies of Kuniya (2018), Wadhawan (2018), Barik and Dhara (2019), Hafiz (2015), and Kaur and Gupta (2021). On the contrary, these findings were contrasted by the studies of Gill (2014), Devika (2014), and Ansary et al. (2022). They found that gender has no impact on EA. Lalchhuanawma et al. (2020) reported that males and females exhibit equal adjustment levels in various areas. Özabacı and Erzen (2021) assert that girls adapt more quickly to EA than boys. A study by Hai Long 2013 found that women demonstrated better EA than men. Another study revealed that indigenous students' family types have no significant impact on their EA. This finding is consistent with the findings of Alnajja (2017) and Devika (2014), who found no significant variations in the degree of EA among students based on family type. However, the study by Oliva et al. (2014) produced contradictory results, implying a complex link between family structure and EA.

However, the result also revealed that the tribal students' sub-caste has no significant impact on EA. Gupta et al. (1985) and Alnajjar (2017) found that social classes have no significant difference in students' adjustment. Rao, D. (2016) reported no significant impact of sub-caste on EA for Scheduled Tribe students in government schools. However, they often seek admission to private schools due to inadequate facilities. However, Swamy, R. (2010) reported that lower castes influence socioeconomic well-being, affecting EA for Indian people.

The current study demonstrated that fathers' educational qualification significantly affects the EA of ST students. This finding coincides with Noreen's (2021) finding of a link between fathers' education and secondary-level student adjustment, providing persistent support for this link. This finding is supported by Pears et al. (2013) and Marks (2007), who discovered that fathers' academic performance directly impacted their children's EA. Conversely, Simpson (2003) and Alnajjar (2017) presented findings that did not support the notion that fathers' education benefits their children's EA. These findings differ from those of the current study, indicating a disparity in the importance of fathers' education in determining students' EA.

The present study's key finding identified that their mother's educational status highly influenced the EA of rural ST students. This finding was consistent with the findings of Noreen, M. (2021), Pears et al. (2013), Simpson (2003), and Marks (2007), who all found that mothers' education has a positive or substantial effect on students' adjustment. These findings are congruent with the findings of the current investigation.

The study findings revealed that the monthly family income of tribal students significantly impacts EA. Lee et al. (2021), Mistry et al. (2004), Duncan et al. (1998), and Belley and Lochner (2007) found a similar finding. They reported that family income impacts the EA of college and school students. This finding suggested that economic factors significantly influence the development of these students' educational experiences. Lower family income levels may be related to limited access to resources, academic support, and extracurricular activities, impacting a student's capacity to adapt and thrive academically. Addressing economic inequities and giving targeted assistance to indigenous students from low-income homes may be critical for improving educational performance and leveling the playing field.

Academic Achievement

In the case of AA, the study findings revealed that most rural tribal students' AA falls within the marginal to good level, with only a few reaching the very good to excellent level. These findings suggest that rural tribal students generally achieve marginal to good academic levels, influenced by factors such as community attachment, perceptions of local economic conditions, learning styles, school adjustment, home environment, and scientific aptitude, while facing challenges like poor school facilities and academic anxiety (Petrin et al., 2014; Matti et al., 2022). The study findings revealed that gender

does not significantly influence AA among rural tribal students. The finding is supported by the study of Sinha et al. (2016), Dania (2014), and Chandra (2013). They concluded that gender has no discernible impact on AA. However, the findings of Clifton et al. (2008), Eshetu (2015), Gao & Hangsing (2019), and Puhan and Nibedita (2017) indicated a significant connection between gender and AA. Their finding contradicted the current study's findings. Alordiah et al. (2015) reported that male students achieved better AA than female students.

Another finding revealed that the family type of tribal students does not significantly influence AA. Similarly, the findings of Gupta et al. (1985) and Considine & Zappalà (2002) found no significant relationship between the family type and AA of rural tribal students. However, Kalapriya's (2016) findings contradicted this finding. In this context, Baruah and Devi (2012) reported that students from nuclear families showed higher academic performance than other family types.

The current study finding revealed that the tribal sub-caste of tribal communities significantly influences AA. Gupta, N. (2019) reported that caste significantly impacts academic performance in Indian engineering students, with women from the lowest caste being most alienated, while men from this caste perform well. Particularly noteworthy in this study is the marked distinction in AA between students from the Santal and Munda communities. However, an investigation uncovered by experts suggested that Santal children exhibit higher motivation levels in their learning than students from other tribal backgrounds (Mohapatra, 2021).

The study findings concluded that fathers' educational status significantly influences AA among rural tribal students. Similar findings were found by McBride et al. (2005), Alfaro et al. (2006), Wamala et al. (2013), Masud et al. (2019), and Soharwardi et al. (2020). However, this result contrasts with the finding of Altschul (2012), who claimed that father education is not a predictor of AA. However, Hung, C. (2005) and Marks (2007) demonstrate the importance of mother education over father education for tribal students AA. Similarly, Schiller et al. (2002) concluded that parents' education positively impacts middle school pupils; according to the study, this finding verified the current finding.

The current study revealed that their mothers' educational qualification significantly influences the AA of ST students. We found similar results from Falk and Salter (1978), Smith (1989), Sharma and Jha (2014), and Indrawati and Alfiasari (2016). They

concluded that a mother's education significantly influenced AA. Additionally, mothers' education has a higher impact on AAs (Soharwardi et al., 2020). Crede et al. (2015) reported that mothers' education moderates the relationship with AA. The study underscores the importance of maternal education as a critical factor in shaping the educational outcomes of students within this demographic.

Finally, the study findings revealed that family income significantly impacted the AA of rural tribal students. This finding was supported by Steinmayr et al. (2012), Lyu et al. (2019), Lee et al. (2021), Yousefi et al. (2010), and Chmielewski and Reardon (2016). They reported that family income and AA were significantly related. On the contrary, the findings of Stewart (2006), Marks and Pokropek (2019), Humlum (2011), and Singh and Vyast (2014) found that family income had no significant effect on AA among students. Morrissey et al. (2014) and Sektnan et al. (2010) concluded that low family income indicated poor AA of students, and high family income indicated good AA. This finding suggested that family income negatively impacts students' AA.

Effect of PSs on EA and AA

In the present study, the researcher measured the effect of PS on EA and AA. The study findings indicated that PSs significantly affect EA among rural tribal students. This finding was supported by the study of Love and Thomas (2014) and Checa and Abundis-Gutiérrez (2017). Steinberg et al. (1994), Fuentes et al. (2019), and Checa and Abundis-Gutiérrez (2017) reported that an upbeat PS improves students' EA in school. This result suggested that a favorable parental influence on educational success is essential, as seen by the constant pattern observed in this research, which highlights the critical relationship between PSs and students' EA. Stanley et al. (2008) suggested that various factors, including parental education, income, parenting style, and attachment levels, significantly influence the educational adjustment of rural tribal students. Again, the study findings revealed that the PS of rural tribal students did not significantly affect their AA. This finding was supported by the study of Rout and Sahoo (2014) and Turner et al. (2009). On the other hand, the findings of Diaconu-Gherasim and Măirean (2016), Crist (2006), Akhter et al. (2022), and Marchant et al. (2001) contradicted this finding. Pinquart (2016), Ishak et al. (2012), Paulson et al. (1998), and Turner et al. (2009) identified a significant relationship between PS and AA. This finding indicates that, in this particular context, other factors may play a more prominent role in influencing the educational outcomes of these students. The findings suggest a significant impact of PSs on EA and

AA. Authoritative parenting is associated with positive outcomes, fostering higher self-esteem and academic success.

Relationship between PI, PSu, EA, and AA

The present study measured the relationship between PI, PSu, PS, EA, and AA. Among rural tribal students at the HS level, the results showed a positive and substantial association between PI and PSu because both are subgroups of PS. Again, the researcher found a connection between PI and AA among rural tribal students. Similar findings were found by Wilder (2014), Ma et al. (2016), Kim & Hill (2015), Ben-Tov & Romi (2019), Bezabih (2019), Topor et al. (2010), Kohl (2000), and Gogoi (2017), who reported that the PI positively related with PSu and AA. Jeynes (2012) suggested that PI programs are linked to higher AA, aligning with the findings of Wang & Sheikh-Khalil (2014), who observed improved academic success among adolescents with increased PI. Fan & Chen (2001) reported a small to moderate yet practically meaningful relationship between PI and students' AA, while Jeynes (2005) found an average positive and significant relationship. In contrast to these studies, Rout and Sahoo (2014) discovered no significant difference in AA among tribal students based on varying levels of PI. These varied results emphasize the complex relationship—particularly when considering rural tribal students—between PI and AA. This finding suggested that higher PI and PSu improve students' academic self-efficacy and AA (You et al., 2016).

Again, the results indicated a positive but statistically significant correlation between PSu and the EA of tribal students at the HS level. Most of the studies found similar results, including Hoglund et al. (2014), Barger et al. (2019), and Felizardo et al. (2016), Smojver-Ažić (2009). Contrastingly, Nyarko (2011) reported that mothers' school involvement significantly correlates with AA, while fathers' participation does not show a significant correlation. Beaudette et al. (2019) and Varma (2014) contributed to the consensus, reporting that PI is intricately linked to enhanced academic adjustment among students. Varma's (2014) noteworthy discovery extends to PI's direct influence on students' EA. One interesting finding from the body of research is the apparent pattern indicating that PI works as a stimulant, actively promoting the improvement of students' EA. This more complex understanding supports the idea that encouraging PI can play a critical role in helping students achieve their educational goals.

The current study finding revealed a low positive but statistically significant correlation between EA and AA among higher secondary tribal school students. This finding indicated that the students with higher AA adjust to school better than those with lower AA (Devi, 2015; Lew, 2013; Chen, 2012; Willems et al., (2021); Arul & Arul (2016), Pathak (2022) and Kumar & Tankha (2020). Winga et al. (2011) and Karimi et al. (2010) reported a low but positively significant connection between AA and EA among HS tribal school students. On the other hand, research by Pathak and Tiwari (2015) showed a favorable, medium-level link between AA and EA for male and female adolescents living in urban and rural areas. Together, these results highlight the significance of EA in determining HS tribal students' AA, with implications for different geographic locations and genders.

Effect of PI, PSu, EA on AA

While the researcher examined the effect of PI and PSu on AA, study findings revealed that PI and PSu play a significant role in EA among rural tribal students. In this context, Ben-Tov and Romi (2019) reported that PI demonstrates a substantial, direct, and negative correlation with EAs. Conversely, Bi et al. (2020) and Serna & Martínez (2019) found that PS positively influences EA. Furthermore, Varma (2014) supported these findings and reported that PI directly impacts EA. In summary, the combined data emphasizes the significance of PI and PSu in influencing the EA of tribal students, with differing opinions on the nature of their impact.

Another important finding of this study revealed that PI and PSu do not significantly impact AA among rural tribal students. This finding was corroborated by Marling (2001). On the contrary, Jaiswal and Choudhuri (2017), Wang and Sheikh-Khalil (2014) found a positive relationship between parenting style and academic performance, with parental expectations exerting the most substantial impact. Georgiou (1999) concluded that parental style is linked to students' AA. However, Hirano and Rowe (2016) and Kohl et al. (2000) found that PI predicts better AA. Overall, these outcomes collectively emphasize the pivotal influence of PI and supervision on students' AAs in rural tribal areas.

Again, the present study demonstrated that EA positively impacts the AA of rural tribal students. Kumar and Tankha (2020), Pathak (2022), and Arul and Arul (2016) collectively supported the notion that EA significantly influences AA in school settings.

On the other hand, Devi (2015) found that AA and EA had a low positive relationship in tribal rural students. Shelly (2017) revealed that poor school adjustment in tribal students could adversely affect their AA. Willems et al. (2021) reported the impact of academic adjustment on AA, highlighting the importance of considering AA goals in understanding school adjustment. Furthermore, this viewpoint was supported by Shim and Finch (2014), who concluded that school adjustment can be better comprehended when aligned with AA goals. These results highlight the complex connection between AA and EA. The study finding revealed that the EA can be collectively attributed to both EA and PI, with PSu excluded from consideration. This finding is supported by Serna and Martínez (2019). This suggests that while EA and PI may influence academic performance, other factors beyond these variables significantly contribute to the variability observed in EA (Hoglund et al., 2014).

6.4.0. Educational Implications of the Study

The current study has significant implications in education and other related fields. The study's findings have several educational implications:

1. **Targeted Intervention Programs:** Given that most rural tribal students have low PI and PSu, educational institutions should develop specific intervention programs. These programs should emphasize the necessity of PI and PSu in their child's education and how to give good monitoring.

2. **Parenting Workshops:** This study revealed that many rural tribal parents preferred authoritative and neglectful parenting practices. Conducting parenting workshops and seminars could be beneficial. These events can assist parents in understanding the influence of different PSs on their children's educational outcomes and offer advice on adopting more supportive ways.

3. **Community Engagement:** The study concludes that additional community engagement is needed to overcome the issues that rural tribal students experience. Local communities, leaders, and organizations can work with educational institutions to establish a conducive climate that supports PI and monitoring.

4. **Teacher Training:** Educators should be taught to detect the various demands of ST children and to change their teaching practices accordingly. Teachers can establish a

more inclusive and productive learning environment by learning about their pupils' backgrounds and parenting styles.

5. **Gender-Specific Interventions:** Educational institutions should consider gender-specific interventions because PI and supervision vary significantly according to a person's gender. Program modifications that address the unique issues and requirements of rural tribal male and female students can boost PI and support.

6. **Parental Education Awareness:** The study emphasizes the effect of fathers' and mothers' educational status on parental engagement and supervision. Academic institutions can run awareness campaigns aimed at parents, highlighting the favorable relationship between parental education and student performance and giving resources for at-home learning.

7. **Financial Support Programs:** Schools and policymakers should consider implementing financial support programs considering the significant difference in PSu based on family monthly income. These programs could help low-income families ensure adequate PSu and support for their children's education.

8. **Family Engagement Strategies:** While there was no significant difference in PI based on family type, schools should implement inclusive family engagement strategies. Recognizing and respecting diverse family structures can create a supportive educational environment for all tribal students.

9. **Support for Educational Adjustment:** Schools should provide additional support systems to improve the EA of rural tribe pupils, recognizing the average positive but significant association between PI and EA. Counseling services, mentorship programs, and specialized treatments to address specific adjustment issues may be included.

10. **Identification and Mitigation of AA Barriers:** Even though there is a low but significant beneficial association between parental participation and AA, efforts should be made to identify and eliminate any impediments to this relationship. Educational institutions can conduct further research into the elements contributing to this link, and focused efforts to improve AA can be implemented.

11. **Promotion of Holistic Educational Adjustment:** Because EA Favors AA, schools should encourage holistic approaches to student well-being. Programs emphasizing socio-emotional development, mental health support, and peer interactions might help rural tribal adolescents acclimate to school and enhance their AAs.

12. **Parental Education Programs:** Educating parents on how their involvement and supervision contribute to their child's EA and academic accomplishment is critical. Parents can benefit from workshops, seminars, and informational resources to improve their comprehension and active engagement in their child's educational journey.

13. **Continuous Monitoring and Evaluation:** Continuous monitoring and evaluation methods should be implemented in educational institutions to measure the efficiency of programs that enhance PI, PSu, EA, and AA. This enables ongoing intervention refining and customization based on observed outcomes.

6.5.0. Limitations of the Study

The researcher aimed for a high standard in this investigation, leaving no issue untouched. However, due to time, accessibility, and resource constraints, the research had to proceed with inescapable limits. These constraints are as follows:

1. The present study was limited to Government-aided schools under the West Bengal boards and did not encompass private or government schools.

2. The current study was limited to the surface level, so it was not a comprehensive and "in-depth" investigation.

3. The study could not incorporate qualitative methods such as observation, case studies, interviews, or interview schedules to gather qualitative data on EA, PSs, and AA among ST students. These methods are recognized as more reliable and valid sources of data collection.

4. Due to time constraints, the researcher could only survey a few schools in the Jhargram district. He did an intense investigation with a small number of ST students, who may not represent the general. As a result, the generalization of the result may differ slightly and apply differently to the population.

5. The survey did not include all sub-castes of ST students in West Bengal.
6. The survey only included ST rural students from the Jhargram district and excluded pupils from other districts such as Bankura, Purulia, Birbhum, and North Bengal.
7. This study utilized only two tools that had been validated in a different area, not the education sector.
8. Due to a shortage of time, the researcher could not standardize the scale properly and could not justify each item and measurement.
9. Due to time constraints, the researcher could investigate more independent variables.
10. The study could only include some ST students at all levels in all West Bengal districts similarly.
11. The responses of ST pupils came from only some of the Jhargram district. ST students from two schools in each block responded.
12. Due to time constraints, the researcher could only study some of the population of West Bengal.
13. This study had extremely few replies (data) from urban and semi-urban areas.
14. Due to time constraints, the researcher could only collect 623 responses.
15. Only a self-reporting questionnaire survey was used to obtain data. Other modes, such as an interview, can influence the outcome.
16. In this case, the researcher used the Bengali version of the tools to gather data from ST students. This version, however, may have been less understandable to each participant, resulting in a different final result.

6.6.0 Suggestions for Further Study

Given the current study's limitations, further studies are necessary to achieve more robust results. However, the current study highlights the necessity of investigating the following areas to establish a more solid generalization:

1. Future studies should explore the participation of ST students using various research techniques, such as experimental, observation, case study, and mixed-method.
2. Research efforts might be expanded to include diverse sub-castes of tribal pupils in WB and other parts of India.
3. Investigate other variables interacting with PSs to thoroughly understand their impact on EA and academic accomplishment.
4. Increase the number of tribal students included in the studies to increase the generalizability of the findings.
5. Create and use standardized instruments to assess PSs, educational adaptability, and AA among tribal students.
6. In the future, conduct a research series that explicitly includes socio-cultural and psychological elements influencing tribal students' AA.
7. Investigate the impact of additional factors on PSs to gain a more complete knowledge of their dynamics.
8. Consider including other demographic variables in research to get a complete view of the factors influencing Tribal students' educational experiences.

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APPENDICES

Appendix-A

Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER FOR HEADMASTER/HEADMISTRESS (HM)

Investigator's Name: Sankar Sing
Department: Education
Institution: Jadavpur University
Phone Number: 7685946146
Supervisor's Name: Dr. Lalit Lalitav Mohakud, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor, Dept. of Education, Jadavpur University

Dear Sir/Madam

I, Sankar Sing, am a Ph.D. scholar at the Department of Education, Jadavpur University. The tentative title of my research work is "The Effect of Parenting Style on School Adjustment and Academic Achievement among Scheduled Tribe (ST) Students at Higher Secondary (HS) Level". The purpose of my study is to explore the Parenting Style (PS) and its sub-scales; School Adjustment (SA) and its sub-scales; and Academic Achievement (AA) among ST students at HS Level concerning selected demographic variables, analyse the relationship between PS, SA and AA and their sub-scales, examine the effect of PS on SA and AA and their sub-scales, and identify which PS is most relevant in the perspective of SA and AA.

For the above purposes, I will survey HS-level ST students in the Jhargram district of West Bengal and collect data from them through the following four instruments:

1. Personal Information for Demographic Profile developed by Dr. L. L. Mohakud and S. Sing
2. "Educational Adjustment Scale" of A.K.P. Sinha and R.P. Singh (NPC, Agra)
3. "Parenting Style Scale" of Lamborn et al.
4. Academic Achievement Score collected from School Record

It generally takes 50-60 minutes to complete all the questionnaires/scales from serial no.1-3. Therefore, I will ask your students to participate in this survey during any recess period or any other period you assign without hampering your school activities, subject to individual students' consent.

I will create a number coding system for each participant to ensure the confidentiality of their data. Any information collected for this study that could be associated with the subjects will only be used by the researcher mentioned above with strict confidentiality.

You are free to ask any questions about the study at any time. If you want to take an interest in the study, you will get information anytime. Participation in this study is voluntary, and your students may refuse to participate at any time. This data shall be used only for the researcher's Ph.D. work and will be available until the end of the study and related publications.

Signing below means that you have read and comprehended the matters of this Consent Form and given your consent regarding your and students' participation in this study.

_____

Name of the School and Signature of HM/Principal/Teacher in Charge with Date

_____

Investigator's Signature with Date

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER FOR PARENT/GUARDIAN

Investigator's Name: Sankar Sing
Department: Education
Institution: Jadavpur University
Phone Number: 7685946146
Supervisor's Name: Dr. Lalit Lalitav Mohakud, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor, Dept. of Education, Jadavpur University

Dear Parent/Guardian

I, Sankar Sing, am a Ph.D. scholar at the Department of Education, Jadavpur University. The tentative title of my research work is "The Effect of Parenting Style on School Adjustment and Academic Achievement among Scheduled Tribe (ST) Students at Higher Secondary (HS) Level". The purpose of my study is to explore the Parenting Style (PS) and its sub-scales; School Adjustment (SA) and its sub-scales; and Academic Achievement (AA) among ST students at HS Level concerning selected demographic variables, analyse the relationship between PS, SA and AA and their sub-scales, examine the effect of PS on SA and AA and their sub-scales, and identify which PS is most relevant in the perspective of SA and AA.

For the above purposes, I will survey HS-level ST students in the Jhargram district of West Bengal and collect data from them through the following four instruments:

5. Personal Information for Demographic Profile developed by Dr. L. L. Mohakud and S. Sing
6. "Educational Adjustment Scale" of A.K.P. Sinha and R.P. Singh (NPC, Agra)
7. "Parenting Style Scale" of Lamborn et al.
8. Academic Achievement Score collected from School Record

It generally takes 50-60 minutes to complete all the questionnaires/scales from serial no.1-3. Therefore, I will ask your child to participate in this survey during any recess period or any other period as assigned by HM of your child's school without hampering his/here school activities, subject to individual child's consent.

I will create a number coding system for each participant to ensure the confidentiality of their data. Any information collected for this study that could be associated with the subjects will only be used by the researcher mentioned above with strict confidentiality.

You are free to ask any questions about the study at any time. If you want to take an interest in the study, you will get information anytime. Participation in this study is voluntary, and your child may refuse to participate at any time. This data shall be used only for the researcher's Ph.D. work and will be available until the end of the study and related publications.

Signing below means that you have read and comprehended the matters of this Consent Form and given your consent regarding your and child's participation in this study.

_____

Student's Name and Parent/Guardian Signature with Date

_____

Investigator's Signature with Date

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER FOR STUDENT

Investigator's Name: Sankar Sing
Department: Education
Institution: Jadavpur University
Phone Number: 7685946146
Supervisor's Name: Dr. Lalit Lalitav Mohakud, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor, Dept. of Education, Jadavpur University

Dear Participant,

I, Sankar Sing, am a Ph.D. scholar at the Department of Education, Jadavpur University. The tentative title of my research work is "The Effect of Parenting Style on School Adjustment and Academic Achievement among Scheduled Tribe (ST) Students at Higher Secondary (HS) Level". The purpose of my study is to explore the Parenting Style (PS) and its sub-scales; School Adjustment (SA) and its sub-scales; and Academic Achievement (AA) among ST students at HS Level concerning selected demographic variables, analyse the relationship between PS, SA and AA and their sub-scales, examine the effect of PS on SA and AA and their sub-scales, and identify which PS is most relevant in the perspective of SA and AA.

For the above purposes, I will survey HS-level ST students in the Jhargram district of West Bengal and collect data from them through the following four instruments:

1. Personal Information for Demographic Profile developed by Dr. L. L. Mohakud and S. Sing
2. "Educational Adjustment Scale" of A.K.P. Sinha and R.P. Singh (NPC, Agra)
3. "Parenting Style Scale" of Lamborn et al.
4. Academic Achievement Score collected from School Record

It generally takes 50-60 minutes to complete all the questionnaires/scales from serial no.1-3. Therefore, I will ask you to participate in this survey during any recess period or any other period as assigned by HM of your school without hampering your school activities.

I will create a number coding system for each participant to ensure the confidentiality of your data. Any information collected for this study that could be associated with the subjects will only be used by the researcher mentioned above with strict confidentiality.

You are free to ask any questions about the study at any time. If you want to take an interest in the study, you will get information anytime. Participation in this study is voluntary, and you may refuse to participate at any time. This data shall be used only for the researcher's Ph.D. work and will be available until the end of the study and related publications.

Signing below means that you have read and comprehended the matters of this Consent Form and given your consent to participate in this study.

_____

Student's Signature with Date

_____

Investigator's Signature with Date

Appendix- B

Questionnaire for Personal Information

তারিখ: ...../...../.....

অনুগ্রহ করে নিম্নলিখিত তথ্যগুলি পূরণ করুন:-

নাম:-_____

বয়স:-_____লিঙ্গ:-(ছেলে/মেয়ে)__শ্রেণি:-_____জাতি:-(SC/ST/OBC/GEN)

উপজাতি:-_____বাসস্থান:-__(গ্রাম/শহর)__

পরিবারের ধরন:- (একান্নবর্তী/ক্ষুদ্র)

পরিবারের সদস্য সংখ্যা:-_____ ভাই-বোনের সংখ্যা:-_____

জন্ম-ক্রম অবস্থান:-_____

পিতার পেশা:-_____মাতার পেশা:-_____

পিতার শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা:-_____মাতার শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা:-_____

শেষ পরীক্ষার প্রাপ্ত নম্বর:-_____পরীক্ষায় মোট নম্বর:-_____

পরিবারের মাসিক আয়:- (১০০০০ বা তার থেকে কম/ ১০০০১ থেকে ২০০০০/ ২০০০১ থেকে ৩০০০০/ ৩০০০১ থেকে ৫০০০০/ ৫০০০১ থেকে ৮০০০০/৮০০০১ থেকে বেশি)

Appendix- C

Parenting Style Scale

PARENTAL WARMTH/INVOLVEMENT

বাংলা সংস্কৃতিতে গৃহীতঃ শংকর সিং (Ph.D. Scholar) ও ড. ললিত ললিতাভ মহাকুড (Assistant Professor, Dept. of Education, Jadavpur University)

নির্দেশনা

নিম্নে তোমার মা সম্পর্কে কিছু প্রশ্ন আছে, যাদের উত্তর বিভিন্ন প্রশ্ন ক্ষেত্রে বিভিন্ন দেওয়া আছে। যত্নসহকারে বিবৃতিগুলো পড়ো এবং স্থির করো কোন উত্তরটি তোমার মায়ের দিক থেকে তুমি পেয়ে থাকো। তোমার উত্তর নিচে থাকা বাক্সের মধ্যে যেটি ঠিক মনে হবে তাতে ঠিক চিহ্ন দাও।

১। আমার যদি কোনো সমস্যা হয়, আমি সাহায্যের জন্য বাবার উপর নির্ভর করতে পারি।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

২। আমি যে কাজই করি, তাতে বাবা আমার সেরাটা দেওয়ার জন্য সর্বদা উৎসাহিত করেন।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

৩। আমার বাবা আমাকে সর্বদা স্বাধীনভাবে চিন্তা ভাবনা করতে উৎসাহিত করেন।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

৪। বিদ্যালয়ের কোনো কাজ বুঝতে না পারলে আমার বাবা তা বুঝতে সাহায্য করে থাকেন।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

৫। আমাকে দিয়ে বাবা কিছু করাতে চাইলে, তা কেন করতে হবে তা বুঝিয়ে দেন।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

৬। বিদ্যালয়ের পরীক্ষায় আমার খারাপ ফলাফল হলে, আরও কঠোর পরিশ্রম করার জন্য বাবা আমায় উৎসাহিত করেন।

(কখনই না/মাঝে মাঝে/সবসময়)

৭। বিদ্যালয়ের আমি ভালো ফলাফল করলে, বাবা আমার প্রশংসা করেন।

(কখনই না/মাঝে মাঝে/সবসময়)

৮। আমার বাবা ভালো ভাবেই জানেন কারা আমার বন্ধু।

(জানে না/কিছু কিছু জানে/আনেকটা জানে না)

৯। আমার বাবা আমার সাথে সময় কাটান শুধুমাত্র কথা বলে।

(প্রায় সবদিনই/সপ্তাহে কিছু কিছু দিন/মাসের কিছু সময়/কখনই করেন না)

১০। আমার পরিবার একসাথে মজাদার কিছু করেন।

(প্রায় সবদিনই/সপ্তাহে কিছু কিছু দিন/মাসের কিছু সময়/কখনই করেন না)

PARENTAL STICKNESS/SUPERVISION

১১। বিদ্যালয় চলাকালীন একটি সাধারণ সপ্তাহে(সোমবার থেকে শুক্রবার/শনিবার), আমি রাত্রে বাড়ির বাইরে থাকতে পারি- (বাইরে যেতে অনুমতি দেয় না/৮:০০ টার আগে/৮:০০ টা থেকে ৮:৫৯ টা/৯:০০ টা থেকে ৯:৫৯ টা/১০:০০ টা থেকে ১০:৫৯ টা/১১:০০ টা বা তারপর)

১২। একটি সাধারণ সপ্তাহে শুক্রবার বা শনিবার রাত্রে, আমি বাড়ির বাইরে থাকতে পারি- (বাইরে যেতে অনুমতি দেয় না/৮:০০ টার আগে/৮:০০ টা থেকে ৮:৫৯ টা/৯:০০ টা থেকে ৯:৫৯ টা/১০:০০ টা থেকে ১০:৫৯ টা/১১:০০ টা বা তারপর)

১৩। আমার বাবা সঠিক ভাবে জানেন, বিদ্যালয় ছুটি হওয়ার পর বিকেলে প্রায়শই আমি কোথায় থাকি।

(হ্যাঁ/না)

আমার বাবা আমার সম্পর্কে জানতে চেষ্টা করেন-

(ক) রাত্রে আমি কোথায় যাই?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

(খ) অবসর সময় আমি কি করি?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

(গ) বিদ্যালয় ছুটি হওয়ার পর বিকেলে প্রায়শই আমি কোথায় থাকি?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

আমার বাবা আমার সম্পর্কে প্রকৃত অর্থে জানেন-

(ক) রাত্রে আমি কোথায় যাই?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

(খ) অবসর সময় আমি কি করি?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

(গ) বিদ্যালয় ছুটি হওয়ার পর বিকেলে প্রায়শই আমি কোথায় থাকি?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

PARENTAL WARMTH/INVOLVEMENT

বাংলা সংস্কৃতিতে গৃহীতঃ শংকর সিং (Ph.D. Scholar) ও ড. ললিত ললিতাভ মহাকুড (Assistant Professor, Dept. of Education, Jadavpur University)

নির্দেশনা

নিম্নে তোমার বাবা সম্পর্কে কিছু প্রশ্ন আছে, যাদের উত্তর বিভিন্ন প্রশ্ন ক্ষেত্রে বিভিন্ন দেওয়া আছে। যত্নসহকারে বিবৃতিগুলো পড়ো এবং স্থির করো কোন উত্তরটি তোমার বাবার দিক থেকে তুমি পেয়ে থাকো। তোমার উত্তর নিচে থাকা বাক্সের মধ্যে যেটি ঠিক মনে হবে তাতে ঠিক চিহ্ন দাও।

১। আমার যদি কোনো সমস্যা হয়, আমি সাহায্যের জন্য মা-র উপর নির্ভর করতে পারি।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

২। আমি যে কাজই করি, তাতে মা আমার সেরাটা দেওয়ার জন্য সর্বদা উৎসাহিত করেন।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

৩। আমার মা আমাকে সর্বদা স্বাধীনভাবে চিন্তা ভাবনা করতে উৎসাহিত করেন।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

৪। বিদ্যালয়ের কোনো কাজ বুঝতে না পারলে আমার মা তা বুঝতে সাহায্য করে থাকেন।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

৫। আমাকে দিয়ে মা কিছু করাতে চাইলে, তা কেন করতে হবে তা বুঝিয়ে দেন।

(সাধারণত ঠিক/সাধারণত ভুল)

৬। বিদ্যালয়ের পরীক্ষায় আমার খারাপ ফলাফল হলে, আরও কঠোর পরিশ্রম করার জন্য মা আমায় উৎসাহিত করেন।

(কখনই না/মাঝে মাঝে/সবসময়)

৭। বিদ্যালয়ের আমি ভালো ফলাফল করলে, মা আমার প্রশংসা করেন।

(কখনই না/মাঝে মাঝে/সবসময়)

৮। আমার মা ভালো ভাবেই জানেন কারা আমার বন্ধু।

(জানে না/কিছু কিছু জানে/আনেকটা জানে না)

৯। আমার মা আমার সাথে সময় কাটান শুধুমাত্র কথা বলে।

(প্রায় সবদিনই/সপ্তাহে কিছু কিছু দিন/মাসের কিছু সময়/কখনই করেন না)

১০। আমার পরিবার একসাথে মজাদার কিছু করেন।

(প্রায় সবদিনই/সপ্তাহে কিছু কিছু দিন/মাসের কিছু সময়/কখনই করেন না)

PARENTAL STICKNESS/SUPERVISION

১১। বিদ্যালয় চলাকালীন একটি সাধারণ সপ্তাহে(সোমবার থেকে শুক্রবার/শনিবার), আমি রাত্রে বাড়ির বাইরে থাকতে পারি- (বাইরে যেতে অনুমতি দেয় না/৮:০০ টার আগে/৮:০০ টা থেকে ৮:৫৯ টা/৯:০০ টা থেকে ৯:৫৯ টা/১০:০০ টা থেকে ১০:৫৯ টা/১১:০০ টা বা তারপর)

১২। একটি সাধারণ সপ্তাহে শুক্রবার বা শনিবার রাত্রে, আমি বাড়ির বাইরে থাকতে পারি- (বাইরে যেতে অনুমতি দেয় না/৮:০০ টার আগে/৮:০০ টা থেকে ৮:৫৯ টা/৯:০০ টা থেকে ৯:৫৯ টা/১০:০০ টা থেকে ১০:৫৯ টা/১১:০০ টা বা তারপর)

১৩। আমার মা সঠিক ভাবে জানেন, বিদ্যালয় ছুটি হওয়ার পর বিকেলে প্রায়শই আমি কোথায় থাকি।

(হ্যাঁ/না)

আমার মা আমার সম্পর্কে জানতে চেষ্টা করেন-

(ক) রাত্রে আমি কোথায় যাই?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

(খ) অবশর সময় আমি কি করি?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

(গ) বিদ্যালয় ছুটি হওয়ার পর বিকেলে প্রায়শই আমি কোথায় থাকি?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

আমার মা আমার সম্পর্কে প্রকৃত অর্থে জানেন-

(ক) রাত্রে আমি কোথায় যাই?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

(খ) অবশর সময় আমি কি করি?

(একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

(গ) বিদ্যালয় ছুটি হওয়ার পর বিকেলে প্রায়শই আমি কোথায় থাকি? (একদমই চেষ্টা করেন না/সামান্য চেষ্টা করেন/অনেকটা চেষ্টা করেন)

Appendix- D

Adjustment Inventory

Educational Adjustment

Developed by Prof. A.K.P. Singha & Prof. R.P. Singh (NPC, Agra)

বাংলা সংস্কৃতিতে গৃহীতঃ মধুমঙ্গল নায়ক (MPhil Scholar) ও ড. ললিত ললিতাভ মহাকুড (Assistant Professor, Dept. of Education, Jadavpur University)

নির্দেশনা

নিম্নে তোমার বিদ্যালয়ের সমস্যা সংক্রান্ত কিছু প্রশ্ন আছে, যাদের উত্তর "সর্বদা", "কখনো কখনো" কিংবা "কখনো না"। যত্নসহকারে বিবৃতিগুলো পড়ো এবং স্থির করো উত্তর দিতে চাও কিনা। যদি তোমার উত্তর "সর্বদা" হয়, তাহলে "সর্বদা" এর নিচে থাকা বাক্সের মধ্যে ☑ চিহ্ন দাও। তোমার উত্তর যদি "কখনো কখনো" হয়, তাহলে "কখনো কখনো" এর নিচে থাকা বাক্সের মধ্যে ☑ চিহ্ন দাও। তোমার উত্তর যদি "কখনো না" হয়, তাহলে "কখনো না" এর নিচে থাকা বাক্সের মধ্যে ☑ চিহ্ন দাও। তোমার পরিচয় সম্পূর্ণ গোপন থাকবে, কেবল প্রয়োজনীয় উপাত্ত গবেষণার কাজে ব্যবহার করা হবে।

ক্রমিক নং	বিবৃতি	সর্বদা	কখনো কখনো	কখনো না
১	তুমি কি তোমার পাঠ্য জিনিসটি শীঘ্রই ভুলে যাও?			
২	তোমার কি পরীক্ষায় ভীতি আছে?			
৩	শ্রেণিকক্ষে পড়ানো বিষয় বুঝতে কি অসুবিধা হয়?			
৪	শ্রেণিকক্ষে পড়ানো পাঠ্যবিষয় তুমি কি সঠিকভাবে লিখতে পারো?			
৫	শ্রেণিকক্ষে যখন পড়ানো হয়, তুমি কি হাই তোলো?			
৬	বিদ্যালয়ের শিক্ষকদের শিক্ষাদান পদ্ধতিতে তুমি কি সন্তুষ্ট?			
৭	তোমার কি মনে হয় যে, শিক্ষকেরা তোমার সমস্যায় কোনো মনোযোগ দেন না?			
৮	তোমার পঠন-পাঠনের প্রগতি বিষয়ে তুমি কি সন্তুষ্ট?			
৯	কোনো কিছু পড়াশুনা তোমার উপর বোঝা মনে হয় কি?			

ক্রমিক নং	বিবৃতি	সর্বদা	কখনো কখনো	কখনো না
১০	শিক্ষক মহাশয়েরা কি সর্বদা তোমার পঠন-পাঠন সম্পর্কিত সমস্যা সমাধানে প্রস্তুত থাকেন?			
১১	তোমার শিক্ষকেরা তোমার প্রশংসা করেন কি?			
১২	পরীক্ষায় কি তুমি প্রায়শই কম নম্বর পাও?			
১৩	বিদ্যালয়ে বেশি ছুটি পছন্দ করো কি?			
১৪	তুমি কি তোমার সহপাঠীদের সাথে সর্বদা ঝগড়া করো?			
১৫	বিদ্যালয়ে কিছু শিক্ষক কি পড়াশোনার জন্য তোমাকে বকাবকি করেন?			
১৬	শিক্ষকের প্রতি শ্রদ্ধাসুলভ দৃষ্টিভঙ্গি পোষণ করো কি?			
১৭	শ্রেণিকক্ষে পাঠদানের সময় তুমি কি মনোযোগ দাও?			
১৮	তুমি কি বিদ্যালয়ের গ্রন্থাগার থেকে বই ও পত্রিকা নাও এবং সেগুলোকে পড়ো?			
১৯	তুমি কি তর্ক-বিতর্কে অংশগ্রহণ করো?			
২০	শিক্ষা বিষয়ক জিনিসে তুমি কি আগ্রহী?			

Appendix- E

Photo Copy of Paper Presentation Certificate-1

GECE 2020

THE 1ST GLOBAL E-CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION-2020 | KOLKATA

Theme: "Human Cognition in Learning: An Educational Perspective"

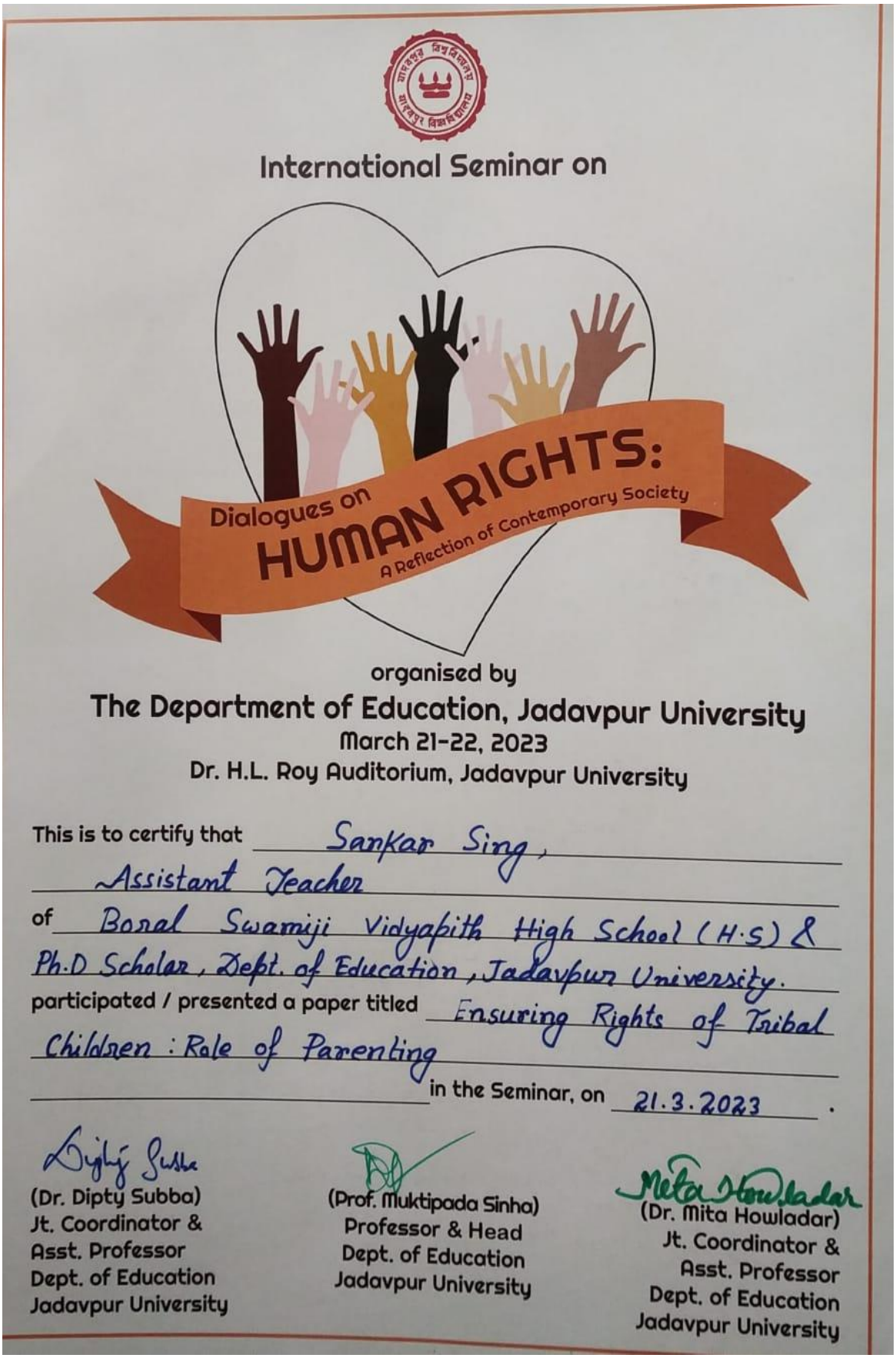
CERTIFICATE OF PARTICIPATION

SANKAR SING

Ph.D. Scholar of Jadavpur University, Kolkata, has participated and presented a paper entitled "**Impact of Parenting Styles on Academic Achievement Tribal Students**" in the 1st Global E-Conference on Education-2020, Kolkata, India, on the theme "Human Cognition in Learning: An Educational Perspective", organized by the Department of Education, Jadavpur University, Kolkata, India and the Department of Education, Dinabandhu Mahavidyalaya, Bongaon, North 24 Parganas, West Bengal, India on August 22-23, 2020.

DR. MUKTIPADA SINHA	DR. LALIT LALITAV MOHAKUD	SMT. BISWAJITA MOHANTY	DR. BISWAJIT GHOSH
Head, Department of Education	CONVENER, GECE-2020	CONVENER, GECE-2020	Principal, Dinabandhu
Jadavpur University	KOLKATA	KOLKATA	Mahavidyalaya

Photo Copy of Paper Presentation Certificate-2



International Seminar on

Dialogues on
HUMAN RIGHTS:
A Reflection of Contemporary Society

organised by
The Department of Education, Jadavpur University
March 21-22, 2023
Dr. H.L. Roy Auditorium, Jadavpur University

This is to certify that Sankar Sing,
Assistant Teacher
of Boral Swamiji Vidyapith High School (H.S) &
Ph.D Scholar, Dept. of Education, Jadavpur University.
participated / presented a paper titled Ensuring Rights of Tribal
Children : Role of Parenting
in the Seminar, on 21.3.2023 .

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Appendix- F

Photo Copy of Paper Publication

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Social Adjustment Patterns of Tribal Students: Exploring Family Dynamics

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Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Author SS managed the literature searches, reviewed the related literature, collected the data, and prepared the initial draft of the manuscript. Author LLM conceptualized and designed the study, translated and culturally adopted the research instrument in Bengali culture, has written the introduction section, and prepared the final draft of the manuscript. Author AK reviewed the related literature, collected the data, scored and tabulated, and prepared the references. Author SK performed the statistical analysis, interpreted the results, and wrote the methodology section. Finally, authors LLM and SK read and approved the final manuscript.

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Original Research Article

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ABSTRACT

This research delves into the intricate aspects of social adjustment among Scheduled Tribe students within the secondary school environment. The study explored the influences of family related factors (family dynamics) such as gender, family type, number of siblings, father's education and occupation, and familial monthly income on the social adjustment abilities of these students. Based on a cross-sectional survey conducted on randomly selected 310 bengali medium secondary school students from three subdivisions of Purba Medinipur District in West Bengal, the study revealed compelling insights. Bengali translated version of the Bell's Adjustment Inventory (Social

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Adjustment Subscale) was used as research instrument. Data were analysed through independent samples t-test and one-way ANOVA. The gender-based analysis highlights that female (Mean=7.64) students within the Scheduled Tribe community face more significant adjustment challenges and exhibit lower social adjustment compared to their male counterpart (Mean=6.20) (P=.000). The influence of family type is also substantial, with students from nuclear families (Mean=7.22) encountering higher adjustment difficulties and more downward social adjustment than those from joint families (Mean=5.86) (P=.000). The examination of family size indicated that students with two siblings (in comparison to students who are single child, having one sibling and having three or more siblings) experience heightened adjustment difficulties and lower social adjustment (P=.025). Furthermore, the study underscored the role of socio-economic factors, revealing significant relationships between the father's occupation (P=.04) and educational qualifications (P=.05) with students' social adjustment abilities. While overall differences in familial monthly income did not prove statistically significant (P=.134), selected pairwise comparisons were also showed variations. Collectively, these findings contribute to a nuanced understanding of the factors shaping social adjustment among Scheduled Tribe students. The implications extend to the development of tailored interventions and support systems that address the unique needs of these students within the educational context.

Keywords: Social adjustment; secondary school students; tribal students; family dynamics.

1. INTRODUCTION

Adjustment, a significant aspect of human development, is an ongoing interaction between individuals and their environment [1], aiming to establish a harmonious relationship. It is the process by which a living organism maintains equilibrium between its physical, social, and psychological needs and the external factors influencing fulfilling them [2]. It's a state that fosters happiness and efficiency within an environment as individuals strive for psychological equilibrium and self-enhancement [3]. It is how or how to adapt to a new situation [4] and can be seen as an achievement, gauging conflict resolution, and a process of compromise during conflicts [5]. Although adjustment contains many aspects, such as social, educational, emotional, or psychological [6], and physical dimensions, the best part is social adjustment (SA), which is the prerequisite to the other aspects of adjustment [7]. As social beings, human beings need it to interact effectively with others. SA helps people face difficulties [8] and to understand social relationships well. Numerous studies highlight the significance of SA in various domains: peer relations, academics, family dynamics, happiness, and life satisfaction. The link between SA and academic success has been evidenced in Western countries and India [9,10]. Generally, sociable and prosocial children excel academically, while disruptive, aggressive individuals who perform poorly [11,12] often exhibit poor performance, withdrawal, shyness, and antisocial behavior, resulting in truancy and school absenteeism. Social withdrawal and inhibition are also tied to academic difficulties [9,10].

SA, involving interactions with parents, peers, and teachers, is pivotal in developing adaptive skills [13] and has garnered considerable attention from psychologists as a vital indicator of psychological well-being. Positive SA fosters healthy relationships, emotional well-being, and psychological health among students. As aligned with society's standards, values, and needs to gain acceptance [14], SA is a psychological process of coping with new norms and values. It is the ability to behave in a manner that fosters a healthy social life [15] and adapt to and thrive in diverse social situations. SA is a state of mind and behavior where one feels that one's needs have been or will be fulfilled [16]. The level of SA can be gauged by observing the extent to which a child displays acceptance in their relationships with other children and adults [17]. According to Packiaselvi and Malathi, SA comprises two aspects: general adjustment to other people and specific adjustment to a group [18]. It balances social relationships by appropriately applying social skills [19]. SA may occur by adjusting the self to the environment or changing the environment [20].

Social growth hinges on interactions with parents, peers, and teachers, reflecting oneself and others' adjustment [21]. In school, children learn to coexist and cooperate with peers and teachers from diverse backgrounds [22], boosting their SA skills, which impact their future

happiness, aspirations, motivation, well-being, and achievements. Tribal students are no exception. Recognizing the importance of SA skills in school, particularly for tribal students, highlights the role of diverse backgrounds in shaping one's future. Understanding the concept of tribes is essential in appreciating how tribal students learn to coexist in various school environments. Now, let's delve into the definition and characteristics of tribes as described by experts. A tribe comprises families sharing a common name, territory, language, and specific marriage and occupation taboos. They have an interchange and mutual obligations system and typically maintain an endogamous structure with political organization within their society. Tribal people, mainly indigenous, predominantly live in remote and inaccessible hilly and forest regions, maintaining a distinct culture that isolates them from mainstream society [23]. These communities exhibit significant variations in socio-economic factors, customs, rituals, food habits, language, and parenting styles compared to others [24]. Article 366 (25) of the Indian Constitution states Scheduled Tribes (ST) are groups recognized under Article 342 as Scheduled Tribes. Despite making up 8.6% of India's population, STs are often marginalized, with West Bengal's ST population at 5.8%, including 7.8% in rural and 1.5% in urban areas [Census Report, Govt. of India, 2011]. The unique cultural identities and complex social structures of tribal students, coupled with isolation, can lead to communication challenges and adjustment issues in schools, setting them apart from the broader society and contributing to feelings of aloofness. As secondary school marks a crucial phase of physical and mental growth for these students, their SA becomes paramount during this period [23]. They had more anxiety and adjustment issues than non-tribal students [24], and many lacked life skills.

Studies revealed several family [25,26] and school [26] related factors influence SA of school students, such as child nourishment, peer groups, economic conditions, caste systems, emotions, health, language, culture, education, behavior, morality, parenting factors [27-31]. Raju and Rhamtulla maintained parental occupation, caste, and gender are prominent among these factors [32]. Additionally, researchers have delved into the disparities in SA among tribal students, particularly examining family dynamics. Family dynamics encompass interactions shaped by individual traits, roles, culture, and external factors, impacting decision-making, conflict resolution, and emotions. These dynamics involve family type, parental backgrounds, income, siblings, collectivism, elder guidance, cultural values, economic implications, gender roles, parental involvement, language, cultural identities, community support, community resilience, etc. In tribal communities, as in others, these dynamics notably impact children's and students' interactions, relationships, and adjustment. These dynamics or factors also greatly influence the SA of tribal secondary-level students, affecting self-esteem, communication skills, and overall social competence [32]. Das and Deb discovered gender-based divergence in SA among tribal adolescents [19], and Jain and Yadav echoed this theme, emphasizing the relevance of gender in understanding adjustment dynamics [33]. These studies shed light on the multifaceted nature of SA among tribal students, considering various socio-demographic factors and gender-related nuances. Understanding and addressing these family-related influences is vital for promoting the well-being and SA of tribal secondary-level students [33]. Recognizing this complexity is essential for educators, counselors, and policymakers, as it affects academic performance, social development, and life outcomes, with family dynamics exhibiting substantial variation even within the same cultural or socio-economic context.

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Investigation of SA among students, a compilation of studies reveals diverse findings. Das and Deb documented noteworthy differences in SA between tribal and non-tribal students in Tripura [19]. Akhtar underscored more pronounced adjustment-related issues among tribal students [24]. Auni et al., scrutinized Kenya's secondary school guidance and counseling programs, linking ineffective strategies to poor SA [34]. Kirtania explored 202 higher secondary students from West Bengal, noting the negligible impact of caste and parental factors on SA [Kirtania. P. (2019). Unpublished M. Phil Dissertation]. Osa-Edoh and Iyamu revealed that well-adjusted students perform better academically [35].

Chauhan and Taviyadi and Patel identified gender-based differences among higher secondary students in SA [36,37]. Ganai and Mir found no gender-based differences in adjustment [38]. Yellaiah noted gender-based disparities in emotional, social, and educational adjustment,

while Basu identified better adjustment among female, joint family, and English medium students [39,22]. Gehlawat found no significant difference in the emotional, social, and educational adjustment of boys and girls in secondary school [40]. It was found that male school students differ significantly in SA compared to female adolescents [37,17,18,39]. On the other hand, Muneer studied 350 tribal residential school students in Kerala and revealed that gender does not significantly affect SA [41].

Patial and Patial revealed various factors influence SA, such as motivational values, goals, past experiences, conflicts, frustrations, ego status, coping patterns like compromise, withdrawal, and attack, defense mechanisms, and attitudes that can be goal-directed, problem-solving, or self-centered [16]. Acharya examined 316 tribal girls from Odisha's Aspirational Districts, discovering significant disparities in SA across various socio-economic strata [42]. Tahir et al. (2022) found a strong link between the home environment and the SA of secondary school students in Kashmir [17]. Packiaselvi and Malathi found no significant differences in SA concerning mother tongue, gender, school location, family type, parents' educational qualifications, occupations, and monthly parental income [18]. Ghatak and Yellaiah reported no significant difference in SA between urban and rural adolescents [15,39].

The analysis of the related studies showed collectively that these studies emphasize the multifaceted nature of SA of school students influenced by gender, socio-economic status, counseling interventions, etc. Still, research has yet to explore how SA is affected by family dynamics among tribal students. Therefore, the present study aims to provide significant insights into the SA abilities of ST students in secondary school settings through a comprehensive analysis of family dynamics considering key variables such as gender, type of family, number of siblings, father's education and occupation, and family income. This investigation aims to determine if there are any significant variations in SA among ST students based on their family dynamics. Based on the objectives above, some null hypotheses were formulated for evaluation, which contend that there is no significant difference in the SA of ST students based on their family dynamics, including gender, type of family, number of siblings, father's education and occupation, and family income.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants

All the Scheduled Tribe students studying in Bengali medium secondary schools in West Bengal constitute the target population of the study. The study participants were Scheduled Tribe (ST) students in Class VIII to X. They were 13 to 17 years old. For this study, the researchers followed a cross-sectional survey design to examine the SA patterns of randomly selected 310 students (114 girls and 196 boys) from Panskura-I, Panskura-II, and Tamluk subdivision of Purba Medinipur District in the state of West Bengal, India.

3.2 Measures

In this study, the researchers used a personal information sheet and the Bell's Adjustment Inventory (BAIo) of R. K. Ojha [43]. The original version of the BAIo was in English and had four sub-scales (Home Adjustment, Health Adjustment, Social Adjustment, and Emotional Adjustment) with 35 items each. For this study, only the SA sub-scale was used, which was translated and adapted into Bengali culture through a pilot study on a smaller representative group by Mohakud and Kirtania [44]. Content validity of the tool was ensured through experts' judgment. Also based on the expert's judgment, we considered only 15 items of this sub-scale for the final data collection measure. All the items had two options (Yes or No), with a score of 1 for 'Yes' and 0 for 'No'. The internal consistency reliability of the measure was high. A higher score on this scale indicates higher difficulty in adjustment and consequently lower social adjustment, and vice versa.

3.3 The Procedure of Data Collection

The researchers administered a cross-sectional survey among the participants to measure their social adjustment abilities. At first, the researchers identified the target population and then prepared a list of the target population. After that, the researcher selected some representative population groups using the mentioned sampling procedure. The researchers then visited the participants, explaining the purpose of the research and all legal research procedures and asking for voluntary participation. When they agreed, the researchers instructed the procedures clearly and then administered the

personal information sheet and the Social Adjustment Sub-Scale. They organized the filled-in instruments for further screening and scoring after the survey and stored the data in an Excel worksheet on the personal computer for final analysis. Finally, the researchers used descriptive statistics, such as Frequency, Mean, and Standard Deviation (SD), to analyze the data. They used independent sample t-test and One-Way ANOVA in SPSS to test hypotheses.

4. RESULTS

A set of data is normal if the Skewness (Sk) and Kurtosis (Ku) are zero (0) and .263, respectively. However, in social sciences, it is rare to find the same. Therefore, social science researchers empirically set a range to consider data normality. In the present study, the distribution of SA scores among the participants is considered normal as the Sk is .601 with a Standard Error (SE) of .175 and the Ku is -.678 with a SE of .348. which lies within the range considered by Curran et al. (Sk < 2, Ku < 7) and Kline (Sk < 3, Ku < 10) [45,46].

4.1 Gender, Family Type and Social Adjustment

The mean score of SA for females is higher than for males (see Table 1), which means female students had higher adjustment difficulty and lower SA than their counterparts. The mean difference is -1.44. Further, the independent samples t-test result revealed that the difference is statistically significant (p=.000<0.01).

While the type of family was the concern, the analysis revealed that the mean score of SA for students from nuclear families is higher than those from joint families, meaning students from nuclear families had more incredible adjustment difficulty and lower SA than students from nuclear families. The mean difference is -1.37. Further, the independent samples t-test result revealed that the difference is statistically significant (*P*=.000<0.01).

4.2 Number of Siblings and Social Adjustment

When we compared the mean scores of SA concerning the number of siblings among the ST students, the analysis revealed that the students having two siblings face the highest adjustment difficulty; consequently, they have the lowest SA, followed by having one sibling, single child, and the students having more than three siblings face lowest adjustment difficulty hence highest SA. Further, the ANOVA result revealed that the variances among the groups are statistically significant (*P*=.025<0.05), and the differences lie between having one sibling and having more than three siblings (*P*=.023), and between having two siblings and having more than three siblings (*P*=.006).

4.3 Fathers' Occupation and Social Adjustment

Concerning the students' SA based on their father's occupation, the analysis revealed that the tribal students whose fathers are businessmen face the most severe adjustment difficulty and consequently lowest SA, followed by the labourer, agriculture, others, service, and lowest adjustment difficulty and therefore highest SA for the tribal students, whose fathers are drives. Further, the ANOVA results revealed the variances among the groups are statistically significant (*P*=.04<0.04). The differences lie between agriculture and driver (*P*=.009), business and driver (*P*=.005), and labour and driver (*P*=.009).

4.4 Fathers' Educational Qualification and Social Adjustment

Table 4 shows the SA of tribal students concerning their fathers' educational qualifications. The tribal students whose father's educational qualification is Class XI and above face the highest adjustment difficulty, meaning they have the lowest SA, followed by Class IV, Illiterate. On the other hand, students whose father's educational qualification is between Class-V to Class-X face the lowest adjustment difficulty, which means the highest SA. Further, the ANOVA result revealed the variances in mean scores are statistically significant (*P*=.050). Additionally, the multiple comparisons through the LSD test showed that the differences lie between illiterate and Class-XI and Above (*P*=.010), up to Class-V and Class-XI and Above (*P*=.026), and Class-V to X and Class-XI and Above (*P*=.010).

4.5 Familial Income and Social Adjustment

When we focused on the SA of the tribal students concerning their familial monthly income, our analysis revealed that students belonging to the Rs. 6001/- to Rs. 12000/- familial monthly income group face the highest adjustment difficulty; consequently, they have lowest SA, followed by up to Rs. 3000/- income group, Rs. 3001/- to Rs. 6000/- income group and lowest adjustment difficulty and higher SA for above Rs. 12000/- income groups. Further, the ANOVA result revealed that the variances in SA among the income groups are statistically insignificant (P=.134>0.05), and SA does not vary significantly based on students' familial monthly income.

However, the multiple comparisons through the LSD test revealed a statistically significant difference in social adjustment between up to 3000 and above 12000 income groups (*P*=.039) and between 6001 to 9000 and above 12000 income groups (*P*=.006).

Table 1. Gender and family type-wise comparison of social adjustment

		N	Mean	SD	MD	SE$_M$	t	df	*P*
Gender	Male	196	6.20	2.28	-1.44	.16266			
	Female	114	7.64	2.10		.19667	-5.528		.000**
Type of family	Joint	111	5.86	2.29	-1.37	.2168		308	.000**
	Nuclear	199	7.22	2.19		.1553	-5.214		

***result is statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance*

Table 2. The comparison of SA mean scores concerning the number of siblings

Number of Siblings	N	Mean	df	F	*P*
Single Child	47	6.47			
Having one Sibling	74	7.01			
Having Two Siblings	102	7.12	3	3.15	.025*
More Than Three Siblings	87	6.18			
Total	310	6.73			

**result is statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance*

Table 3. The comparison of SA mean scores concerning fathers' occupations

Father's Occupation	N	Mean	df	F	*P*
Agriculture	161	6.86			
Service	33	6.24			
Business	20	7.50			
Labour	45	7.07	5/297	2.36	.04*
Driver	28	5.61			
Others	16	6.69			
Total	303	6.74			

**result is statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance*

Table 4. Mean comparison of SA based on fathers' educational qualifications

Father's educational qualification	N	Mean	df	F	*P*
Illiterate	121	6.60			
Up to Class-IV	52	6.62			
Class-V to X	99	6.57	3/306	2.638	.050*
Class-XI and Above	38	7.71			
Total	310	6.73			

**result is statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance*

Table 5. The comparison of SA mean score concerning familial income

Monthly Income	N	Mean	df	F	P
Up to Rs. 3000/-	187	6.8235			
Rs.3001/- to Rs.6000/-	71	6.7183			
Rs. 6001/- to Rs.12000/-	17	7.3529	3	1.874	.134
Above Rs. 12000/-	35	5.9429			
Total	310	6.7290			

5. DISCUSSION

Results revealed that male and female tribal students differ significantly regarding their SA, and female students had lower SA than males. This finding is corroborated by Deb and Walsh; Tripathy and Sahu; Roy, Hossain, and Shithee; Taviyad and Patel; Tahir et al.; Ghatak, and Yellaiah [47,48, 49, 37,17,15,39], however, it contradicts the findings of Gehlawat; Rehman and Singh; Raju and Rahamtulla [40,50,32]. These findings confirm the traditional gender stereotypes. It was also found that ST students from nuclear and joint families differ significantly regarding their SA, and students from nuclear families had lower SA than those from joint families. This finding is in line with the results of Akpan-Idiok and Ackley; Rehman and Singh; Roy, Hossain, and Shithee; Tripathy and Sahu Dey and Sultana [51,50,49,48,52]. However, the results of Sharma; Rani and Khajuria; Bhungaria and Kaji, and Sahar and Muzaffar contradicted this finding [53-56]. This research delves into the nuanced dynamics of SA among ST students, uncovering gender-based and family-based differences that have implications for their educational experiences. The findings not only shed light on the unequal SA opportunities for male and female students and those from different family types but also provide insights into traditional gender stereotypes and familial influences within the tribal educational context. This study also highlighted that number of siblings plays a significant role in determining the SA pattern of ST students. This outcome echoes earlier research by Sonawat, emphasizing the substantial influence of family size on students' SA abilities within tribal contexts [57]. Understanding this relationship can inform targeted interventions to improve the social well-being of tribal students in their educational experiences. Fathers' occupation significantly influences the SA of the tribal students. This finding aligns with Yeo et al. [58], but contradicts Raju and Rahamtulla [32]. These results highlight the importance of considering socio-economic factors, such as paternal occupation, for tailored support systems and improved SA among tribal students. Analysis also revealed that the social adjustment patters of tribal students is significantly influenced by the highest educational qualification of the father. These findings align with prior research [32], potentially reflecting complexities linked to higher levels of fathers' education that influence social and educational expectations. Addressing these patterns requires tailored interventions based on paternal educational backgrounds, considering factors contributing to students' social adjustment. Understanding these dynamics is crucial for devising effective strategies to enhance the well-being and SA of tribal students. Findings of the study also revealed that overall income is not a significant factor for social adjustment among the tribal studnts. However, when SA patters was compared among specific familial monthly income groups, some significant differences present were present there. These differences may arise due to sampling fluctuations. These differences may arise due to sampling fluctuations. No study was found to support this finding. However, the results of Desai and Kulkarni contradicted this finding [59]. These findings emphasize the importance of considering socio-economic factors when understanding social adjustment among tribal students, suggesting that the association might be more nuanced than a simple linear relationship. However, the potential influence of sample fluctuations on the observed differences underscores the need for a cautious interpretation of these significant variations.

6. CONCLUSION

This study examined the intricate dynamics of social adjustment among Scheduled Tribe students in secondary school settings. The research delved into the influences of gender, family type, number of siblings, father's education and occupation, and family income on the social adjustment abilities of these students. The study revealed noteworthy findings through a comprehensive analysis that shed light on the nuanced factors shaping tribal students' social adjustment experiences. The analysis of gender-

based differences unveiled that female tribal students exhibited higher adjustment difficulties and lower social adjustment than their male counterparts. This discrepancy aligns with prior research while challenging specific opposing findings.

Moreover, the influence of family type emerged as a significant factor, indicating that students from nuclear families faced greater adjustment challenges and lower SA than those from joint families. Exploring the effects of family size on social adjustment, the study found that students with two siblings faced the most significant adjustment difficulties and displayed lower social adjustment. This outcome resonates with earlier research, reinforcing the role of family structure in students' social well-being. Similarly, the influence of the fathers' occupations and educational qualifications on SA was evident, highlighting the complexity of socio-economic factors in shaping students' adjustment abilities. The investigation into familial monthly income indicated that while overall differences were not statistically significant, specific pairwise comparisons demonstrated variations. These findings underscore the multifaceted relationship between socio-economic status and social adjustment among tribal students.

This study contributes to a deeper understanding of social adjustment dynamics among Scheduled Tribe students, revealing the significance of gender, family dynamics, socio-economic factors, and their interactions in shaping students' social adjustment experiences. It is unwise to generalize these findings; however, further large-scale and in-depth research is required. Based on these it is recommended to implement gender-sensitive support systems to address the unique social adjustment challenges faced by female tribal students in secondary schools. It is also recommended to foster collaborative efforts with nuclear families, recognizing their students may experience greater social adjustment challenges, and provide support through initiatives like parent-teacher interactions. Families need to promote positive sibling relationships through school activities. It is also recommended to develop tailored interventions considering the influence of fathers' occupation and educational qualifications on social adjustment, including initiatives like scholarship programs and career counseling. We need to adopt a nuanced approach to socio-economic factors, acknowledging the impact of specific income groups on social adjustment, and design customized interventions to address their unique challenges. Teacgers needs to actively engage with tribal communities and parents to understand unique challenges and aspirations, ensuring that interventions align with cultural contexts for social adjustment of tribal students in secondary school settings.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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