

**INFLUENCE OF PARENTING STYLE, SELF-EFFICACY,
HARDINESS AND ACADEMIC BUOYANCY ON ACADEMIC
STRESS AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS**

Thesis Submitted for the Award of the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Psychology

By

Kabeer A

Registration Number: 41800385

Supervised By

Dr. Shaveta Tewari, (UID 61212)

Assistant Professor Psychology

Lovely Professional University

Phagwara, Punjab



LOVELY PROFESSIONAL UNIVERSITY, PUNJAB

2024

DECLARATION

I, hereby declare that the presented work in the thesis entitled “**Influence of Parenting Style, Self-Efficacy, Hardiness and Academic Buoyancy on Academic Stress among Secondary School Students**” in fulfilment of degree of **Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)** is outcome of research work carried out by me under the supervision of **Dr. Shaveta Tewari**, working as Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology in the School of Social Sciences and Languages, School of Lovely Professional University, Punjab, India. In keeping with general practice of reporting scientific observations, due acknowledgements have been made whenever work described here has been based on findings of other investigator. This work has not been submitted in part or full to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree.



Kabeer A

Registration No.: 41800385

Department of Psychology

Lovely Professional University

Punjab, India

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the work reported in the Ph.D. thesis entitled “**Influence of Parenting Style, Self-Efficacy, Hardiness and Academic Buoyancy on Academic Stress among Secondary School Students**” submitted in fulfillment of the requirement for the award of degree of **Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Psychology**, is a research work carried out by **Kabeer A, 41800385**, is a bonafide record of his original work carried out under my supervision and that no part of thesis has been submitted for any other degree, diploma or equivalent course.



Dr. Shaveta Tewari, (UID 61212)

Assistant Professor Psychology

School of Social Sciences and Languages

Lovely Professional University

Phagwara, Punjab.

ABSTRACT

The current study investigates the influence of parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness and academic buoyancy on academic stress among secondary school students in the Palakkad district. This research aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of how these psychological influence academic stress levels, which is a critical concern given the increasing academic pressures on students in today's educational landscape.

The study employs a quantitative research methodology, structured in three distinct phases. Data were collected from a sample of 524 secondary school students, selected through multi-stage random sampling from various high schools in the Palakkad district. This approach ensured a representative and diverse sample, enhancing the generalizability of the findings.

The first phase involved the development and validation of research instruments. Standardized questionnaires were used to measure parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, academic buoyancy, and academic stress. Parenting style was assessed using the Scale of Parenting Style, self-efficacy was measured using the Self-efficacy Scale (SES) hardiness was assessed with the Hardiness Scale (HS), and academic buoyancy was evaluated using the Academic Buoyancy Scale (ABS). Academic stress was measured using the Academic Stress Scale (ASS).

In the second phase, data collection was conducted across the selected high schools. Students were briefed on the purpose of the study and assured of the confidentiality of their responses. The questionnaires were administered under the supervision of the researcher to ensure consistent administration procedures.

The third phase involved the data analysis, carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were calculated to summarize the demographic characteristics of the sample. Correlation analysis was conducted to explore the relationships between parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, academic buoyancy, and academic stress. Regression analysis was then employed to determine the predictive power of these variables on academic stress.

The results of the correlation analysis revealed significant relationships between the studied variables. Parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy were all found to be significantly correlated with academic stress. Self-efficacy was found to have a strong negative correlation with academic stress. Students with higher self-efficacy reported lower levels of academic stress, highlighting the importance of students' belief in their capabilities to handle academic challenges. Hardiness, which encompasses commitment, control, and challenge, also showed a negative correlation with academic stress, indicating that students who perceive stressful situations as manageable and opportunities for growth experience lower stress levels. Academic buoyancy, defined as students' ability to successfully overcome academic setbacks and challenges, was negatively correlated with academic stress.

The regression analysis further confirmed the significant influence of the independent variables on academic stress. Parenting style accounted for a significant portion of the variance in academic stress. Self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy were also significant predictors of academic stress, with self-efficacy being the strongest predictor. The analysis showed that these variables collectively accounted for a substantial proportion of the variance in academic stress, emphasizing their critical role in students' academic experiences.

The findings indicate a significant influence of parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy on academic stress among secondary school students. The significance of parenting style on academic stress is observed at the 95% confidence level, while self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy exhibit significance at the 99% confidence level.

The findings of this study have important implications for educators, parents, and policymakers. Interventions aimed at reducing academic stress should consider enhancing students' self-efficacy, promoting hardiness, and fostering academic buoyancy. In conclusion, this study is about the influence of parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy in influencing academic stress among secondary school students.

Keywords: Academic Stress, Parenting Style, Self-Efficacy, Hardiness, Academic Buoyancy,

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply grateful to **Dr. Shaveta Tewari**, Assistant Professor of Psychology at Lovely Professional University in Punjab, for her unwavering support, patience, insightful guidance, and constructive feedback during the research and preparation of this manuscript. Her positivity and belief in my abilities have been a constant source of motivation, and I am truly thankful for her consistent efforts to help me realize my potential. Without her encouragement and support, completing this thesis would not have been possible.

Furthermore, I am immensely appreciative of **Prof. Dr. Mohammad Amin Wani**, Assistant Professor in the Department of Psychology at Lovely Professional University, for his expert guidance, support, and valuable advice that have played a pivotal role in shaping the unique perspective of this research. My deepest gratitude extends to **Prof. Dr. Manish Kumar Verma**, Head of the Department of Psychology at LPU Punjab, for his expert knowledge, guidance, insightful feedback, and unwavering support, which have significantly contributed to the successful completion of my research.

I also extend my thanks to **Dr. Narayanan**, a Consultant Psychologist, for his consistent support and encouragement, which were instrumental in the successful submission of this thesis. Special appreciation goes to **Rajitha**, a Research Scholar at LPU Punjab, and **Mr. Sumal** for their valuable input and support in enhancing the quality of this research.

Acknowledgment and thanks are due to all the educational institutions and participants involved in this research, without whom this thesis would not have reached its completion. I express my sincere gratitude to my wife for her unwavering encouragement, patience, and steadfast support throughout my doctoral journey. Her unwavering support has been invaluable in guiding me through moments of uncertainty and discouragement.

I am thankful to my friends and peers for their valuable insights and support. The process of preparing this research has presented significant academic challenges, and I am grateful to all those mentioned above for their support, patience, and guidance. It is to them that I owe my deepest gratitude for their instrumental role in bringing this thesis to fruition.

Kabeer A

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter No.	Title	Page No.
I	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1	Parenting Style	2
1.1.1	Parenting	2
1.2	Self-Efficacy	4
1.3	Hardiness	6
1.4	Academic Buoyancy	8
1.5	Stress	11
1.6	Different Models of Stress	13
1.6.1	Physiological Model	13
1.6.2	Arousal Model	14
1.6.3	Transactional Model	14
1.7	Academic Stress and Adolescents	17
1.7.1	Role of Parents in Academic Stress – Indian context	19
1.8	Sources of Academic Stress	20
1.8.1	School System	22
1.9	Academic Stress Symptoms	23
1.10	School Education System and Academic Stress	25
1.11	Need for the Study	26
1.12	Significance of the Present Study	29
II	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	31
2.1	Research on Parenting	32
2.1.1	Summary and Conclusion	46
2.2	Studies Related to Self-efficacy	48

Chapter No.	Title	Page No.
	2.2.1 Summary and Conclusion	62
2.3	Studies Related to Hardiness	63
	2.3.1 Summary and Conclusion	71
2.4	Studies Related to Academic Buoyancy	73
	2.4.1 Summary and Conclusion	92
2.5	Studies Related to Academic Stress	95
	2.5.1 Summary and Conclusion	110
2.6	Conclusion	112
2.7	Research Gap	113
III	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	115
3.1	Methodology	115
	3.1.1 Objective of the Study	115
	3.1.2 Hypotheses	115
	3.1.3 Research Design	115
	3.1.4 Research Outline	117
	3.1.5 Inclusion Criteria	118
	3.1.6 Exclusion Criteria	118
	3.1.7 Variables	118
	3.1.7.1 Independent Variable	118
	3.1.7.2 Dependent Variable	118
3.2	Tools	119
	3.2.1 Description of the Tools Used	119
3.3	Scale of Parenting Style	120
3.4	Self-efficacy Scale	121

Chapter No.	Title	Page No.
	3.5 Hardiness Scale (HS)	122
	3.6 Academic Buoyancy Scale (ABS)	124
	3.7 Academic Stress Scale	125
	3.8 Socio-Demographic Details	127
	3.9 Procedure	127
	3.9.1 Data Collection Method	128
IV	DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	130
V	CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS	184
	5.1 Summary and Conclusions	184
	5.2 Research Design	185
	5.3 Research Outline	185
	5.4 Conclusion	191
	5.5 Implications for Education	191
	5.6 Suggestions for Research in the Future	192
	5.7 Limitations	194
	REFERENCES	196
	APPENDIX	221
	LIST OF PUBLICATIONS	264
	LIST OF CONFERENCES	266

LIST OF TABLES

Table No.	Title	Page No.
4.1	Gender of the Students	131
4.2	Level of Personal Inadequacy of Students	132
4.3	Level of Fear of Failure of Students	133
4.4	Level of Interpersonal Difficulties for Students with Teachers	134
4.5	Level of Teacher-Pupil Relationship / Teaching Methods	135
4.6	Level of Inadequate Study Facilities for Students	136
4.7	Level of Academic Stress of Students	137
4.8	Level of Parenting Responsiveness and Control	138
4.9	Description of Parenting Style	138
4.10	Level of Commitment of Students	139
4.11	Level of Control	140
4.12	Level of Challenge for Students	141
4.13	Level of Hardiness of Students	142
4.14	Level of Academic Co-Ordination	143
4.15	Level of Academic Clarity	144
4.16	Level of Composure	145
4.17	Level of Academic Climate	146
4.18	Level of Academic Confidence	147
4.19	Level of Academic Commitment	148
4.20	Level of Self-Confidence	149
4.21	Level of Buoyancy	150
4.22	Level of General Self-Efficacy	151

Table No.	Title	Page No.
4.23	Level of Social Self-Efficacy	152
4.24	Level of Self-Efficacy	153
4.25	Significance Test for Academic Stress based on Fathers Parental Style	154
4.26	Significance Test for Academic Stress based on Mothers Parental Style	155
4.27	Significance Test for Academic Stress based on Parental Style	157
4.28	Influence of Parenting Style on Academic Stress among Students	159
4.29	Predicting Academic Stress through Self-Efficacy	161
4.30	ANOVA for Regression Model Predicting self-efficacy	163
4.31	Coefficients of the Regression Model for Predicting academic stress	165
4.32	Influence of Self-Efficacy on Academic Stress Among Students	166
4.33	Predicting Academic Stress through Hardiness	167
4.34	ANOVA for Regression Model with Predictors of academic stress	168
4.35	Coefficients of the Regression Model for Predicting academic stress Based on Hardiness subscales	171
4.36	Influence of Hardiness on Academic Stress Among Students	171
4.37	Predicting Academic Stress through Academic Buoyancy	172
4.38	ANOVA for Regression Model Predictors of academic stress subscales	173
4.39	Coefficients of the Regression Model for Predicting academic stress Based on Academic Buoyancy	175
4.40	Influence of Academic Buoyancy on academic stress among students	176
4.41	Relationship among variables	177
4.42	Influence of Academic Buoyancy on Academic Stress among Students	179

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure No.	Title	Page No.
1.1	The General Adaptation Syndrome – Physiological Model	13
1.2	The General Adaptation Syndrome – Transactional Model	14
3.1	Multistage Sampling Method	116
3.2	Sample Distribution	117
3.3	Procedure of the Study	128
4.1	Gender of the Students	131
4.2	Level of Personal Inadequacy of Students	132
4.3	Level of Fear of Failure of Students	133
4.4	Level of Interpersonal Difficulties for Students with Teachers	134
4.5	Level of Teacher-Pupil Relationship/Teaching Methods	135
4.6	Level of Inadequate Study Facilities for Students	136
4.7	Level of Academic Stress of Students	137
4.8	Level of Commitment of Students	140
4.9	Level of Control	141
4.10	Level of Challenge for Students	142
4.11	Level of Hardiness of Students	143
4.12	Level of Academic Co-Ordination	144
4.13	Level of Academic Clarity	145
4.14	Level of Composure	146
4.15	Level of Academic Climate	147
4.16	Level of Academic Confidence	148
4.17	Level of Academic Commitment	149
4.18	Level of Self-Confidence	150
4.19	Level of Academic Buoyancy	151
4.20	Level of General Self-Efficacy	152
4.21	Level of Social Self-Efficacy	153
4.22	Level of Self-Efficacy	154

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Stress, viewed through a psychological lens, is a natural response that has evolved to help individuals cope with threats and challenges. It originated from the "fight or flight" response and served as an adaptive mechanism in early human ancestors, enhancing survival by increasing alertness, mobilizing energy, and facilitating learning and memory. However, in the modern world, chronic stressors can activate this response too frequently. Cognitive elements impact stress from a psychological standpoint, and stress management is an essential component of modern psychology and mental health procedures.

High school children frequently face stress, especially when it comes to their academic achievement. As students go from lower classes to middle class and then to high school, they encounter a new academic rigor and pressure to succeed. This can be a challenging time for students, and many may experience academic stress, negatively affecting their mental health and academic achievement. Various factors influencing academic stress include parenting styles, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy.

This research tries to delve into the realm of academic stress among high school students. It examines how different parenting approaches, self-confidence, resilience (hardiness), and the capacity to recover from challenges (academic buoyancy) influence this stress. The goal of this research is uncovering the predominant factors that cause stress in high school. By understanding these factors, we can gain valuable insights into how to effectively reduce academic stress. The research aims to identify the best strategies for helping high school students cope with the pressures they face.

The ultimate aim is to use this knowledge to develop practical interventions. These interventions will equip high school students with the tools to manage academic stress effectively. By doing so, students can not only reduce stress but also pave the way for academic success.

1.1 Parenting Style

1.1.1 Parenting

The psychological perspective on parenting examines how various psychological theories and processes influence the experience of being a parent and its impact on child development. Key aspects include attachment theory, which emphasizes early parent-child relationships and their role in emotional development. Different parenting styles, such as authoritative or authoritarian, are explored to find their influence on children's behavior and self-esteem. Researchers studying child psychology look at how parenting styles affect adolescents' cognitive, social, and emotional development while taking genetic and environmental variables into account. Parental well-being and coping with stress are essential elements of effective parenting. Furthermore, parenting is understood to evolve across the lifespan, adapting to the changing needs of children. Cultural and societal influences on parenting are also studied as they shape parenting practices and beliefs. Ultimately, parent-child relationship is central to psychological discussions of parenting, with healthy bonds helping to develop better psychological and emotional health for both parents and children.

Concept

Parenting is deeply rooted in psychology, with extensive research indicating its pivotal role in a child's psychological development (Thergaonkar & Wadkar, 2007). Numerous studies have shown the substantial impact of parenting on childhood psychological disorders (Clarke et al., 2013), emphasizing the implication of the formation years in emotional development (Gar et al., 2005). Critical psychological theories, such as attachment theory, parenting styles, and developmental psychology, shed light on various aspects of parenting.

Prevalence

Baumrind's pioneering work in parenting styles categorizes them into “authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful types”, focusing on the aspects of “responsiveness and demandingness” (Baumrind, 1966, 1967, 1973). Parenting style which is authoritative in nature has warmth but also has firmness which is associated with positive child outcomes (Maccoby & Martin, 1983), while authoritarian

parenting, marked by strictness and low responsiveness, can lead to adverse effects (Baumrind, 1966, 1967, 1973). Permissive parenting involves high responsiveness and low demands (Baumrind, 1966, 1967, 1973), whereas neglectful parenting is low in both dimensions and harmful (Baumrind, 1966, 1967, 1973). Cultural influences on parenting practices are significant (Van Campen & Russell, 2010), with different societies shaping their parenting styles. In the Indian context, academic success is highly emphasized, leading to academic stress among adolescents (Chandrashekara et al., 2007). This cultural pressure is exacerbated by parental expectations, resulting in increasing of stress and cause other mental health issues (Chakravarty, 2006). Studies have also revealed the damaging effect of academic stress on the immune system and its association with persistent daily headaches in Indian children (Chakravarty, 2006).

Regarding the prevalence of parenting styles in India, studies have reported varying distributions, reflecting regional and demographic differences. For instance, a study conducted in South India found that the authoritarian parenting style was the most prevalent, with approximately 53% of parents adopting this approach, followed by the authoritative style at around 42%, and a smaller proportion exhibiting permissive tendencies (Mubeen et al., 2022). In contrast, another study reported that 73.2% of parents followed an authoritative parenting style, 20% adhered to an authoritarian style, and 6.8% practiced a permissive style (Kumar & Lal, 2020). These variations underscore the diversity in parenting practices across different regions and populations within India.

Theories

Key psychological theories, such as attachment theory, parenting styles, and developmental psychology, are fundamental to understanding the concept of parenting (Thergaonkar & Wadkar, 2007). John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth, emphasises the significance of early child's relationship with parent in emotional development in their Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969; Ainsworth, 1973). Baumrind's work on parenting styles categorizes them into authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, and neglectful. This division is made on the basis of the aspects of demandingness and responsiveness (Baumrind, 1966, 1967, 1973). These styles have been associated with various child outcomes (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Cultural influences on parenting practices are

significant (Van Campen & Russell, 2010), with different societies shaping their parenting styles. Academic success is highly emphasized in India, leading to adolescent academic stress due to parental expectations (Chandrashekara et al., 2007). Studies have also shown the detrimental effects of academic stress on the immune system and its link to persistent daily headaches in Indian children (Chakravarty, 2006).

1.2 Self-efficacy

Concept

Self-efficacy, a crucial aspect of a person's psychological functioning, is central to social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1995). The concept centers on how individuals view their capability to think and execute actions required to reach specific goals (Bandura, 1986, 1994). Self-efficacy regulates behavior, shapes goals, determines strategies, influences effort, and impacts persistence (Bandura, 1992). High self-efficacy correlates with increased achievement and well-being, as confident individuals view challenging tasks as opportunities rather than threats (Bandura, 1994). People having low self-efficacy often believe that their failure is due to their lack of skills and knowledge (Bandura, 1994). The four main factors which contribute to self-efficacy beliefs, they are: mastery experiences, modeling, social persuasion, and emotional states” (Wood & Bandura, 1980; Biran & Wilson, 1981).

By gaining insight into the roots of self-efficacy beliefs and the elements that shape them, individuals can take proactive measures to boost their self-efficacy. This improvement can result in heightened motivation, perseverance, and ultimately, greater success across different areas of life.

Prevalence

According to Bandura “Self-efficacy”, (1978), is the belief of a person’s capacity to carry out a specific behavior (Wood & Bandura, 1989). It significantly influences a person's effort and persistence in a task (Bandura, 1978). High self-efficacy motivates more significant effort and goal commitment, while low self-efficacy may result in minimal effort or even quitting (Bandura, 1978). Self-efficacy is a powerful predictor of achieving personal goals and overall task performance (Bandura, 1978).

It can be nurtured and improved to enhance its utility in various situations (Bandura, 1978).

Theory

“Social cognitive theory” of Albert Bandura's emphasizes the crucial influence of “observational learning and social interactions” in shaping personality (Bandura, 1978). Self-efficacy is a central concept within this theory, influencing individuals' actions and reactions in various situations (Bandura, 1978). Bandura's view of self-efficacy is based on one's belief in their ability to complete a task (Bandura, 1978). Self-efficacy influences cognitive, motivational, emotional, and decision-making processes (Bandura, 1978). It shapes individuals' expectations of positive or negative outcomes based on their efforts (Bandura, 1978). Higher levels of self-efficacy leads to improved and higher level of positive attitudes, intrinsic motivation, and resilience in facing challenges, while low self-efficacy may result in avoidance and reduced persistence (Bandura, 1978).

Self-efficacy is a central concept within this theory, influencing individuals' actions and reactions in various situations (Bandura, 1978). Self-efficacy is rooted in an individual's ability to complete tasks and their belief in their own competence (Bandura, 1978). Furthermore, it impacts cognitive, motivational, emotional, and decision-making processes (Bandura, 1978). It shapes individuals' expectations of positive or negative outcomes based on their efforts (Bandura, 1978). High level of self-efficacy leads to better level of positive attitudes, intrinsic motivation, and resilience in the face of challenges, while low self-efficacy may result in avoidance and reduced persistence (Bandura, 1978).

Four significant sources help in the development of “self-efficacy beliefs” (Bandura, 1994):”Mastery Experiences”: Successes significantly enhance self-efficacy, while failures can diminish it (Bandura, 1994). Persistence in overcoming barriers and setbacks helps establish a strong sense of efficacy (Bandura, 1994).

Modeling: Observing similar others succeed boosts self-efficacy, whereas witnessing failure can reduce it (Bandura, 1994). The degree of similarity to the model influences the impact on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994).

Social Persuasion: Verbal persuasion that one can master a task can enhance self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994). Effective persuaders boost confidence and help individuals structure situations for success (Bandura, 1994).

Emotional States: Emotional states and stress reactions influence self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994). Reducing stress and shifting negative emotional tendencies can positively affect self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994).

Self-efficacy is a crucial personal resource influencing various aspects of life, including achievement, well-being, motivation, and resilience. It is shaped by a person's belief in their ability to control their circumstances and effectively manage challenges. Adolescents are mainly influenced by school experiences, peer relationships, family influences, and emotional maturity in developing their self-efficacy perceptions (Schunk & Miller, 2002). Self-efficacy affects personal behavior and plays a significant role in managing stress and maintaining control over one's life (Bandura, 1994). Understanding the dynamics of self-efficacy is essential for comprehending individual success and well-being.

1.3 Hardiness

Concept

Hardiness is a psychological trait that enables individuals to confront and endure challenges, actively engage in transformative life processes, and effectively manage stressful situations (Kobasa et al., 1981). It encompasses a person's emotional stability and ability to relate to themselves and others (Kobasa, 1979). Hardiness comprises three psychological components: commitment, control, and challenge, which reflect confidence in managing life events, resilience in daily life management, and adaptability to unexpected changes (Kobasa, 1979). It enhances emotional stability and self-confidence when facing stressful environments, improving work efficiency through active coping (Maddi, 2006). Research indicates that hardiness directly influences academic and physical performance, suggesting that it contributes to better performance under pressure and to adapt to learn in stressful conditions, particularly among children (Maddi et al., 2012). Hardiness enables individuals to appraise, interpret, and respond to health stressors effectively, viewing changes and pressures as

opportunities for growth and learning (Pollock, 1989). It is associated with self-regulation, awareness of strengths and weaknesses, and better control over the learning environment, contributing to achieving academic goals.

Prevalence

Hardiness, introduced by Suzanne Kobasa & Salvatore Maddi, encompasses three qualities: commitment, control, and challenge (Kobasa et al., 1981). Challenging situations are viewed as opportunities for personal growth by people who have higher levels of hardiness. This allows them to manage stressors effectively and keep better health (Kobasa et al., 1982). Hardiness has been extensively studied across various occupational groups, from business leaders to schoolchildren working in high-stress environments. It serves as a factor helping to protect by mitigating the adverse effects of traumatic life experiences on health and well-being (Kobasa, 1979). Hardiness is associated with greater resilience, goal orientation, and adaptability to trauma and pain, emphasizing the role of personality in shaping responses to stress (Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa & Maddi, 1982). Individuals with high hardiness are healthier, while those with lower hardiness are more susceptible to illness (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982).

Theories

Hardiness consists of three core characteristics (Kobasa, 1979):

1. **Commitment:** Commitment reflects a genuine care for people and a curiosity about the world and human activities.
2. **Control:** Control involves managing attitudes, work, and organizational pressures within a particular environment.
3. **Challenge:** Challenge is an attitude that encourages individuals to step out of their comfort zone by embracing change and unpredictability in their lives.

Kobasa (1979) developed the concept of “hardiness” to explore the significant association between traumatic life experiences and health outcomes. It revealed that personality differences were responsible for varying reactions to the same stressors, with hardiness as a protective factor. High hardiness levels were associated with better health, resilience, and adaptability to stressors (Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa & Maddi, 1982).

Hardiness is rooted in existential psychology theories, emphasizing the significance of individuals' judgments in shaping their sense of meaning in life (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982).

Hardiness is not a fixed trait but a dynamic and valuable strength that helps individuals manage stress and adversity with optimism and confidence (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982). It allows individuals to adapt their mental profile in challenging situations, reducing the risk of stress-related physical and psychological ailments (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982). People with hardiness are committed to their goals, influence their environment, and recognize the determinants of their situation (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982). They maintain a positive outlook and believe that not all events threaten their well-being, reducing the risk of stress-related health issues and behavioral weaknesses (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982). Hardiness provides internal reservoirs of strength that enable individuals to manage stress (Kobasa & Maddi, 1982) effectively.

In summary, hardiness is a psychological trait that significantly influences how individuals cope with stress and adversity, shaping their responses to life's challenges. It encompasses commitment, control, and challenge, fostering emotional stability, resilience, and adaptability. Hardiness is associated with better health outcomes and improved work efficiency in high-stress environments. Understanding the concept of hardiness is essential for comprehending its role in promoting well-being and enhancing individuals' capacity to navigate life's stressors.

1.4 Academic Buoyancy

Concept

Academic buoyancy refers to an individual's competence in overcoming failures and uncertain situations in an academic context, such as managing time-bound assignments, repeated tests, and socio-economic pressures (Martin & Marsh, 2009). It refers to the capability to handle academic challenges successfully and includes five key motivational elements called the 5Cs: confidence, coordination, commitment, composure, and control (Martin et al., 2010). These components enable students to confront challenges directly and succeed. Confidence gives students the belief in their capabilities, while coordination aids in organizing their efforts efficiently. Commitment keeps them focused on their objectives, and composure helps them maintain calmness

under pressure. Control, finally, allows students to steer their own educational journey. The significance of “academic buoyancy” in attaining academic success is significant. With these five critical elements, students are better prepared to manage the complexities of the educational system. They can face challenges and overcome difficulties, persist through setbacks, and finally excel in their academic endeavors. “Academic buoyancy” plays helps in academic success by equipping students with the capacity to confront and overcome obstacles within the education system.

Prevalence

Academic achievement involves complex skills, including cognitive abilities, motivation, perseverance, and emotional regulation (Martin & Marsh, 2009). While learning primarily relies on cognitive skills, these non-cognitive factors significantly influence academic success. However, these aspects are not easily quantifiable or measurable through traditional cognitive assessments. Academic buoyancy represents the interplay of thoughts, actions, and emotions, enabling students to face the challenges presented by academic life (Martin & Marsh, 2009). It is one of several forms of resilience needed to address the demands of schoolwork, focusing specifically on achieving targeted tasks and assignments. Academic buoyancy addresses the coping skills required to handle academic setbacks, meet deadlines, and manage anxiety during examinations. It is a concept constructed to assess competence of the students to effectively manage challenges in their studies and the typical pressures of school life (Martin & Marsh, 2009).

Theories

As Martin & Marsh (2010) extensively explored, academic buoyancy encompasses various motivational factors. They proposed a “five-factor model of academic buoyancy” consisting of the various components:

1. “Confidence”: the capacity of learner and their confidence to control academic performance.
2. “Coordination”: The capacity to work for better performance in academics and clearly understand desired outcomes.
3. Control: Knowing how one is performing, identifying areas for improvement, and navigating obstacles effectively.

4. Composure: The ability to manage anxiety positively.
5. Commitment: The capacity to persist even when faced with challenges.

Drawing from various psychological traditions, including behavioral economics, academic buoyancy explains how individuals make complex decisions and modify their behavior (Martin & Marsh, 2009). It places a strong emphasis on behaviour modification to assist pupils in developing into successful, fruitful, happy, healthy, kind, and compassionate people. Teachers frequently create procedures and guidelines in the classroom that encourage diligence and teach common ideals. Understanding human nature, strengths and weaknesses, is essential for behavioural change, offering enduring changes to students (Martin & Marsh, 2009).

Schools impart subject-specific knowledge and develop life skills, such as skill in interpersonal relationships and communication moreover in setting career goals which are valuable in adulthood. Academic buoyancy extends beyond managing school challenges and can be applied throughout students' future lives (Martin & Marsh, 2009).

Research has validated the concept of academic buoyancy, demonstrating its positive impact on various aspects of academic performance and stress management. For example, research indicates that academic buoyancy is positively correlated with increased literacy, effective assignment completion, and improved attendance in class. (Martin & Marsh, 2008).

Research reveals a strong link between academic buoyancy and positive educational outcomes. Students with higher academic buoyancy show better attendance records, consistently complete their assignments, and demonstrate stronger literacy skills. This suggests that academic buoyancy is not merely a theoretical concept but a practical tool that can significantly impact a student's academic journey. When students possess the confidence, coordination, commitment, composure, and control associated with academic buoyancy, they are more likely to actively participate in class, engage with their coursework, and ultimately achieve academic success. This explains the significance of developing academic buoyancy of students to promote positive educational outcomes. (Martin & Marsh, 2008).

Academic buoyancy is also associated with emotional stability and reduced neuroticism (Martin et al., 2013). Furthermore, it has been shown to mitigate the impact of academic stressors such as test anxiety, schoolwork overload, and the looming threat of failure (Hirvonen et al., 2019; Symes et al., 2015; Putwain et al., 2012; Putwain et al., 2015). To sum up, academic buoyancy is a useful tool for students to lessen their academic stress and is a significant indicator of their capacity to handle stress in the classroom.

1.5 Stress

Concept

As we understand it today, stress traces its roots to the early 20th century when Hans Selye, an endocrinologist, conducted pioneering research on physiological responses to external stressors (Selye, 1956). Selye's work culminated in formulating a comprehensive model known as the "General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS)." which delineated three distinct stages in the body's response to stressors: alarm, resistance, and exhaustion (Selye, 1956). In contemporary society, stress has emerged as an omnipresent and multifaceted phenomenon, primarily driven by advances in science and technology. It is universally recognized as a compelling force that imposes demands on individuals, necessitating responses and management strategies which can lead to psychological and physiological strain (Selye, 1956).

Physiological Foundation of Stress

Following his medical training, Hans Selye coined the term "stress" when he discerned a commonality among his hospitalized patients, irrespective of their specific maladies—they all exhibited symptoms associated with physical stress (Selye, 1956). He postulated that stress represented a fundamental burden on the body, stemming from deviations in normal physiological processes and culminating in releasing stress hormones (Selye, 1956). This comprehensive phenomenon, termed the "General Adaptation Syndrome," is a foundational framework for understanding stress.

Interdisciplinary Understanding of Stress:

In contemporary discourse, "stress" has permeated everyday language, assuming the role of a widely recognized force compelling individuals to respond and

cope, often resulting in psychological and physiological strain (Lazarus, 1984; Baum, 1990; Chrousos & Gold, 1992). It encompasses a multifaceted array of experiences, encompassing negative emotions, biochemical alterations, physiological responses, cognitive processes, and behavioral changes provoked by stressors (Baum, 1990). Various theoretical perspectives have emerged to illuminate the intricate nature of stress, offering diverse lenses through which to comprehend and address its implications for psychological well-being.

Prevalence

According to a national survey conducted by the APA, approximately 75% of American adults reported experiencing moderate to high levels of stress, highlighting its widespread occurrence across diverse populations (APA, 2022). This prevalence underscores the significance of stress as a public health concern warranting further investigation.

The “American Psychological Association (APA)” defines stress as "an emotional and physiological response to a perceived threat or challenge" (APA, n.d.). Stress can manifest as acute or chronic and may have effects on an individual's physical and mental health (APA, n.d.). Studies have shown the widespread prevalence of stress across different populations. According to a nationwide survey in India, approximately 89% of individuals report experiencing some level of stress, with 75% citing work and academic pressures as the primary causes (Cigna 360 Well-Being Survey, 2019). Among adolescents, a study conducted in urban Indian schools found that 66% of students reported moderate to high levels of academic stress (Deb et al., 2015). Furthermore, research has indicated that 23% of Indian adolescents experience stress-related symptoms severe enough to impact their daily functioning (Verma et al., 2011).

Theories

“The American Psychological Association (APA)” acknowledges several models of stress, including the "transactional model," which proposes that stress arises from the “interaction between an individual and their environment”, and the "biopsychosocial model," that draws attention to how biological, psychological, and social elements interact to create the stress response. (APA, n.d.). Stress and its impact

on performance are described by the "Yerkes-Dodson law," which posits that "performance increases with physiological or mental arousal (stress) up to a certain point, after which it begins to decline" (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). The specific shape of the curve depends on task complexity and familiarity. Studies suggest that optimal performance on different tasks depends on varying levels of arousal (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). For example, complex or unfamiliar tasks benefit from lower arousal levels to enhance attention, while tasks demanding endurance or persistence may benefit from higher arousal to boost motivation (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908).

Types of Stress

Stress can be categorized into three types: eustress, eustress, and distress (Selye, 1956):

1. **Eustress:** Positive stress arises when an individual feels motivated and inspired by a situation or circumstance.
2. **Neustress:** Sensory inputs with no discernible effect are considered neither good nor bad.
3. **Distress:** Negative stress is often associated with adverse outcomes. Distress can be further divided into acute stress, which is intense but relatively short-lived, and chronic stress, which persists for extended periods.

While some stress levels can be motivating and beneficial (Selye, 1956), prolonged stress, particularly in students, has been found to have adverse effects (Kaplan et al., 2005; Compas et al., 2004).

1.6 Different Models of Stress

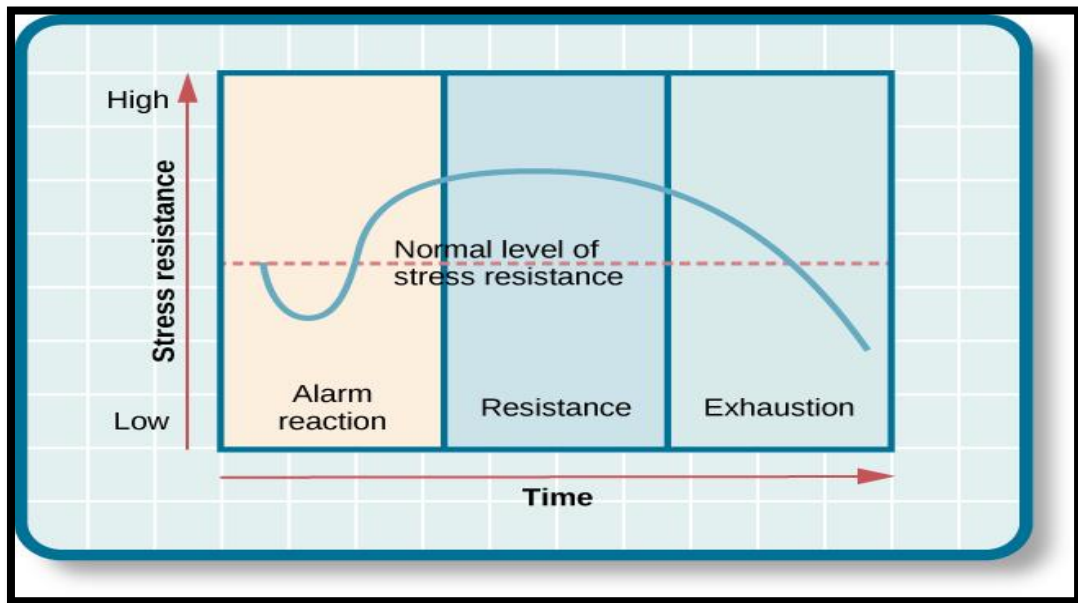
1.6.1 Physiological Model

Although not uniformly true with all, people experience similar physiological changes in response to stress. Selye (1956) recognised these alterations and termed them the "universal adaption syndrome" (GAS). He distinguished three phases of reaction. When a stressor occurs, the body's resistance declines and suddenly increases. This is stage 1, often known as the alarm stage. Throughout the second stage, which is the resistance stage, it remains high, but eventually, it can no longer be sustained and

falls into weariness. The resistance is decreased, and exhaustion, the final stage, is produced sooner if a second stressor is introduced to the first.

Figure 1.1

The General Adaptation Syndrome (Physiological Model)



Note: (Source: Selye, 1956)

1.6.2 Arousal Model

When discussing emotion, the idea of arousal is mentioned. Up to the optimum level, arousal was thought to improve an individual's performance, but when it goes too far, it causes stress and a decline in performance. In other words, performance rises to an ideal level of arousal; if arousal rises further, performance falls, and stress may result. A somewhat lower level of arousal is preferable for complex work, but a higher level of arousal is required for a basic monotonous one.

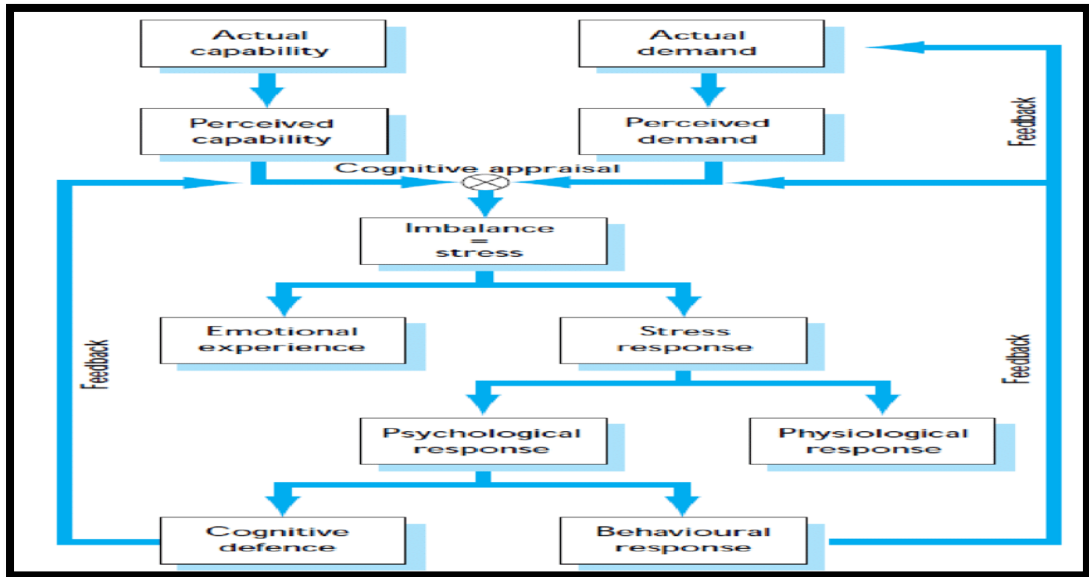
1.6.3 Transactional Model

Stress comes from a change in an individual's expectation and their surroundings. A person's cognitive evaluation of the perceived expectations placed on him or her and the perception of that person's ability to meet those demands are critical components of this concept. When perceived demands exceed perceived capacity, stress results. For instance, someone can believe they cannot meet the demands of taking form A level exams in two years. If the person feels pressured to do so, stress

could happen. Numerous elements, including personality, environmental demands, prior experiences, and any current stress state already present, affect this perception.

Figure 1.2

The General Adaptation Syndrome (Transactional Model)



Note: (Source: Model of stress by Cox 1978)

Interactional Model

According to Lazarus' (1984) theory of stress, a person's perception of their capacity and cognitive assessment of threat interact. Stress is caused once more by a mismatch between the two. Lazarus also considered how internal conflict and frustration might exacerbate stress. In what he refers to as a person's "transaction with the environment," Lazarus highlights the significance of cognition in how an individual affects and responds to the environment. Stress results when a person's capacity for coping with pressures is exceeded.

Depending on the perception and circumstances, the idea of stress might vary from person to person. Effective stress managers adopt a positive attitude and constructive outlook about life and vice versa. Stress is significantly more complex than that, and it cannot be solely attributed to the issues that a someone has encountered during their life. In actuality, people respond to issues and stressors in life in a variety of ways.

Concept

Academic stress, commonly experienced by students, is the psychological and physiological response to the demands and pressures associated with academic performance (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This stress arises within the educational context due to factors such as exams, competitions, teaching methods, teacher-student interactions, and the overall academic and co-curricular environment (Gupta & Khan, 1987). It can be viewed as a mental state in which individuals face demands that exceed their abilities or resources, leading to feeling overwhelmed and helpless (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Moreover, academic stress can be influenced by environmental stressors and students' appraisals of these stressors, ultimately leading to physiological and psychological manifestations when resources to cope with these demands are lacking (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Prevalence

The prevalence of academic stress varies across student populations, stressors, and measurement methods. In college settings, studies have reported academic stress prevalence rates ranging from 30% to 75%, with factors such as pressure to succeed, time management, and financial concerns identified as significant sources of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Similarly, high school students also experience academic stress, with reported prevalence rates spanning from 20% to 70%. This stress is commonly associated with academic expectations and the challenges of preparing for college (Gupta & Khan, 1987).

Graduate students are not exempt from academic stress, with prevalence rates ranging from 35% to 80%, stemming from factors like workload, competition, and career uncertainties (Demerouti et al., 2001). Furthermore, it is vital to recognize that academic stress can have detrimental effects on both physical and mental health, leading to symptoms like anxiety, depression, sleep disturbances, fatigue, and, ultimately, academic underperformance, absenteeism, and dropout rates (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Theories

Multiple theoretical frameworks exist to elucidate the phenomenon of academic stress. Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional theory proposes that academic stress is a dynamic process wherein individuals appraise academic-related stressors and engage in coping mechanisms. Similarly, Demerouti et al. (2001) introduce the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R), which views academic stress as an imbalance between the demands of academic tasks and the resources available to students. Meichenbaum (1977) emphasizes the cognitive-behavioral aspects of academic stress, highlighting the role of cognitive processes, such as thoughts, beliefs, and expectations, in shaping the stress response. Henderson & Mapp (2002) emphasize “the influence of the social environment on academic stress”, particularly through the interactions between school, family, and community.

Academic stress results from the intricate interplay between environmental stressors, students' appraisals of these stressors, and their responses to such demands. While some level of academic stress, known as eustress, can motivate students to perform well, excessive stress can have dire consequences, including anxiety, depression, and even suicidal ideation (Gupta & Khan, 1987). Adolescence, marked by significant changes and challenges, becomes particularly vulnerable to academic stress, making it crucial for educational institutions, parents, and teachers to understand and address the associated issues (Gupta & Khan, 1987).

1.7 Academic Stress and Adolescents

'Adolescence' is a term which originated from the Latin root 'adolescere,' which means to mature. In this view, adolescence is a continual ongoing transformational process rather than a time, a process of attaining the desired growth, attitudes, beliefs, and procedures for effective engagement in society as an emerging adult. Adolescence brings significant physical, psychological, physiological, and sociological changes in adolescent girls. Through a code of conduct, society, mainly Indian society, forces them to act in a certain way.

Adolescence may be a confusing time for a child. The majority of people are stressed daily. Adolescents, on the other hand, face new types of stress as a result of

their interactions with their parents and friends and bodily changes. Adolescents face not simply academic obstacles and obligations, but they are also likely to be formulating life objectives. For example, students may be considering career possibilities and what has to be done now and shortly to achieve their long-term objectives. The effects of stress on a student's capacity to perform, progress, and thrive in school can be devastating. Emotional stress was found to predict future class failure and other educational problems by Needham et al. (2004). Furthermore, adolescents have stated that school is the primary source of stress. Adolescence marks a pivotal period in life, characterized by a growing sense of autonomy and self-discovery. During this transformative stage, individuals embark on a journey to establish their adult identities. This process involves various facets, including the development of gender identities, whether it be feminine or masculine, the assertion of independence from parental figures, and a heightened sense of belonging within peer groups.

As adolescents navigate the complexities of their changing bodies and minds, they grapple with questions of gender and sexuality. They explore societal expectations and personal preferences, ultimately shaping their unique feminine or masculine identities. This exploration is often intertwined with a growing desire for autonomy from parents, as adolescents seek to make their own choices and forge their own paths.

Simultaneously, the influence of peers becomes increasingly significant during adolescence. Young people seek validation and acceptance from their peers, often adopting similar styles, interests, and behaviours. This peer identification has a crucial role in creating their social identities and connection to the society. It is through these multifaceted processes that adolescents gradually construct their adult identities, paving the way for their future roles and responsibilities in society.

This is when students must make numerous crucial decisions regarding their school and job that will impact their future lives. This was thought to be a time of tension and storm by psychologists. Adolescent's growth and development will be influenced by their socioeconomic condition, personal factors, school, and community environment. As a result, people develop issues to cope with these changes. Properly completing developmental tasks during infancy and childhood is critical to a girl's and boy's optimal development. Simultaneously, society establishes a code of conduct

through rules and regulations for kids to follow at this age. Individual adjustment issues play a critical influence on his overall development. Home and school are frequently the source of such issues.

1.7.1 Role of Parents in Academic Stress – Kerala context

Academic pressure from parents is a significant element in educational problems. This has become a critical issue in India with the existing educational system. Academic stress can originate from a variety of causes, such as the curriculum, the school system, parental pressure to do well, and self-imposed pressure to achieve. Exams play a major role in the Indian educational system, where grades and percentages are highly valued. This approach encourages rote learning and unhealthy rivalry. The educational system does not support children's individual differences and places little value on critical thinking or freedom of speech. Without encouraging the critical and creative thinking needed to tackle the subjects, schools are forced to teach the pupils the "textual contents" based on the curriculum. Contrary to what the parents may think, parental coercion results in a loss of "academic achievement" and "academic interest" in the classroom.

Academic stress among students in Kerala, India, is a prevalent issue, and several factors contribute to it, such as high academic expectations, standardized testing, and competition for higher education and job opportunities (Peedicayil & Srinivasan, 2007). Studies have revealed that students in Kerala face significant academic stress, largely due to the strong focus on academic success and the pressure to excel in standardized tests and examinations. Research by Saraswathi & Srinivasan (2015) also indicates that parental expectations and involvement play a crucial role in contributing to this stress among students in Kerala.

Parental pressure and expectations can increase stress and anxiety among students as they feel pressure to meet their parents' expectations and succeed academically (Saraswathi & Srinivasan, 2015). Additionally, parental involvement in their children's education, such as monitoring their academic progress and assisting with homework and studying, can also contribute to academic stress. On the other hand, parental support and positive communication can help mitigate the effects of academic stress among students in Kerala. Parents can provide emotional support and

encouragement and help their children develop effective coping strategies to manage stress. They can also work with educators to establish realistic academic goals and expectations for their children.

Kerala parents today believe that education is the sole path to financial success. They frequently exhibit a biased preference for higher education-required occupations like engineering and medicine. It appears that parents' main goal for their child is to have them become an engineer, doctor, or other professional. This is prevalent in states in India like Kerala that have high rates of literacy. Parents often put a lot of effort into creating irrational expectations for their kids and put pressure on them to perform better in the classroom. Due to the over-ambition of parents, commercial firms have been encouraged to open coaching centres and online tutorials, compelling young children to enrol in these programs. One of the main causes of academic pressure is this.

1.8 Sources of Academic stress

Academic environments foster unique stressors distinct from those encountered in non-academic settings. These stressors originate from various sources, impacting students differently. Common culprits include frequent exams, overwhelming workloads, inadequate time management, strained social connections, and intense peer competition. These challenges can trigger academic stress, hindering students' overall well-being.

Additionally, the weight of expectations from family, institutions, and even oneself can significantly amplify the pressure. Studies reveal that heightened expectations are a primary driver of stress among students. Furthermore, self-imposed issues, such as social isolation and strained relationships, can burden students and further contribute to their stress levels. The academic landscape presents a distinct set of challenges that demand tailored solutions. Recognizing the distinct stress factors in academic environments is essential for crafting effective strategies to enhance student well-being and academic achievement.

The educational system and its institutions wield considerable influence on student stress levels. Overcrowded classrooms, the semester system, grading pressures, limited resources, extensive syllabi, long hours, and an emphasis on rote learning collectively create a demanding environment that contributes significantly to student

stress. These interconnected stressors negatively impact academic performance and overall well-being.

Constant reinforcement of the fear of failure, both by parents and educational institutions, erodes students' self-esteem and confidence. The relentless pressure to excel at every stage of life can lead to a diminishing interest in learning, as the joy of discovery and personal growth is replaced by anxiety and apprehension. This detrimental cycle highlights the need for a more supportive and holistic approach to education that prioritizes student well-being alongside academic achievement.

Adolescent emotional development includes establishing a realistic and consistent sense of self in connection to others and learning to manage stress and emotions. One of the most critical objectives of adolescence is developing a self-identity (Erickson, 1968). Teenagers are concerned with three parts of identity: how they regard their abilities, status, and roles, maintaining an acceptable body image, and achieving their goals and desires. Individuals have the cognitive potential throughout this time to discover what makes them unique and define themselves based on values, thoughts, and views rather than physical characteristics. Adolescence is a time of transition. It is a sensitive time for children to adopt destructive behaviors that might lead to issues later in life. Their primary issues are as follows:

1. Physical issues include rapid physical changes, being overweight or underweight, skin color issues, and facial deformities.
2. Overly emotional mood swings, self-consciousness, and feelings of inferiority/superiority are all examples of emotional issues.
3. Peer pressure influences substance use and abuse.
4. Low IQ, fear of failure, future concerns, and lack of adjustment with teachers or peers are all challenges of school life.
5. Self-esteem and confidence issues, eating disorders, stress, depression, and suicidal tendencies are all examples of psychological issues.
6. Bullying, aggression, and violence on campus.

Adolescents generally spend a large amount of time in school. Daily academic obligations imposed by the school setting are a significant source of their stress. Transitioning from elementary to middle and middle to high school can be challenging for young individuals. Parents, schools, and society put constant pressure on students to perform. They must demonstrate that they are superior to their peers. Stress is a state of mind that affects one's emotions, thought processes, and physical state. It can fool one's ability to adapt when it becomes too much. Pressures are referred to as stress in general. Stress is a multi-faceted reaction to an event that affects or threatens to damage our bodily or psychological functioning.

Although students are susceptible to stress, academic stress, as a subject of empirical study, is a relatively new field. Previous research on burnout primarily focused on educational institutions, government bodies, and businesses. However, the issue of academic stress among students, particularly those in secondary school, has recently garnered attention from educators and psychologists. This shift in focus recognizes early adolescence as a particularly vulnerable period for stress, prompting a closer examination of the unique challenges faced by students in this age group.

Adolescents' increasing awareness of academic stress underscores the necessity of specific solutions and support systems in educational environments.

By understanding the specific stressors and their impact on students, educators and psychologists can develop strategies to mitigate stress and promote student well-being. This growing area of research holds the potential to offer significant insights into the prevention and management of academic stress, thereby fostering a more positive and supportive learning environment for adolescents (Smith, 2020).

1.8.1 School-Related Triggers of Academic Stress

Academic stress can be triggered by a mixture of situations, a few of them are the following:

1. **Deadlines to Meet:** The effort to meet assignment deadlines, which causes students to feel overwhelmed, is a significant source of academic stress.

2. **Assignments and Seminar reports/Projects:** Students with a heavy academic workload experience academic stress. Due to their workload, students find spending time with friends or participating in outdoor activities impossible.
3. **Problems of Time Management:** This is another common source of stress among students. It is not time management that generates stress; instead, the learner's perceptions of control over time are the source of student stress.
4. **Repeated Periodic Examinations:** One of the most significant stressors for many students is periodic examinations, determining their degree of accomplishment in the educational system. Exam-related stress rises during the preparation time, peaks during the exam, and falls once pupils have completed the test. Exams and deadlines are frequently associated with increased stress.
5. **Academic Competition:** Another significant source of academic stress is the competition for grades and the pressure to do well. The social pressure placed on students to perform academically and thrive in their careers also contributes to academic stress.
6. **Economic and Social Status:** The family's financial position and the community's social status are also a significant cause of stress. Low socioeconomic position and stress have long been linked. Maladjustment among students with a high socioeconomic standing is also frequently documented. In today's vulnerable teenagers of high socioeconomic groups, substance misuse, criminal conduct, depression, anxiety, and sleep disorders are more widespread than in previous generations.
7. **Parental Expectations:** Students may be distressed by parents' high expectations for their children's academic achievement. Psychological pain results from parents' expectations not matching performance in school. (Wang & Heppner, 2002).

1.9 Academic Stress: Physical and Behavioural Symptoms

Academic stress, a state of mental distress, arises from mounting social and self-imposed pressures within the learning environment. This pressure depletes students' psychological reserves, hindering their overall well-being. The daily demands

and expectations of school life are significant contributors to this problem, as students spend a substantial portion of their lives in educational settings.

Adolescence is the transformational phase from elementary school, middle and high school, can pose significant challenges for students. This period of change and adjustment can be a source of significant stress, leading to various physical and emotional symptoms. These may manifest as physical symptoms such as: frequent headaches, stomach aches, sleep disturbances, and changes in eating habits.

Additionally, adolescents experiencing academic stress may exhibit behavioural symptoms such as: aggression, boredom, anxiety, irritability, passivity, and show no interest in enjoyable activities they used to engage in. They may also become rebellious or withdraw from social interactions, experiencing isolation and difficulty concentrating on their studies. These manifestations of academic stress underscore the importance of recognizing and addressing this issue to support student well-being and academic success.

Academic stress manifests in both physical and behavioral ways. Physical signs include fatigue, sleep disturbances, muscle tension in the neck and shoulders, digestive problems like indigestion and constipation. Behaviorally, it can lead to increased substance use (alcohol, tobacco), changes in appetite (loss or excessive eating), and restlessness. These issues can negatively impact various aspects of a student's life like, emotional, mental, and social well-being and even physical health. In some cases, it can even lead to maladjustment and hinder academic performance.

Adolescence, a period of immense change and vulnerability, is a critical time when individuals are particularly susceptible to environmental stressors. It marks a universal transition from childhood to adulthood, encompassing physical, biological, and social transformations. The shift from high school to higher secondary education necessitates significant adjustments, adding to the challenges faced by adolescents.

Multiple interconnected stressors make this transition stressful. The rapid changes occurring during adolescence, starting around age 12 or 13 and continuing until 19 or 20, affect every aspect of life: physical, psychological, and social. This research

specifically focuses on secondary school students between the ages of 13 and 15, a pivotal period within this larger developmental stage.

Research on adolescents in India has consistently identified academic stress as a major concern. For example, Husain et al. (2008) found an inverse relationship between academic stress and adjustment, suggesting that increased stress levels were associated with reduced adjustment. A study of 100 ninth-grade students in India, comprising equal numbers from public and government schools, revealed lower overall school adjustment levels. Additionally, Mehrotra and Kumari (2009) utilized purposive sampling to identify key factors contributing to stress. They developed a daily difficulties instrument, which participants used to document stressors in their everyday lives. According to these findings, academic stress was the most frequently reported concern. The study surveyed a total of 272 high school students aged 15 to 20 years.

Academic stress has been recognized as a major factor contributing to adolescent suicide. Jacob (2008) argues that, in India, stress might pose a greater risk for suicide among teenagers than mental illness. While mental illness is frequently observed among those who commit suicide in Western countries, Jacob suggests that Indian adolescents might be affected by different factors, as seen in the research on suicide in both developed and developing nations. Additionally, the extreme measures taken by some teachers, including physical or emotional abuse in the name of enforcing strict discipline, further exacerbate stress among children and adolescents.

1.10 School Education and Academic Stress

The Indian school education system is heavily textbook-oriented, prioritizing rote memorization of content and demanding extensive hours of daily, structured study. Secondary students often follow rigorous schedules, spanning from early morning to late evening, which leaves limited time for social interaction and recreational activities.

The school education system in India is governed by two types of educational boards authorized by the Indian government. The national boards like the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE), Indian Certificate of Secondary Education (ICSE), and the National Open School and the second category comprises state-level educational bodies, which are authorized to function within the specific state where they are registered.

In Kerala, the 10th grade ends with a board examination in which students compete with one another from the school level to the state level. In Kerala, exams are very crucial. It determines, to a significant measure, whether or not a student will be able to specialize in his or her preferred educational streams (Arts, Science, Commerce, and Diploma) and whether or not they will be thriving. At the +2 level, he or she is selected into the institution of his or her choosing. Since the job prospects for scientific students are slightly more significant than those for humanities and commerce students, science is the favored choice for most students. The science stream at the +2 stage is a popular choice for students and their guardians. Once a stream of study is chosen, the course of study will not be reversible.

These structural causes exacerbate high school pupils' academic stress. Furthermore, one's performance in the +2 second-year final test is critical for admission to one's preferred choice of university. Or college. The limited number of available universities to available students and many spirants for college education cause much stress to students. Admission to higher education is competitive. Furthermore, most higher secondary students specializing in science subjects go through additional entrance coaching classes. They are under much pressure since they must take entrance exams for admission to professional colleges.

To summarize, the change from childhood to adolescence is complex and multifaceted, encompassing changes in various areas of an individual's life. At the same time, it is unavoidable for a child to go through adolescence. Many young people's ability to deal is limited, which can lead to stress. Adolescents must develop various systems to cope and adequately deal with stress.

1.11 Need for the Study

Examining the impact of “parenting styles, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy on academic stress in secondary school students” could illuminate the underlying causes of this pervasive issue. This research would delve into how different parenting approaches, students' beliefs in their abilities, their resilience to meet various challenges in life, and their capacity to successfully manage all the setbacks and how it contributes to their stress levels.

By understanding these factors, educators and policymakers could develop targeted interventions to alleviate academic stress. Such interventions could focus on promoting supportive parenting styles, fostering self-efficacy in students, teaching coping skills to enhance hardiness, and cultivating academic buoyancy. This research has the potential to significantly improve the psychological well-being and success in the studies of secondary school students.

Secondary school students often face academic stress, which can negatively affect their academic performance as well as their mental and physical well-being. Understanding the specific factors contributing to academic stress in these students is essential for developing effective interventions and coping strategies.

Parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy are all factors related to academic stress. Parenting style refers to how parents interact with their children and can impact their academic stress levels.

Self-efficacy is the confidence in one's ability to succeed, which has an important role in academic stress. It influences how students perceive and approach challenges. Hardiness, a personality trait encompassing resilience and adaptability, can buffer the negative impacts of stress. Academic buoyancy, the ability to maintain optimism and faith in one's academic potential despite setbacks, is also vital in managing stress.

Investigating the connection between these factors and stress due academic pressure in secondary school students could provide valuable insights. Such research would shed light on how these traits influence stress levels and coping mechanisms among adolescents. By understanding these dynamics, we can better equip students to handle academic pressures.

Moreover, this study could inform the development of parenting interventions aimed at fostering self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy in students. These interventions could equip parents with tools and strategies to support their children's emotional and academic well-being. Additionally, the research findings could guide educators and school counselors in providing effective support to both students and parents in navigating the challenges of academic stress.

This study plans to explore the factors contributing to academic stress among secondary school students and explore potential solutions. By exploring the influence of parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy, we seek to understand how these factors interact to shape students' experiences of stress. The primary aim is to discover effective coping strategies and interventions that can reduce academic stress and enhance the well-being of students.

Kerala, a society undergoing rapid transformation, has witnessed significant shifts in social and cultural norms due to economic prosperity and the rise of the middle class. Education has become a status symbol, and academic achievement is often seen as the sole pathway to success in life and work. This mindset has placed immense compulsion to perform well in studies on children, particularly those in secondary school, as their future career options are heavily influenced by their academic performance.

The mounting pressure on secondary school students in Kerala has led to a surge in emotional stress, with detrimental effects on their mental health. The demands of the educational system, combined with parenting styles and societal expectations, create a challenging environment for adolescents. This study aims to unravel the complex interplay of these factors and their impact on academic stress, ultimately paving the way for interventions that can support students' mental and emotional well-being.

In this context it is important to understand how these factors may be impacting academic pressure among students in the state. Kerala is known for its high literacy rate and strong emphasis on education, which can pressure students to perform well academically. Studying these factors in the Kerala context would provide an understanding of how they may impact academic stress among students in the state and how they may vary across different cultural groups.

This study would also contribute to the limited research on academic stress in India. Research on academic stress in India have been carried out primarily in urban areas, and limited studies have been done in Kerala. This study aims to offer a deeper insight into the specific issues that results in academic stress among students in Kerala and how these factors compare to those influencing academic stress in other regions of India.

Furthermore, understanding the specific factors contributing to academic stress among Kerala students would help develop interventions and strategies to help students cope with academic stress. This research could also provide insight into how to design parenting interventions to help secondary school students develop self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy, which can help them cope with academic stress better. It could also help educators and school counselors understand how to support students and parents in managing academic stress in the Kerala context.

In summary, the rationale of this study in the Kerala context is to understand better how parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy may impact academic stress among students in the state and how these factors may vary across different cultural groups. Gaining an understanding of these factors would aid in developing interventions and strategies to help students manage academic stress in Kerala.

1.12 Significance of the Present Study

Throughout the COVID lockdown, many children may have experienced changes in their mental state, making them more susceptible to being affected by parental reprimands or household conflicts. While parents likely had their children's best interests at heart, the children might not have fully grasped this intention. Consequently, it is recommended that parents adopt a gentler approach when communicating with their children during such periods.

In Kerala, children are predominantly facing challenges related to school and family dynamics. The suicide rates in the state are particularly concerning, with 66 teenagers under the age of 18 having taken their own lives since the lockdown was imposed on March 25 to curb the spread of COVID-19. (Note. Source: The News Minute. (2020, July 2))

Studying how parenting styles, self-efficacy, resilience, and academic buoyancy impact stress in Kerala's secondary school students is crucial. This research will shed light on the unique factors influencing student stress in a state known for its high literacy and educational emphasis. Understanding these factors can pave the way for targeted interventions to help students cope.

Kerala's diverse population adds another layer of complexity. Examining these factors across different cultural groups within the state will provide valuable insights into how cultural context shapes their impact on academic stress. This nuanced understanding is essential for developing culturally sensitive and effective strategies to address student stress.

This study would also contribute to the limited research on academic stress in India. Studies on academic stress in India have been made primarily in urban areas, and limited studies have been conducted in Kerala. This study would give a better insight to the specific factors contributing to academic stress among students in Kerala and how they compare to academic stress in other parts of India.

Researching the impact of parenting styles, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy on stress in Kerala's secondary students is crucial. This study addresses a gap in research on academic stress within the state and offers insights into the unique factors affecting students in this context. Additionally, it explores how these factors vary across diverse cultural groups, providing a nuanced understanding of the issue.

This research aims to inform schools and policymakers in developing effective strategies to alleviate academic stress. By identifying the key contributors to stress, educators can tailor their approaches to better support student well-being. Furthermore, the findings can inform policy changes in secondary education, teaching practices, and parental involvement. By understanding and addressing the root causes of academic stress, we can foster a more positive and supportive educational experience. This research is relevant because it can significantly give new insights in the field of educational psychology, paving the way for new approaches to enhance student learning and well-being.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of literature provides an extensive summary and critical assessment of existing research on a particular subject. It is a critical analysis of existing literature organized and presented logically and coherently. A literature review seeks to present a thorough summary of the existing knowledge on a topic, highlight gaps in the research, and pinpoint areas that warrant further investigation. It is typically included in the introduction of a research paper or thesis and used to support the research question or hypothesis.

According to Aveyard (2014), the review of literature is a “comprehensive study and interpretation of literature that addresses a specific topic”. A literature review examines existing research related to the topic being investigated. This process prevents the researcher from duplicating previous studies and acts as a guide, directing them to untapped research areas. By understanding the work and findings already established in the chosen research field, a literature review helps the researcher pinpoint gaps, thereby highlighting opportunities for additional exploration. Moreover, it illuminates the different research methods, measures, subjects, and approaches utilized by other scholars.

The researcher has reviewed prior studies exploring the connections between parenting style, hardiness, self-efficacy, academic buoyancy, and academic stress, specifically targeting those that investigate similar variables as the current research. This review highlights that various types of studies have been conducted on secondary school students, considering demographic and psychosocial factors. Additionally, it aids in understanding the tools and measures used to assess dependent and independent variables, providing a scientific interpretation of the findings.

A literature review was performed to gain a comprehensive understanding of the existing research on the subject of interest. The review encompassed a variety of sources, such as scholarly articles, books, theses and dissertations, conference proceedings, and online materials. Care was taken to ensure that only reliable and credible sources were included in the review. The literature review played an important

role in shaping the methodology and design of the current study, equipping the researcher with a solid foundation of knowledge. The researcher utilized several online resources, including the American Psychiatric Association's website and Psych Central, for the literature review. ResearchGate was another platform accessed for research articles. JSTOR proved valuable with its extensive collection of articles. Additionally, the Mind and Brain blog by the Public Library of Science was consulted. Google Scholar was also employed to gather relevant articles. An in-depth literature review was conducted using these easily accessible internet sources, leading to the identification of the following themes.

1. Research focused on parenting
2. Studies Related to Self-efficacy
3. Studies Related to Hardiness
4. Research focused on Academic Buoyancy

2.1 Parenting and Academic Stress

Anayanti and Zainuddin (2025) reported that democratic parenting had a stronger effect on learning independence than teacher instructional style among Indonesian adolescents.

Sun et al. (2025) found that authoritative parenting positively predicted cognitive flexibility in early childhood, with parenting stress moderating its relationship with inhibitory control. Chu and Chen's (2025) meta-analysis of 107 studies concluded that positive parenting reduced bullying and victimization, while harsh or uninvolved parenting increased both.

Fitrianto, Hakim and Marwing (2025) assessed the impact of authoritarian, democratic, and permissive parenting on self-confidence in 78 Indonesian senior high school students. Multiple regression revealed that democratic parenting was positively associated with self-confidence, while authoritarian and permissive parenting had negative effects.

Guballa et al. (2025) used a mixed-methods design to investigate the relationship between parental involvement and academic performance in 197 Grade 12

students at a Philippine senior high school. Quantitative analyses found high parental involvement across sociodemographic groups but no significant correlation with academic performance. Qualitative analysis identified factors such as socioeconomic status, communication barriers, and parental support as influencing student outcomes.

Li et al. (2025) studied the link between overprotective parenting and academic anxiety in 2,286 Chinese high school students across three provinces, examining the mediating roles of self-concept and positive coping style. Overprotective parenting positively predicted academic anxiety, with stronger effects in female students. Mediation analysis showed that positive coping and higher self-concept partially reduced the negative impact of overprotective parenting.

Chen et al. (2024) found in a sample of 1,282 Chinese adolescents that authoritative and indulgent parenting predicted higher self-esteem and multidimensional self-concept, while authoritarian and neglectful parenting predicted poorer self-concept.

Mitchell (2022) conducted a study to explore the indirect effects of authoritarian parenting on academic procrastination by evaluating various dimensions of perfectionism, including fear of mistakes, decision-making doubts, high personal standards, and organizational skills. Data were collected through a survey of 743 college students in China, focusing on their perceptions of authoritarian parenting, perfectionism levels, and academic procrastination tendencies. Grounded in social learning theory, the study investigated whether perfectionism mediated the relationship between authoritarian parenting and academic procrastination. Results from structural equation modeling revealed that, among the perfectionism dimensions, only concern over making mistakes acted as a mediator in this relationship (Mitchell, 2022). Furthermore, it was discovered that having high standards for oneself and being concerned about mistakes were positively correlated with authoritarian parenting. On the other hand, academic procrastination was inversely correlated with personal standards and organisational abilities, but positively correlated with worry about errors.

Fernandes and Almeida (2024) conducted a three-year longitudinal study with 512 Portuguese adolescents, finding that authoritative parenting predicted higher academic achievement and lower academic stress through enhanced self-regulation and motivation.

Wang and Zhang (2023) examined the relationship between parenting styles and academic stress among 624 Chinese high school students, focusing on the mediating role of emotional regulation. Using structural equation modeling, they found that authoritative parenting was associated with lower academic stress through improved emotional regulation, whereas authoritarian parenting increased stress by limiting emotional autonomy. The results suggest that emotional regulation is a key pathway linking parenting styles to stress resilience.

Tehrani et al. (2023) conducted a meta-analysis of 28 studies involving over 11,000 adolescents to examine the links between parenting styles and personality traits. Authoritative parenting was positively related to openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness, and negatively related to neuroticism. In contrast, authoritarian and neglectful parenting correlated positively with neuroticism and negatively with conscientiousness and agreeableness. These associations were moderated by age, ethnicity, and assessment methods.

Gimenez-Serrano (2022) investigated how various parenting styles influence an individual's social adjustment extending to their future life. The study encompassed 2,131 Spanish children, categorized into four age groups: adolescents, young adults, middle-aged adults, and older adults. To analyze the data, the researchers employed a MANOVA (4 x 2 x 4) model, considering style of parents in their child rearing patterns, and took age and gender as independent variables. Emotional and physical self-concept, as well as anxiety levels, were used as criteria to evaluate personal adjustment. The results showed that, for all age groups and adjustment criteria, authoritative and indulgent parenting styles were linked to better socialisation outcomes. However, as compared to their peers from authoritative homes, children from indulgent households had lower levels of aggressive sexism and anxiety as well as a greater emotional self-concept. These results imply that stringent parenting may not be required once the process of parental socialization is complete, even into adulthood.

Lin et al. (2022) explored how different practices of parenting influence social skills Chinese children of preschool age. The study assessed single 352 children (mean age = 3.96, SD = 0.62) and 552 children with brothers or sisters (mean age = 4.02, SD = 0.64) from Fuzhou, China, using the “Children’s Behaviour Questionnaire, Social Competence and Behavior Evaluation, and Parenting Style and Dimension Questionnaire”. The findings revealed that single children had parents who practiced authoritative or permissive parenting styles, while children who had brothers or sisters demonstrated higher levels of self-regulation. Self-regulation acted as a mediator influencing various parenting styles and children's social competence. Furthermore, even after taking the child's age and gender into consideration, the status of being a single child decreased the mediation effect of self-regulation in the relationship between liberal parenting and social competence. These results imply that the "two-child policy" may affect early development by shaping microsystems such as family dynamics and parenting practices, with significant implications for parental education and home-based interventions.

Pali et al. (2022) conducted a study to explore how parenting practices affect self-perception in 5-year-old children. This longitudinal research involved preschoolers who were twins or triplets, with assessments performed on 263 kids from the ages of 4 and 5, and on 211 children in the ages of 3 and 5. The findings indicated that positive parental care, love and sensitivity at age 4 were associated with higher levels of maternal acceptance by age 5. Additionally, permissive discipline was linked to lower peer acceptance scores for girls, but did not show the same effect for boys. Moreover, verbal warmth from parents at age three was linked to higher peer acceptance scores by age five. Additionally, boys who received more positive parental interactions between ages three and four demonstrated greater peer acceptance at age five. These results highlight a significant influence of parenting practices on the formation of self-perception in preschool-aged children.

Lee et al. (2022) investigated how children's media consumption is related to their parents' media habits, attitudes towards media, and parenting styles. The study involved 1,020 parents of children aged 4 to 6, who filled out a questionnaire regarding their media use, their media attitudes, their parenting approaches, and their children's

media habits. Analysis through multigroup structural equation modelling revealed a positive correlation between the media use of parents and their children's media consumption, both during the day and at night. Parents' favorable attitude towards media use was correlated positively with their child's media consumption during the day, but not at night. Conversely, a negative parental attitude towards media did not show a relationship with the child's media use during either day or night. In the seven parenting practices examined, rewards of material nature and autonomy were associated positively with use of media during day, while discipline had a negative correlation with nighttime media use. However, material rewards also had a positive association with nighttime media use. The parent's favourable attitude towards media was the most important predictor of the child's media usage during the day, whereas material rewards were the best indicator of the child's media intake during the night.

In his research, Carroll (2022) utilized a non-randomized community control group alongside a sample of parents who participated in a seven-week “Positive Discipline parenting program”. The study evaluated parenting stress, parenting styles, and parental observations of children's adaptive behaviors at the start and again after three months. The findings indicated that participation in the “Positive Discipline workshops” was associated with a shift away from parenting practices of authoritarian nature , a reduction in “permissive parenting”, and bring down in parental stress. Additionally, these workshops were connected to improvements in children's academic performance and a reduction in hyperactive behavior as reported by parents. These results suggest that engaging in “Positive Discipline parenting classes” can alter parenting practices and positively influence child development.

Eriksen (2020) studied how young students from middle-class families in Norway experience school stress, how they perceive their parents’ values, and how parenting practices affect their school achievement. It was found that though their parents had expectations about their children, they were implicit rather than explicit. The evidence strongly suggests that these individuals' predictions of their future selves are connected to the beliefs and behaviors of their parents. How their parents express their expectations for their children appears to have an immediate impact on how the young people understand and negotiate their pressure for accomplishment and where

they take responsibility for any resulting mental health issues. One significant factor that had an evident influence on the sample was their feeling of self-worth.

Yu et al. (2020) used a nationally representative sample of 16,178 ninth-grade students from the "Taiwan Educational Panel Survey (TEPS)" to examine the relationship between parenting styles, adolescent mental health, and academic achievement. The study also made distinctions between paternal and maternal parenting styles and evaluated their effects on both male and female adolescents. Findings from a multi-group analysis revealed that both paternal and maternal support had helped positively on the mental health and academic achievements of sons and daughters. Conversely, control by father or mother were found to be negatively related to the mental health in both genders. Both boys' and girls' academic performance was adversely impacted by paternal control. Sons' academic performance was positively impacted by parental control, while this effect was not statistically significant for daughters. The study highlighted a negative link between adolescents' emotional stability and their test performance, underscoring the importance of addressing excessive academic pressure on the mental health of Taiwanese adolescents.

Bhooma & Sokhi (2018) carried out an investigation based on the topic, 'Influence of Family and Friends on Educational Stress in teenagers—the research aimed to determine the effect of family and friends on academic stress among adolescents. The study sample consisted of 207 adolescent students of Kendriya Vidyalaya (Boys = 128; Girls 79). Results showed that peer pressure and authoritative parenting style significantly predict academic stress. Parents must arrive at a consensus, and one chooses to be an authoritative parent, being responsive to the emotional needs of the adolescents, which will aid the adolescents in distress. Adolescents must be encouraged to build positive peer relationships to help them sail through the stressful academic pressure and competition.

Gupta & Mehtani (2017) conducted a study on the topic, "Effect of parenting style on academic achievement of senior secondary school students: An analytical analysis." Five hundred ninety-eight senior secondary school students were the sample. The sample was selected using a multi-stage random sampling technique. The research outcome shows that parental behavior and gender significantly affected educational test

scores in the sample population. However, the type of school had no significant effect on them. In addition, there was a significant effect of interaction patterns of parent behavior and sex. It was reported to impact academic performance-based achievement in senior secondary school students.

Dasgupta & Sain (2015) examined how family influences the development of life skills and toughness in male adolescents. The complete family environment predicted control, challenge, and overall psychological hardiness.

Jassar (2014) investigated the effects of parental factors on urban adolescent self-confidence. According to the findings, there was no substantial gender difference in urban adolescent parenting approaches. However, there was a significant gender difference in self-confidence among urban teenagers and a considerable parental influence on self-confidence.

Mirzaei & Kadivarzare (2014) examined the association between parental style and hardiness in high school students during adolescence. The data demonstrated a strong positive association between hardiness and parenting style, implying that parenting style influences hardiness development.

Chowdhury & Ghose (2014) conducted another study examining the impact of various perceived parenting methods on teenage study habits. The findings revealed a substantial link between good study habits and intelligent parenting. Diverse patterns of mothering and fathering also alter adolescents' study habits. Adolescent boys' favorable study habits are influenced by their moms' acceptance, protection, indulgence, moralism, and realistic role expectations. Adolescent girls' good study habits were affected by their mothers' reasonable expectations.

Calafat et al. (2014) studied "Which parenting style is more protective against adolescent substance use? Evidence within the European context". The research was done on 7718 adolescents, 3774 males (48.9% of the total population), and 11–19 years old children. The findings from the study reveal that authoritative and indulgent parent behaviors were highly connected with better outcomes. In short, the findings show that in Europe, the indulgent parenting style had the same result as the authoritative parenting style, as seen in their grades on the tests.

Ishak et al. (2012) studied “Parenting Style as a Moderator for Students’ Academic Achievement”. The sample was selected from eight different schools. The sample size was 493. The results found that parent behavior affected self-concept and performance in the examination.

Lin & Lian (2011) looked at the link between parenting methods and teenage coping abilities in Malaysians. The results revealed a link between parental approaches and teenage coping skills. The findings also demonstrated that mothers preferred authoritative parenting over fathers, although there was no difference in authoritarian parenting between parents. In addition, no gender differences in teenage coping methods were discovered.

Asha (2010) investigated the effects of parenting styles on teenage issues and academic performance. The sample consisted of 800 eleventh-grade students, and the data was collected using questionnaires. The study found that a non-caring parenting style resulted in many teenage difficulties and poor academic accomplishment. In contrast, a moderately caring parenting style resulted in a low number of adolescent problems and a high level of academic achievement.

Anchal's (2010) research delved into the complex relationship between parenting styles, teenage challenges, and academic success. The study, encompassing 800 eleventh-graders, utilized questionnaires to gather data on parental attitudes and their impact on adolescents. The findings revealed a striking correlation. A neglectful parenting approach, characterized by emotional distance and lack of involvement, was linked to a multitude of difficulties in adolescence and subpar academic outcomes. Conversely, a moderately caring style, marked by a balance of warmth and structure, appeared to foster resilience and promote academic achievement. These results underscore the pivotal role that parental involvement plays in shaping a teenager's overall well-being and academic trajectory. They offer compelling evidence that a nurturing and supportive home environment can act as a buffer against the challenges of adolescence while fostering a strong foundation for academic success.

Zakeri et al. (2010) embarked on a study to explore the connection between parenting approaches and resilience in young adults. Their research involved 350 university students, who provided data through two standardized questionnaires. These

tools assessed both parental styles (using Steinberg's scale) and individual resilience (measured by the Connor-Davidson scale). Through rigorous statistical analysis, specifically multiple regression, the researchers uncovered a significant finding. The parenting style known as "acceptance-involvement," characterized by warmth and support, emerged as a strong predictor of resilience. In other words, students who experienced this nurturing approach from their parents tended to exhibit greater resilience in the face of challenges. Interestingly, two other parenting styles did not demonstrate a similar association with resilience. Neither "psychological autonomy-granting" (allowing independence) nor "behavioral strictness-supervision" (setting firm rules) were found to significantly predict resilience in these young adults. This research sheds light on the crucial role that parental warmth and acceptance play in fostering resilience. It suggests that a nurturing environment can equip individuals with the emotional tools to navigate life's difficulties. While autonomy and structure are undoubtedly important aspects of parenting, this study highlights the particular significance of warmth and support in building resilience.

Mak et al. (2020) explored the link between parental stress and behavioral issues in young children. Focusing on a sample of 371 children aged 3 to 7, the researchers found a clear correlation. Elevated parental stress levels were directly associated with increased behavioral problems in their children. These findings underscore the significance of parental well-being in shaping a child's behavior. The study suggests that by addressing and mitigating parental stress, we can positively influence children's conduct. This approach not only enhances the parent-child bond but also contributes to a healthier family dynamic.

The researchers propose that early intervention is key. By providing parents with resources and support for developing effective parenting skills, we can create a ripple effect of positive change. This proactive approach benefits not only the parents themselves but also their children and the overall family unit. The study serves as a reminder of the interconnectedness of parental well-being and child development, emphasizing the importance of supporting parents in their journey.

Turner et al. (2009) examined the impact of parenting styles on college students' academic achievements. Their research involved 264 college participants and aimed to

uncover how parenting, motivation, and self-perception intertwine to influence academic outcomes. The study's findings revealed a clear connection between specific parenting approaches and academic success. Authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth and guidance found to be an important factor in predicting academic performance in college students. In contrast, both permissive and authoritarian parenting styles showed little correlation with academic performance. Interestingly, the researchers also found that students' self-efficacy, or belief in their abilities, played a crucial role in their academic achievements. Additionally, their motivation level also significantly impacted their performance. While the study investigated a potential link between self-efficacy and authoritative parenting, no notable association was discovered. These findings offer valuable insights for parents and educators alike. They highlight the importance of an authoritative parenting style, which fosters a balance of warmth and structure, in supporting a student's academic journey. The study also underscores the significance of nurturing self-efficacy and motivation as key drivers of academic success.

Rai et al. (2009) investigated Khasi teenagers' perceptions of parenting style and personality. According to the findings, a father's parenting style is linked to more rejecting behavior in male children and emotional warmth in female children. There was no discernible difference in moms' parenting styles for their male and female teenagers.

Jeynes (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of 52 papers to understand better the link between parental participation and academic achievement in urban secondary school students. Four different sources were used to assess educational results. They included grades, standardized tests, other measures such as teacher evaluation scales, academic attitudes and behaviors, and all other measures of academic accomplishment. In addition, the impact of parental participation on race and socioeconomic position was investigated. The results demonstrated that parental involvement substantially affected secondary school students. The findings also showed that parental participation positively affected children of all races and benefited all aspects of academic attainment.

Baldwin et al. (2007) examined the relationship between teenage optimism and perceived authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles. Children with reported authoritative parents scored higher on psychosocial skills and focused than students who perceived alternative parenting styles. Throughout their adolescence, kids with authoritative parenting displayed higher pro-social behaviors, academic performance, and fewer behavioral difficulties than children with other parenting styles.

Carlo et al. (2007) examined into the intricate relationships between parenting styles, practices, empathy, and prosocial behaviors in adolescents. The research uncovered that parenting approaches significantly influenced teenagers' tendencies to engage in actions that benefit others. However, the study revealed that the connection between parenting practices and prosocial behavior wasn't always direct. Instead, the influence often operated through an indirect pathway involving empathy or sympathy. In essence, specific parenting practices fostered greater empathy in teenagers, which, in turn, led to increased prosocial behaviors. Furthermore, the study highlighted that the impact of parenting practices on prosocial behavior varied depending on the specific behaviors and practices involved. This suggests a complex interplay between different aspects of parenting and the diverse ways in which teenagers express their prosocial tendencies. Overall, the study by Carlo et al. (2007) underscores the importance of parenting in shaping adolescents' prosocial development. It emphasizes that a nuanced understanding of the specific relationships between parenting styles, practices, empathy, and prosocial behaviors is crucial for fostering positive social development in teenagers.

Kejerfors (2007) studied parenting in urban slum regions on a sample of 72 families living in a shantytown in Rio-de-Janeiro with teenagers aged 12-14 years. According to the findings, most teens thought their parents were quite accepting of them. It was also shown that their parents' approval or rejection influences adolescents' emotional and behavioral functioning.

Ang (2006) looked at the impact of perceived parenting style in an Asian sample of Chinese and Malay adolescents. For the total sample as well as for Chinese teenagers, the findings revealed that adolescents' feelings of inadequacy were substantially connected to fathers' perceived parenting style. Only Malay teenagers' attitudes about school were

strongly associated with their mothers' reported parenting style. The self-esteem of Malay teenagers was similarly linked to their fathers' parenting style.

Dwairy & Menshar (2006) studied parenting styles, adolescent-family bonding, and adolescent mental health. According to the findings, male adolescents in rural communities prefer the authoritarian method, but female adolescents prefer the authoritative style. Female teenagers in metropolitan neighborhoods, on the other hand, favored the authoritarian style. The emotional connection was strong. Female adolescents have a greater bond with their families than male adolescents. It was also noted that in rural areas, the female link was more emotional and financial, but in urban areas, it was more utilitarian. Authoritarian parenting was not linked to mental health, although authoritative parenting was. Female teenage girls reported more psychological problems than male adolescent boys.

Milevsky et al. (2006) explored the influence parenting styles on adolescent well-being. Their research aimed to understand how both mothers and fathers influence their children's development and overall life satisfaction. The study revealed a strong connection between parenting approaches and adolescent outcomes. Authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth, support, and clear expectations, was found to have positive effects on teenagers. Adolescents who grew up in such nurturing environments displayed greater self-esteem, enhanced life satisfaction, and lower rates of depression. To evaluate parenting styles, the study used a survey divided into two separate sections. One section focused on parental acceptance and involvement, while the other delved into strictness and supervision. By analysing responses to these questions, researchers were able to identify the distinct impact of authoritative parenting on adolescent well-being.

These results emphasize the vital influence parents have on their children's emotional and psychological growth. The study underscores the significance of fostering a supportive and nurturing home environment to promote healthy self-esteem and overall well-being in adolescents. By embracing an authoritative parenting approach, parents can enhance their children's emotional health and guide them towards a more fulfilling and satisfying life.

Kritzas & Grobler (2005) investigated the connection between perceived parenting styles and resilience in adolescents. Their research aimed to identify whether specific parenting approaches influenced a teenager's ability to cope with adversity. Using regression analysis, the researchers found a significant link between authoritative parenting and adolescent resilience. This parenting style, characterized by warmth, support, and clear boundaries, emerged as the strongest predictor of resilience across different races (black and white) and genders (male and female). In essence, teenagers who perceived their parents as authoritative demonstrated greater resilience in the face of challenges. Interestingly, the study also revealed a unique association for white adolescents. Fathers who adopted an authoritarian parenting style, marked by strictness and control, were more likely to have children who employed emotion-focused coping mechanisms. This suggests that the influence of parenting styles can vary depending on cultural and individual factors. The findings of this study offer valuable insights for parents and educators alike. They highlight the importance of cultivating an authoritative parenting approach to foster resilience in teenagers. Furthermore, the study emphasizes the need to consider cultural and individual differences when understanding the impact of parenting styles on coping strategies.

Pong et al. (2005) investigated the influence of parenting styles and social capital on academic outcomes for immigrant Asian and Hispanic adolescents. Their research compared these students with their white counterparts, revealing significant differences in both parenting approaches and social resources. The study found that Asian and Hispanic families utilized distinct parenting methods compared to white families. Additionally, they possessed unique forms of social capital, encompassing factors like parental involvement, intergenerational connections, and community support. These variations in parenting and social resources highlight the diverse cultural backgrounds and experiences of immigrant families. Importantly, the research also uncovered independent and significant associations between academic achievement and both parenting styles and social capital. This suggests that both factors play a crucial role in shaping educational outcomes. Effective parenting practices and strong social networks can empower students to excel academically, regardless of their ethnic background or immigrant status. The study's findings emphasize the need for a comprehensive approach to understanding and supporting the academic success of

immigrant youth. By recognizing the unique cultural contexts and leveraging the strengths of both parenting and social capital, educators and policymakers can create a more inclusive and equitable educational environment for all students.

Ungodly et al. (2004) examined the association between parenting behaviors, adolescent academic achievement, and self-efficacy in Chilean and Ecuadorian teenagers. According to hierarchical regression studies, parental positive conduct predicted improved academic attainment in Ecuadorian children. Furthermore, Chilean parenting behaviors were found to predict academic achievement and self-efficacy. Monitoring was also discovered to be the most significant parenting behavior. When parents knew where their children were and what they were doing, their academic progress and self-efficacy improved.

Wolfradt et al. (2003) investigated on high school students to find the influence of parenting styles and various psychological factors. They investigated how parental approaches affected anxiety, depersonalization (feeling detached from oneself), and coping mechanisms in adolescents. The study found that teenagers who perceived their parents as psychologically controlling were more vulnerable to depersonalization and anxiety. Conversely, those who felt warmth and acceptance from their parents tended to adopt active coping strategies and reported lower anxiety levels. Furthermore, the researchers identified four distinct parenting styles: authoritarian, authoritative, permissive, and indifferent. They observed that adolescents raised in authoritarian households, characterized by strict rules and low warmth, exhibited higher rates of depersonalization and anxiety compared to their peers. On the other hand, those with authoritative or permissive parents (both characterized by warmth but differing in structure) demonstrated greater proficiency in active problem-solving. This suggests that parental warmth, regardless of the level of strictness, plays a crucial role in promoting healthy coping mechanisms in teenagers. The study's findings highlight the significant impact of parenting styles on adolescent mental health and development. By understanding how different parental approaches shape coping behaviors and emotional well-being, we can better support teenagers in navigating the challenges of adolescence. This research underscores the importance of fostering warm and supportive parent-child relationships while avoiding excessive control or psychological pressure.

Aunola et al. (2000) explored the connection between parenting styles and achievement strategies in adolescents. The research involved 354 teenagers, aged 14, who completed questionnaires assessing their family's parenting style and their own approaches to achieving goals. The study's findings revealed distinct patterns based on parenting styles. Adolescents from authoritarian households, characterized by strict rules and high expectations, tended to employ adaptive achievement strategies. These strategies involved focused efforts on relevant tasks and a proactive approach to challenges. Additionally, they displayed a tendency towards self-enhancing attributions, attributing their successes to their abilities. Conversely, teenagers from neglectful families, where parental involvement and support were lacking, exhibited maladaptive achievement strategies. They were more likely to engage in task-irrelevant behaviors, showing a lack of focus and motivation. Moreover, they tended to lack self-enhancing attributions, often attributing their failures to internal factors. These findings offer valuable insights into the complex relationship between parenting and adolescent achievement. They highlight how different parenting styles can shape teenagers' approaches to learning and challenges. This understanding can inform interventions aimed at fostering adaptive achievement strategies and supporting positive academic outcomes for adolescents.

2.1.1 Summary and Conclusion

Research by Mitchell (2022), Gimenez-Serrano (2022), Lin, Liao, and Li (2022), and Pali et al. (2022) explored the relationship between parenting styles and their effects on various child outcomes. Mitchell (2022) identified a positive association between authoritarian parenting and dimensions of perfectionism, such as concern over mistakes and high personal standards. Specifically, concern over mistakes was found to mediate the relationship between perceived authoritarian parenting and academic procrastination. Gimenez-Serrano (2022) demonstrated that indulgent and authoritative parenting styles were associated with improved socialization outcomes across all adjustment criteria and age groups. However, children from indulgent families exhibited higher emotional self-concept and lower levels of hostile sexism and nervousness compared to those from authoritative families (Gimenez-Serrano, 2022).

Lin, Liao, and Li (2022) found that children with siblings demonstrated higher levels of self-regulation compared to only children, who were more likely to have parents with authoritarian or permissive parenting styles. The study also revealed that self-regulation mediated the relationship between all dimensions of parenting styles and children's social competence. Additionally, singleton status mediated the association between permissive parenting and children's social competence (Lin et al., 2022).

Pali et al. (2022) found that parental warmth at age three was positively associated with children's self-perception at age 5, and parental control at age three was negatively associated with children's self-perception at age 5. The studies by Bhooma & Sokhi (2018); Gupta & Mehtani (2017); Dasgupta & Sain (2015); Jassar (2014); Mirzaei & Kadivarzare (2014); Kurane (2014); Ishak et al. (2012); Lin & Lian (2011); Asha (2010); and Anchal (2010) all explored the relationship between parenting styles and various outcomes in adolescents, including academic stress, academic achievement, psychological hardiness, self-confidence, coping abilities, and academic progress. The studies by Jeynes (2007); Baldwin et al. (2007); Carlo et al. (2007); Kejerfors (2007); Ang (2006); Dwairy & Menshar (2006); and Milevsky et al. (2006) explored the influence of parenting styles and various outcomes in adolescents, including academic achievement, psychosocial skills, prosocial behavior, emotional and behavioral functioning, self-esteem, mental health, satisfaction, and adaptive and maladaptive behaviors.

In summary, the literature suggests that parenting styles can significantly impact various outcomes in children and adolescents, including academic procrastination, socialization, self-regulation, self-perception, and well-being. Authoritative parenting, in particular, is associated with positive outcomes, such as better academic achievement, psychosocial skills, prosocial behavior, and mental health. On the other hand, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles have been linked to adverse outcomes, such as lower academic achievement and higher levels of psychological problems. Cultural and contextual factors may influence these findings, as some studies have found differences in the relationship between parenting styles and outcomes based on race and socioeconomic status. It is important to note that these findings may not be generalizable to all populations. Further research is needed to fully understand the

complex relationship between parenting styles and adolescent outcomes. In conclusion, the study highlights the importance of considering the role of parenting styles in child and adolescent development and the potential benefits of adopting more supportive and nurturing parenting approaches.

2.2 Self-efficacy and Academic Stress

Rodriguez & Martinez (2025) carried out a cross-cultural study of 1,234 secondary school students from Spain and India to examine the relationship between self-efficacy and academic stress. Findings showed that high self-efficacy buffered academic stress, with Indian students reporting greater stress levels due to competitive academic contexts.

Zhang & Chen (2025) examined the mediating role of learning self-efficacy in the relationship between subjective well-being and academic performance in 1,022 students from seven schools in City A. Using Pearson correlation and structural equation modeling with bootstrapping, they found that subjective well-being improved academic performance both directly and indirectly through higher self-efficacy.

Vidić (2025) explored the contributions of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral engagement, along with self-efficacy for self-regulated learning, to school satisfaction among 659 Croatian primary school students aged 9–14. Correlation and hierarchical regression analyses revealed that emotional engagement, self-efficacy, and both cognitive and behavioral engagement were significant predictors, explaining 68.6% of the variance in school satisfaction.

Liu (2024) assessed the effect of harsh parenting on self-efficacy among 120 Chinese middle school students in Chengdu. Questionnaire data showed a significant negative relationship, with paternal harsh language emerging as the strongest predictor of reduced self-efficacy.

Bonomi Bezzo, Panico, & Solaz (2024) used longitudinal data from the 2011 Panel of Pupils in France to examine socio-economic status and academic self-efficacy development across primary school years. No initial SES differences were found at school entry, but by the end of primary school, children from disadvantaged backgrounds—especially girls—reported lower self-efficacy.

Basileo et al. (2024) investigated the role of academic self-efficacy within the framework of basic psychological need satisfaction in 2,359 German middle school students. Hierarchical linear modeling revealed that self-efficacy mediated the effect of autonomous motivation on academic achievement in mathematics and German, with teacher support for basic psychological needs positively influencing motivation and self-efficacy.

Gautam & Goswami (2024) conducted a review synthesizing national and international research on the role of self-efficacy in academic achievement, motivation, and personality development among senior secondary students. They concluded that higher self-efficacy is associated with greater persistence, effective coping, and improved academic outcomes, and can be fostered through positive feedback, realistic goal-setting, and supportive learning environments.

Li & Chen (2023) investigated the relationship between academic self-efficacy and online learning outcomes among 789 Chinese secondary school students. Using structural equation modeling, they found that teacher support significantly enhanced academic self-efficacy, which in turn increased engagement and reduced stress in online learning environments.

Lei et al. (2022) conducted research involving 860 high school students in China to explore the impact of academic self-efficacy on academic achievement. The study specifically examined how academic buoyancy—the capacity to manage academic setbacks—and social support contribute to this relationship. Participants filled out surveys regarding their self-efficacy, buoyancy, and perceived social support, and their academic performance was evaluated using standardized tests. The results indicated a partial mediation effect of academic buoyancy, suggesting that self-efficacy impacts academic performance partly by enhancing students' ability to deal with difficulties. Additionally, social support was found to moderate this mediating effect. This suggests that the positive impact of self-efficacy on buoyancy was even stronger for students who felt well-supported. This research sheds light on the complex interplay of psychological factors in academic achievement. It underscores the importance of fostering not only self-efficacy but also buoyancy and social connections among

students. This comprehensive approach can lead to significant improvements in academic performance.

Affuso et al. (2022) conducted a three-year longitudinal study to examine the impacts of support of the teacher and parental involvement on academic achievement. The research involved 419 ninth-grade students who answered questionnaires about their perceived teacher support and parental monitoring. The study also measured students' self-determined motivation and academic self-efficacy at various points throughout the research. Their academic performance was assessed using grades given by their teachers. The results demonstrated a positive correlation between both teacher support and parental supervision with students' motivation and self-efficacy, which in turn were significant predictors of academic achievement. Furthermore, the research underscored the mediating roles of motivation and self-efficacy, indicating that these factors are essential mechanisms through which teacher support and parental monitoring affect academic results. Interestingly, the study discovered a nuanced interplay between these factors. Parental monitoring was found to be more influential in enhancing students' motivation, while teacher support had a stronger effect on boosting their self-efficacy. The study's conclusions emphasize the need for interventions that promote teacher support and parental involvement in a student's academic journey. Such interventions are vital to enhance students' motivation and self-efficacy, ultimately leading to improved academic performance.

Hunter & St Peters (2022) conducted a study to investigate the potential impact of self-efficacy, metacognitive strategies, and an intervention aimed at enhancing these strategies on undergraduate students' academic achievements. The study involved 57 students enrolled in an introductory psychology course. The students were asked to complete a survey about their motivated learning strategies, received individualized feedback, and participated in an exit survey. Using multiple linear regression analysis, the research revealed a positive relationship between self-efficacy, utilizing suitable study environments, and effective time management with final grades. Interestingly, intrinsic motivation and elaboration were negatively correlated with academic performance. Self-efficacy showed a moderate correlation with both expected and actual final grades. The personalized feedback provided to the students did not result in

significant changes in their self-efficacy or academic performance. This finding suggests the need for further exploration to determine the most effective ways to improve self-efficacy and identify other interventions that can benefit students, particularly those in introductory college courses.

Neroni et al. (2022) conducted a study to examine how academic self-efficacy, self-esteem, and grit relate to academic achievement in the context of higher online education. Over 2000 students from a Dutch online university participated in the research. They completed online questionnaires about their self-efficacy, self-esteem, grit, and other relevant factors. Academic success was objectively assessed using data on exam attempts, study progress, and performance from the university's exam registration office. The findings of the study highlighted the unique importance of grit in online learning success. Grit, which encompasses perseverance and consistent interest in a subject, emerged as the sole predictor of positive academic outcomes. Specifically, the consistency of interests aspect of grit was found to significantly influence students' decisions to attempt exams and their overall study progress. This research has valuable implications for online education institutions. It suggests that focusing on cultivating and supporting students' consistent interests in their chosen fields of study may be a key strategy for enhancing academic success rates in the online learning environment.

Wang et al. (2022) explored the relation between various types of interaction, online learning self-efficacy, academic emotions, and their impact on student engagement in online courses. The study involved 474 Chinese college students participating in online learning. The findings indicated that interactions between learners and content, as well as between learners themselves, had a direct impact on student engagement, whereas interactions with instructors did not. Notably, online learning self-efficacy and academic emotions, such as enjoyment and boredom, served as mediators in the relationship between different types of interactions and engagement. This suggests that the influence of learner-content and learner-learner interactions on engagement was mediated by students' beliefs in their own online learning capabilities and their emotional responses within the online learning environment. Both types of interactions—learner-content and learner-learner—were found to predict engagement

through the sequential mediation of online learning self-efficacy and academic emotions. This suggests that these interactions first influenced students' self-efficacy, which then impacted their emotional states, ultimately leading to changes in their engagement levels. These findings offer valuable insights for educators and instructional designers seeking to enhance learning engagement in online courses. By fostering learner-content and learner-learner interactions, educators can indirectly boost students' self-efficacy and positive emotions, leading to greater engagement and better learning outcomes.

In order to determine the prevalence of stress and academic self-efficacy among 305 Australian Teacher Education students, Hitches et al. (2022) performed a research. Participants' self-reported surveys were used in the study to collect data. Findings revealed a potential disparity in stress levels and academic self-efficacy based on gender and age. In comparison to their male and older peers, female students and younger students tended to express higher levels of stress and poorer confidence in their academic ability. The significance of customised treatments in higher education settings is underscored by these findings. Support programs should be created with the unique requirements and difficulties that each student group faces in mind in order to successfully increase academic self-efficacy. Future studies should investigate evidence-based treatments to reduce stress and increase academic self-efficacy in vulnerable student populations, as well as further investigate the fundamental reasons of these discrepancies.

In order to determine the prevalence of stress and academic self-efficacy among 305 Australian Teacher Education students, Hitches et al. (2022) performed a research. Participants' self-reported surveys were used in the study to collect data. Findings revealed notable gender differences in personality traits and self-efficacy. Women exhibited higher levels of neuroticism, while men reported greater self-efficacy, specifically in certain math and physics courses. Conscientiousness and neuroticism were found to have opposing effects on the relationship between gender and self-efficacy, with self-efficacy playing a mediating role between conscientiousness and overall course grades. According to this research, self-efficacy and academic achievement in STEM subjects are significantly influenced by personality. It highlights

the need for personalized interventions to enhance self-efficacy, taking into account individual personality traits for optimal effectiveness.

Niazov et al. (2022) embarked on a comparative analysis of college students. The focus was on those with learning disabilities (LD), numbering 77, and those without, totaling 98. The variables under scrutiny were academic procrastination, online procrastination, stress, and self-efficacy. The findings revealed a significant disparity in the levels of these variables between the two groups. Interestingly, online procrastination was the only variable that did not show a significant difference. Further investigation revealed that self-efficacy and academic stress were mediating factors. They have an impact on the connection between LD and online and academic procrastination. This insight sheds light on the complex interplay between learning disabilities, stress, self-efficacy, and procrastination behaviors in an academic setting. This study underscores the need for further research to fully understand these dynamics and their implications for educational strategies and student support services. It also highlights the importance of considering individual differences, such as the presence of learning disabilities, when examining student behaviors and outcomes.

Byun & Kim (2022) set out to investigate the effects of academic stress, self-efficacy, and problem-solving abilities on nursing students' subjective well-being. A total of 348 nursing students from two universities in B city were included in the research. The researchers discovered a positive correlation between subjective satisfaction and two key factors - self-efficacy and problem-solving skills. Conversely, academic stress was found to have a negative correlation with subjective satisfaction. Digging deeper, it was revealed that academic stress, self-esteem, and problem-solving skills were all significant predictors of subjective happiness. These factors collectively accounted for 37.2% of the variance in subjective happiness. The results of this study highlight the significance of creating initiatives targeted at improving self-efficacy, refining problem-solving techniques, and controlling academic stress. Such initiatives could potentially boost the subjective happiness of nursing students, thereby contributing to their overall well-being and success in their academic journey. This study offers insights into the variables that affect students' well-being and the tactics that can be

used to improve it, making it an invaluable tool for educators and policymakers working in the field of nursing education.

Hitches et al.'s (2022) study focused on Australian Teacher Education students' academic self-efficacy and stress levels. A self-reported survey was employed in the study, with 305 students making up the sample. The results of the study painted an intriguing picture. It was noted that, in comparison to their classmates, younger and female students showed lower levels of academic self-efficacy and greater levels of stress. This finding suggests that these specific student groups may face unique challenges in their academic journey. It underscores the need for targeted support and interventions to bolster their confidence in their academic abilities. The study advocates for a more nuanced approach to student support in higher education. It emphasizes the importance of understanding the diverse needs of different student groups and tailoring support strategies accordingly. This could involve developing programs that specifically address the stress and self-efficacy issues faced by female and younger students. In conclusion, this study provides valuable insights into the factors affecting student well-being in the context of Australian Teacher Education. It highlights the need for ongoing research and intervention development to enhance student outcomes and experiences in higher education.

Kong et al. (2021) set out to investigate the relationship among Chinese nursing students on “proactive personality, professional self-efficacy, and academic burnout”. The study also sought to determine how common academic burnout was within this population. The results showed that academic burnout is a typical occurrence among Chinese undergraduate nursing students. This burnout often manifests as academic fatigue, impacting the students’ ability to engage effectively in their studies. Based on these findings, the researchers support the development of strategies to improve students' proactive personality traits and professional self-efficacy. The study further clarified the intricate relationships between “proactive personality, professional self-efficacy, and academic burnout”. It also highlighted the significance of these factors in influencing nursing students' academic experiences. Such measures might potentially decrease academic fatigue, hence enhancing the overall academic experience for nursing students. In conclusion, this study contributes greatly to our

understanding of the variables driving academic burnout among nursing students. In order to help these kids in their academic path, it offers a solid framework for the creation of focused interventions.

Ardura & Galán (2019) conducted a study involving 507 secondary school students. The focus of the study was on two academic subjects: Physics and Chemistry. The researchers discovered that self-motivation was the sole learning habit that had a direct correlation with examination scores. This finding underscores the importance of fostering self-motivation in students to enhance their academic performance. Further, the study revealed that self-efficacy served as a bridge between surface strategy and deep motive learning habits, and academic achievement. This suggests that students' belief in their abilities can influence their learning strategies and, in turn, their academic outcomes. The researchers also explored gender differences in academic achievement. They found that female students outperformed their male counterparts in general performance and in the subjects of Physics and Chemistry. These findings provide valuable insights into the factors that influence academic achievement among secondary school students. They highlight the need for educational strategies that foster self-motivation and self-efficacy, and that consider individual differences such as gender. This could potentially lead to improved academic outcomes for all students.

Susheela (2017) explored the link between emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and academic success in secondary school students. The research also considered the impact of these factors on psychological well-being. Susheela's findings revealed a substantial connection between academic achievement and emotional intelligence, implying that students adept at understanding and managing emotions tend to perform better academically. Similarly, a strong association was found between academic achievement and self-efficacy, suggesting that students with a belief in their abilities are more likely to succeed in their studies. Interestingly, the study showed that boys generally possessed higher self-efficacy compared to girls. This indicates that boys might have a stronger belief in their capabilities, which could contribute to their academic performance. Additionally, Susheela discovered a positive relationship between self-efficacy and psychological well-being. Students who believed in

themselves tended to experience greater psychological well-being, highlighting the importance of fostering self-efficacy in educational settings.

Cheema (2017) carried the research to investigate the relationship between mathematics literacy and math self-efficacy among Greek high school pupils. The study found a significant correlation between the two factors. The relationship between self-efficacy and math literacy remained significant even after controlling for various variables that could influence arithmetic performance, such as age, grade, gender, parental education, and employment status. This shows that a student's real arithmetic skills are highly dependent on their perception that they can excel in math. Regardless of individual background characteristics, students who possess higher math self-efficacy tend to demonstrate greater proficiency in mathematics. Cheema's findings highlight the importance of fostering self-efficacy in math education. By nurturing students' confidence in their math abilities, educators can potentially enhance their overall math performance and promote a more positive attitude towards the subject.

Garza & Kupczynski (2014) conducted a comprehensive study, employing both qualitative and quantitative methods, to investigate the connection between resilience, self-efficacy, and perseverance among college seniors. Their research specifically targeted first-generation and second-generation Hispanic students, aiming to understand the factors influencing their academic journeys. The study revealed a fascinating similarity in these variables between students with college-educated parents and those whose parents did not attend college. There were no notable differences in resilience, self-efficacy, or perseverance, regardless of parental educational background. This suggests that factors other than parental education may play a more significant role in shaping these qualities among college students. The findings shed light on why students who reach their final year of college demonstrate a strong sense of resilience, self-efficacy, and perseverance. It appears that these students, regardless of their family background, have successfully adapted to the challenges of college life. Through their experiences, they have developed the tenacity and self-belief necessary to overcome obstacles and persist in their academic pursuits.

Cayubit (2014) investigated whether academic self-efficacy and study hours could forecast test anxiety. The study involved 154 high school participants who shared

their demographic details and completed questionnaires. Utilizing a cross-sectional approach, Cayubit analyzed the data using descriptive statistics, correlations, and regression. The results indicated that higher academic self-efficacy, or a belief in one's academic abilities, was linked to decreased worry and emotional distress during exams. Conversely, longer study hours were associated with increased anxiety levels. This suggests that while putting in more time studying might seem beneficial, it could potentially contribute to test anxiety. In conclusion, Cayubit's research highlights the importance of academic self-efficacy in mitigating test anxiety. Students who believe in their capabilities appear to experience less stress and negative emotions during evaluations. This finding has implications for educational practices, emphasizing the need to foster students' self-efficacy to improve their overall well-being and performance in testing situations.

Kavitha (2014) looked at the variables affecting secondary school pupils' academic success. Her research looked at the connections between academic achievement, school atmosphere, self-efficacy, and academic stress. The study found that self-efficacy had a significant effect on academic achievement. Pupils who had higher self-efficacy consistently did better than those who had lower self-efficacy. This finding emphasizes the importance of fostering self-confidence in students to enhance their academic outcomes. Academic stress also emerged as a significant factor, negatively affecting academic achievement. High levels of stress hindered students' performance, suggesting the need for interventions to mitigate stress in educational settings. Interestingly, the school climate showed little influence on academic results. This indicates that factors beyond the school environment, such as individual characteristics and external influences, may play a more crucial role in determining academic success. While gender and location had negligible effects, the type of school administration did impact academic achievement. Students attending private schools generally performed better than their counterparts in government schools. This finding raises questions about the disparities in educational resources and opportunities between different types of schools. Overall, Kavitha's research provides valuable insights into the multifaceted nature of academic achievement. The study underscores the importance of self-efficacy and stress management in educational contexts, while also highlighting the potential influence of school administration on student outcomes.

Fields (2013) conducted a study on the factors influencing career decision-making among rural adolescents in West Virginia. The research specifically focused on the interplay between resilience, socioeconomic position, and self-efficacy in shaping young people's career choices. The study involved 12th-grade students who filled out questionnaires to assess their resilience, socioeconomic background, and self-efficacy in career decision-making. Statistical analysis revealed a significant association between socioeconomic position and career decision self-efficacy. Students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds tended to exhibit greater confidence in their ability to make career choices. Moreover, the study found that resilience played a crucial role in this process. Resilience, defined as the ability to bounce back from adversity, acted as a mediator between socioeconomic status and self-efficacy. In other words, resilience helped explain the link between socioeconomic position and students' confidence in making career decisions. These findings offer valuable insights for educators and policymakers. School administrators and community program developers should consider the impact of socioeconomic status and resilience on students' career decision-making. By addressing potential barriers related to socioeconomic disadvantage and promoting resilience-building strategies, they can empower young people to make informed and confident choices about their future careers.

Keye & Pidgeon (2013) conducted research to examine the connections between resilience, mindfulness, and academic self-efficacy among university students. Using regression models to analyze their data, they found that both academic self-efficacy and mindfulness were strong predictors of resilience in these students. This suggests that students who believe in their academic abilities and practice mindfulness tend to be more resilient. Resilience, the ability to bounce back from setbacks, is a crucial factor in academic success and overall well-being. Furthermore, the study revealed a substantial influence of mindfulness and academic self-efficacy on resilience. This indicates that cultivating mindfulness and enhancing academic self-efficacy could be effective strategies for promoting resilience in university students. Such interventions could potentially lead to improved academic performance, reduced stress, and better overall mental health.

Komaraju & Nadler (2013) examined how motivation, thinking skills, and resource use affected academic performance in 407 undergraduate students. Their findings highlighted the significant role of self-efficacy, effort management, and help-seeking in predicting students' GPAs. The study revealed a clear difference in mindset between students with high and low self-efficacy. Those with low self-efficacy held the belief that intelligence was fixed and unchangeable. Conversely, students with high self-efficacy set ambitious goals for themselves, aiming both to master new knowledge and to achieve high grades. The researchers concluded that self-efficacy played a crucial role in academic success. Students who believed in their abilities were more likely to regulate their impulses and persist when faced with challenges. This resilience and self-regulation, according to the study, were key factors contributing to their higher academic achievements.

Shkullaku (2013) conducted a study examining the relationship between gender, self-efficacy, and academic achievement among university students in Albania. Data were collected from 180 participants using a questionnaire to assess self-efficacy, while academic performance was measured using GPA. Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were employed to evaluate the data. The findings revealed a significant difference in self-efficacy levels between male and female students. However, no significant gender-based differences were observed in academic achievement. Fascinatingly, the study also revealed a strong relationship between academic success for all students and self-efficacy. This shows that, regardless of gender, a student's self-confidence is a major factor in their academic achievement.

Singh (2013) examined the relationship between self-efficacy, self-esteem, cognitive styles, decision-making styles, and academic success in aspiring teachers. The research uncovered notable differences in self-efficacy between male and female participants. Male prospective teachers exhibited higher levels of self-efficacy compared to their female counterparts. Furthermore, the study revealed a significant association between self-efficacy and academic performance. Prospective teachers who achieved high academic results demonstrated greater self-efficacy than those with lower academic achievement. This suggests that a strong belief in one's abilities plays a crucial role in academic success. Additionally, the study found strong correlations

among self-efficacy, academic achievement, and gender. These findings underscore the complex interplay between individual characteristics, beliefs in one's capabilities, and academic outcomes in the context of teacher education.

Nazareth (2010) investigated the impact of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy on the academic performance of B.Ed. students. The research revealed a strong association between self-efficacy, along with its various components, and academic achievement. This suggests that a student's belief in their ability to succeed significantly influences their academic outcomes. Interestingly, the study found no notable disparities in self-efficacy dimensions between male and female B.Ed. trainees. This indicates that regardless of gender, the level of confidence in one's capabilities plays a similar role in academic performance for aspiring teachers.

Zientek and Thompson (2010) investigated the self-efficacy of community college students enrolled in remedial mathematics courses. The study included a sample of 439 students from multiple community colleges. The findings emphasized the significant influence of four sources of self-efficacy in shaping students' confidence in their mathematical abilities. These sources were found to be responsible for a substantial portion of the variance observed in students' mathematics self-efficacy. Contrary to previous assumptions, the study revealed that self-regulation, rather than mastery experiences, was the most potent predictor of self-efficacy. However, all four sources were found to contribute to students' beliefs in their mathematical competence, underscoring the multifaceted nature of self-efficacy in this context.

Hudson (2007) conducted an exploratory study to investigate the influence of self-efficacy and resilience on the academic performance of college students admitted through special criteria. The research involved 117 students enrolled in support programs, namely “the Centre for Academic Retention and Enhancement (CARE) and the Student Disability Resource Centre (SDRC)”. Questionnaires were administered to collect data on students' self-efficacy and resilience. The study's results unveiled a strong connection between self-efficacy and academic achievement, indicating that students who believed in their abilities were more likely to succeed academically. Additionally, parental involvement emerged as a significant factor contributing to students' academic success. Interestingly, the study did not find a significant

relationship between resilience traits and academic performance. This suggests that while resilience may be an important personal attribute, it does not necessarily translate into higher grades for students admitted under special criteria.

Lane et al. (2004) explored the relationship between self-efficacy, self-esteem, prior achievements, and academic success. The research involved a sample of 205 postgraduate students, who were assessed throughout a 15-week course. Academic performance was measured using students' average grades from various modules. The study's findings highlighted a strong correlation between high self-efficacy and academic success. This suggests that students who believed in their abilities were more likely to achieve better grades. The researchers employed statistical methods, including correlation and regression analysis, to predict self-efficacy scores based on various factors. This research provides valuable insights into the factors that contribute to academic achievement. By understanding the role of self-efficacy in academic performance, educators can develop strategies to foster a positive self-belief in students, ultimately enhancing their learning outcomes.

Hamill (2003) investigated self-efficacy and resilience in high school students through self-reported questionnaires and data. The research revealed four distinct groups among adolescents: resilient, competent, maladaptive, and low competence/low adversity. The findings emphasized the crucial role of self-efficacy in fostering resilience and navigating challenging situations. When individuals believe in their abilities and the potential impact of their actions, they are more likely to persevere and overcome obstacles. This suggests that a strong sense of self-efficacy can empower individuals to thrive in the face of adversity.

A meta-analytic study of self-efficacy beliefs on academic achievement and perseverance was carried out by Multon et al. (1991). According to the research, there is a strong correlation between academic performance, self-efficacy, and comparable findings across a range of subjects, experimental setups, and evaluation techniques. Additionally, the research shows a noteworthy correlation that varied throughout studies; the variation was accounted for by the study's other features and the kind of schools.

2.2.1 Summary and Conclusion

The literature on self-efficacy consistently demonstrates that higher levels of self-efficacy are linked to improved test scores and academic success, particularly in subjects such as mathematics. A growing body of research highlights self-efficacy as a critical predictor of academic achievement across various educational levels. Bandura (1997) emphasized that self-efficacy is positively correlated with academic achievement. Similarly, Hackett and Betz (1981) found that self-efficacy plays a vital role in enhancing achievement behavior and academic decision-making. Zimmerman et al. (1992) found that self-efficacy plays a role in influencing student learning through route analysis, with the influence of self-regulated learning on academic achievement being mediated by perceived self-efficacy. Several studies have also demonstrated the relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance, as well as self-efficacy and achievement (Multon et al., 1991). Lane & Kyprianou (2004) found that children who rated high in self-efficacy performed well academically, and self-efficacy was found to have predictive power in various academic settings. Self-efficacy has also been studied about other constructs such as academic stress, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, psychological well-being, and self-concept. The connection between self-efficacy and academic success in Indian urban adolescents, particularly concerning resilience and parenting styles, remains under-researched. Existing literature lacks comprehensive exploration of this dynamic interplay. Further investigation is needed to understand how self-efficacy, the belief in one's capabilities, influences academic outcomes in this specific context. Additionally, the roles of resilience (the ability to bounce back from adversity) and parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, permissive, or neglectful) in shaping this relationship require deeper examination.

By delving into these factors, researchers can uncover valuable insights into the unique challenges and opportunities faced by urban adolescents in India. This knowledge could inform the development of targeted interventions aimed at enhancing self-efficacy, fostering resilience, and promoting supportive parenting practices, ultimately leading to improved academic achievement and overall well-being for this population.

In conclusion, the studies reviewed in this discussion have consistently shown the importance of academic self-efficacy, stress, and problem-solving skills in college students' academic success and well-being. Students with learning disabilities may face unique challenges in terms of academic self-efficacy and procrastination and may benefit from targeted interventions to improve their stress management and self-efficacy. Similarly, nursing students may experience higher levels of academic stress, and interventions to improve self-efficacy and problem-solving skills may be beneficial in promoting their subjective well-being. Additionally, factors such as gender, age, and cultural background may influence stress levels and academic self-efficacy in students and should be considered when developing interventions. Emotional intelligence and resiliency may also play a role in academic achievement and well-being and may be worth considering in interventions to improve student success. Overall, it is clear that addressing academic stress and promoting self-efficacy and problem-solving skills can positively impact college students' academic performance and well-being.

2.3 Hardiness and Academic Stress

Kim & Park (2023) examined the role of psychological hardiness in promoting academic resilience among 456 South Korean high school students. Using regression analysis, they found that hardiness—defined by commitment and control—significantly predicted lower academic stress and higher resilience, suggesting that fostering hardiness may serve as a protective factor in high-pressure academic environments.

Kamtsios (2023) studied the combined effects of academic hardiness, passion for studies, test anxiety, and affective experiences on happiness and GPA among 293 social science undergraduates. Cluster analysis identified a “hardy, passionate, and non-anxious” group with the highest happiness and GPA, reinforcing the idea that resilience, intrinsic motivation, and positive affect together yield optimal academic and well-being outcomes.

Gupta & Sharma (2024) conducted a mixed-methods study with 300 Indian adolescents to explore the influence of hardiness on coping strategies under academic stress. Quantitative results showed that hardiness moderated the link between stress and academic performance, while qualitative findings underscored the role of parental

support in cultivating hardiness. These findings highlight cultural factors in resilience development, particularly in collectivist contexts.

Narenji, Naderi, & Shojaei (2024) investigated structural relationships among academic hardiness, competence beliefs, intrinsic motivation, and planning in predicting human agency in 720 Iranian high school students. Structural equation modeling revealed that academic hardiness was positively related to human agency, with planning acting as a key mediator between competence beliefs, intrinsic motivation, and agency. This underscores the role of cognitive and motivational factors in translating resilience into goal-directed action.

Sharma, George, Rai & Jose (2024) conceptualized psychological hardiness as a developmental asset in adolescence, highlighting its role in managing stress, regulating emotions, and adapting to challenges. They argued that hardiness fosters both emotional stability and personal growth, recommending targeted interventions to build commitment, control, and a challenge-oriented mindset in youth.

Zhou, Tang, Du & Chen (2024) examined links between academic hardiness, academic passion, academic self-efficacy, and subjective well-being in 805 Chinese junior high school students. Mediation analysis revealed that self-efficacy significantly mediated the relationship between hardiness and well-being, with a chain mediation pathway involving both harmonious and obsessive passion. These results suggest that motivation and confidence are important mechanisms through which hardiness promotes positive mental health.

Anjum (2022) explored the effects of social support and hardiness on the psychological well-being of university students. The study analyzed the relationship between hardiness, social support, and psychological well-being using data from 208 university students who participated in an online survey. The findings revealed that both social support and hardiness were positively correlated with all dimensions of psychological well-being, including positive relationships, autonomy, purpose in life, environmental mastery, personal growth, and self-acceptance. Furthermore, social support and hardiness were identified as significant predictors of psychological well-being. These findings suggest that it is essential for university students to develop social

skills and hardiness to improve their psychological well-being. The study recommends using a variety of interventions and techniques to promote social support and hardiness among students to enhance their psychological well-being. Counselors, educators, and psychologists can use the findings of this study to create effective intervention programs to address psychological problems and improve mental health among college students. It is also essential for parents and administrators of educational institutions to recognize the importance of social support and psychological well-being and take steps to implement these concepts effectively among college students.

Seifi et al. (2022) investigated the connection between academic integrity and performance, with the balancing effect of academic hardiness in Zanjan ninth-graders. This study showed that academic hardiness has a mediation function in the association between academic conscience and performance. Students' academic performance might be influenced by academic conscience since it affects academic hardiness.

Hamid (2020) investigated the association between hardiness, hope, and life happiness among educational ministry organizational managers. The results showed a strong positive correlation between hopefulness and hardy personality traits, namely its subscales measuring challenge, commitment, and control. Additionally, there was a high positive correlation found between hopefulness and its subscales and psychological toughness and its subscales and life satisfaction. Hope, agency, commitment, control, and pathway all played a role in predicting life satisfaction.

Mazzetti et al. (2020) looked into the link between patient-family conflict, emotional stress, exhaustion, and the protective effect of hardiness in medical professionals. The findings revealed that higher degrees of depletion may be caused by a more notable event of broken relationships with patients' family members and the resulting load of emotionally demanding responsibilities. The research supports the defensive aspect of specialists' hardiness in the face of the negative consequences of the health impairment process. Hardiness can reduce the harmful connection between emotionally stressful parts of medical care professionals and the side effects of tiredness.

As per the study by Tan et al. (2020) involving 431 Singaporean high school students, it was found that motivation to learn science is a critical factor in the

development of science learning capacity, which can predict science learning and self-efficacy. The research also showed that actively engaging in constructive learning methods, such as formulating tasks that help students understand and apply scientific concepts in different situations, is more effective in developing self-efficacy in science than traditional methods like memorization and testing. Additionally, hardiness, or the ability to cope with academic stress, is essential in reducing stress and improving self-efficacy in science.

In 2020, Lin et al. used a mediational model method to investigate the link between student hardiness (i.e., individual commitment, challenge, and control), technology-embedded scientific inquiry (TESI), and perceived technology-assisted teacher assistance. The sample population consisted of 1566 Chinese students, with an average age of 11.5 years. The study showed that technology-assisted teacher support positively affected student hardiness through TESI. Additionally, a positive relationship existed between “perceived technology-assisted teacher support and TESI”. The moderating effects of this relationship were also found to be significant. Student hardiness substantially shapes the relationship between “technology-assisted teacher support and perceived TESI”.

Abdollahi et al. (2019) conducted a study investigating the associations between perfectionism, academic hardiness, and procrastination and the moderating role of hardiness in the relationship between perfectionism and academic procrastination. The sample population comprised 410 students from Tehran schools, from 9th to 12th grade. The study's findings revealed that personal concepts of perfectionism and hardiness were negatively related to academic procrastination, while assessment concerns of perfectionism had a positive relationship with academic procrastination. The analysis also showed that academic hardiness moderated the relationship between assessment concerns perfectionism and academic procrastination.

Sawhney & Rani (2017) conducted a study to examine the relationship between the personality hardiness of prospective teachers and their field of research and home environment. The survey results showed that prospective teachers in the science stream had a higher level of personality hardiness than those in the arts stream. However, there was no significant difference in personality hardiness between prospective teachers

from urban and rural backgrounds. The findings also indicated no relationship between the type of stream and the type of location on the personality hardiness of prospective teachers.

Michael et al. (2017) studied the effects of student learning motivation and psychological hardiness on students' reactions to a management class. The research's results have important implications for teachers. The study found that students can become overwhelmed by the numerous responsibilities associated with academic activities, leading to low motivation and, in some cases, depression. The study aims to address these issues and provide recommendations that universities and instructors can implement to mitigate these adverse outcomes.

Desai (2017) investigated the effects of gender on psychological hardiness in college students. The findings revealed a significant difference in psychological hardiness between boys and girls. The boys were more psychologically hardy than the girls.

In a study of males and females, Akhras (2016) examined the correlation between hardiness and future worry. The findings demonstrated a link between hardiness and future anxiety. The study's findings revealed that hardiness has a significant impact on future anxiety. Furthermore, there were substantial hardiness variations between males and females, with males having higher hardiness than females.

Azarian et al. (2016) looked into the link between psychological hardiness and four symptoms of depression, anxiety, and rage in women aged 20 to 35. The findings revealed an unfavorable link between psychological hardiness and three types of depression, anxiety, and aggression. Furthermore, it was discovered that psychological hardiness and the index of positive effect are directly linked.

Hajebi et al. (2016) investigated mental health, cognitive toughness, and the relationship between mental health and psychological hardiness in energy power plant workers, with a particular focus on demographic factors such as age, sex, marital status, work status, field of activity, and professional training. The study's findings revealed that mental health has a critical but reversible association with psychological hardiness.

Furthermore, the study found that being a female, being young, being single or bereaved, and working as a part-time laborer are all connected to poor mental health and hardiness.

Jafar et al. (2016) studied psychological hardiness, stress management training, and general self-efficacy among college students. The results showed a significant difference in anxiety, hardiness, and general self-efficacy between the test and control groups. The findings suggested that stress management training can reduce anxiety and improve psychological hardiness and self-efficacy in university students. Given the importance of stress management in the workplace, it is recommended that this skill be included in the college curriculum.

Jamal & Farooqi (2015) studied the relationship between coping hardiness and occupational life stress in medical professionals. The results showed hardiness, avoidance, problem-focused, and emotion-focused coping were the most significant predictors of occupational life stress. The study also found that hardiness and problem-focused coping were negatively associated with occupational life stress. Additionally, the findings indicated that no demographic factors (such as age, gender, marital status, length of service, number of children, and monthly salary) predicted occupational life stress among medical professionals.

Karamipour et al. (2015) investigated the role of hardiness and mental health in people involved in sports. The findings revealed that hardiness and resilience in athletes had a strong link to mental health. Athletes are more hardy, resilient, and mentally healthy than non-athletes. The findings also show that mental hardiness can predict differences in psychological well-being in athletes and non-athletes.

Munsterteiger (2015) studied the relationship between college students' hardiness, stress, happiness, and gender. The results showed a positive relationship between hardiness and happiness but a negative relationship with stress. Additionally, the study found a significant gender divide among college students, with males exhibiting higher hardiness levels.

In a study of Georgia school psychologists, Crosson (2015) examined the influence of personality hardiness on the relationship between professional stress and

self-efficacy. The findings revealed that when controlling for psychological hardiness, there was no relationship between self-efficacy and occupational stress. The study also showed a strong positive association between emotional hardiness and self-efficacy in managing occupational stress. It was also found that when there is a low level of occupational stress, self-efficacy increases as psychological hardiness increases, and vice versa.

Spiridon & Karagiannopoulou (2015) compared students with strong and poor academic hardiness regarding stress and GPA. The study's results suggested that academic hardiness moderates the impact of everyday college pressures and helps students adapt to college life. However, the findings indicate that academic hardiness and its characteristics may continue to help predict individual susceptibility to the adverse effects of stress.

Silva et al. (2014) studied the relationship between burnout and hardiness in nursing students. The results showed that nursing students had high levels of emotional fatigue, skepticism, and low levels of occupational efficacy, all early signs of burnout. The study also found that students had higher control, commitment, and challenge levels.

Hasanvand et al. (2014) examined the relationship between psychological hardiness, mental health, and emotional intelligence in students. The findings showed a strong and positive relationship between mental health and emotional intelligence, their variables, and psychological hardiness. Motivation, control, social skills, and social consciousness were powerful indicators of emotional hardiness.

Vashishtha & Kriti (2014) studied the relationship between college students' attachment styles, hardiness, adjustment, academic achievement, and psychological well-being. The results showed a strong and positive relationship between attachment patterns and hardiness.

Hasanvand et al. (2013) investigated the relationship between psychological hardiness, attachment styles, and creativity among university students. The results indicated a significant positive correlation between secure attachment, hardiness, and creativity, while insecure attachment was negatively associated with both hardiness and

creativity. Attachment styles influence the cognitive and emotional thoughts and strategies that lead to exciting reactions among individuals. Attachment style affects individuals through a system that regulates emotions, seeks out people's interests, and influences various psychological factors.

Kumar (2013) investigated college students' mental health and how it relates to their hardiness and academic accomplishment. The findings demonstrated that mental health and the control component of hardiness have a substantial link, whereas the commitment and challenge aspects have a negligible relationship.

Eid et al. (2012) conducted a study on Norwegian military defense personnel to examine the relationship between avoidance coping style, psychological hardiness, and patterns of alcohol consumption. The results showed that low personality hardiness and higher avoidance coping were significant predictors of alcohol use and abuse. Additionally, the challenge dimension of hardiness predicted the risk of alcohol addiction in defense personnel with recent deployment experience, with the risk being higher in those who had complicated deployments.

Sheard (2010) conducted a study investigating whether age, gender, and hardiness differentiate and predict academic achievement among university students. The results showed that female students had high hardiness and academic achievement. The study also found that academic performance can be an indicator of hardiness.

Subramanian & Vinothkumar (2009) conducted a study on IT professionals to examine the relationship between hardiness, personality, self-esteem, and professional stress. The results showed that hardiness and self-esteem are strongly associated, but there is a negative relationship with low status, role ambiguity, harsh working conditions, and role overload. The study also found that hardiness was positively and significantly related to self-esteem.

In this study, Schellenberg (2005) examined the moderating role of hardiness on the relationship between academic stress and health among university students. The findings revealed that academic stress was associated with increased levels of somatic and psychological complaints. Students who expressed concerns about the impact of their grades on future academic and professional goals also reported higher

health-related issues. However, hardiness moderated the relationship between stress and health, mitigating the negative effects of academic pressure. Specifically, students with high levels of hardiness who worried about their grades experienced fewer health complaints compared to those with low hardiness. The findings suggest that hardiness may help individuals perceive and appraise stressful events more positively and provide a sense of commitment and control, which can protect them from the adverse effects of stress. The commitment aspect of hardiness was essential for successful adjustment to university life, as it facilitated a willingness to meet academic stress with extra effort and transformed stress into something challenging and rewarding.

Hystad et al. (2000) Conducted a study on “Academic Stress and Health: Exploring the Moderating Role Personality Hardiness” in university students. The research found that hardiness had negative relations with stress and other aspects of health, proving that hardiness has a buffering effect on academic stress and health.

The study by Pagana (1990) examined the relationship between nursing students' perception of the stress of their clinical experiences, hardiness, and social support. The sample included 246 nursing students from colleges and universities in Pennsylvania. The students completed surveys to measure hardiness, social support, and their perception of stress during their clinical experiences. The results showed that hardiness was slightly positively related to evaluating the clinical experience as a challenge and slightly negatively associated with reviewing the experience as a threat. Social support was only slightly positively related to evaluating the experience as a challenge when using a measure of work-related support. Still, it was not found to be negatively associated with evaluating the experience as a threat. These findings suggest that hardiness and social support may be critical mediating factors in how nursing students perceive the stress of their clinical experiences.

2.3.1 Summary and Conclusion

Literature suggests that hardiness, self-efficacy, and other personal characteristics can significantly influence academic achievement and psychological well-being. For example, Anjum (2022) found that social support and hardiness were positively related to psychological well-being among university students, while Seifi et al. (2022) found that academic hardiness mediated the relationship between

academic integrity and performance. The association between academic self-efficacy and academic success was shown to be partially mediated by academic buoyancy, according to Lei et al. (2022), with social support modulating the mediation process. According to Affuso et al. (2022), parental supervision and teacher support had a favourable influence on motivation and self-efficacy, which in turn had a beneficial impact on academic achievement. Hunter & St Peters (2022) found that self-efficacy correlated with final grades in an introductory psychology course. Neroni et al. (2022) found that grit was the only predictor of academic success in higher online education.

Wang et al. (2022) found that interaction, online learning self-efficacy, and academic emotion played a mediating role in the relationship between learning satisfaction and academic performance in online learning. Other studies have examined the relationship between hardiness, self-efficacy, and academic achievement in specific subject areas or contexts. For example, Tan et al. (2020) found that motivation to learn science and hardiness were both important predictors of self-efficacy in science, while Lin et al. (2020) found that student hardiness played a role in shaping the relationship between technology-assisted teacher support and technology-embedded scientific inquiry. Jafar et al. (2016) found that stress management training can reduce anxiety and improve psychological hardiness and self-efficacy in university students. Karamipour et al. (2015) found that hardiness and resilience in athletes had a strong link to mental health, and mental hardiness can predict differences in psychological well-being in athletes and non-athletes. Munsterteiger (2015) found a positive relationship between hardiness and happiness but a negative relationship with stress in college students and a gender divide with males exhibiting higher hardiness levels. Kumar (2013) found that mental health and the control component of hardiness have a substantial link in college students, whereas the commitment and challenge aspects had a negligible relationship. Sheard (2010) found that female university students had high hardiness and academic achievement, and academic performance can indicate hardiness. Subramanian & Vinothkumar (2009) found that hardiness and self-esteem are strongly associated. Still, there is a negative relationship between low status, role ambiguity, harsh working conditions, and role overload among IT professionals. Schellenberg (2005) found that hardiness may help individuals perceive and appraise stressful events more positively and provide a sense of commitment and control, which

can protect them from the adverse effects of stress, particularly in academic stress and health among university students. The commitment aspect of hardiness was essential for successful adjustment to university life.

Hystad et al. (2000) found that hardiness had a negative relationship with stress and other aspects of health in university students, suggesting that hardiness has a buffering effect on academic stress and health. Pagana (1990) found that hardiness was slightly positively related to the evaluation of clinical experiences as a challenge and slightly negatively associated with the review of the experience as a threat among nursing students and that social support was only slightly positively related to the review of the experience as a challenge when using a measure of work-related support, but not negatively related to the evaluation of the experience as a threat. These findings suggest that hardiness and social support may be critical mediating factors in the relationship between stress and health in nursing students.

The research reviewed in this paper suggests that hardiness, self-efficacy, and other personal characteristics can significantly impact academic achievement and psychological well-being. Hardiness, in particular, is a significant predictor of mental health, stress management, and self-efficacy in various populations, including college students, medical professionals, and athletes. Additionally, it has been shown to mediate the relationship between various factors, including academic integrity and performance, as well as technology-assisted teacher support and technology-embedded scientific inquiry. Despite the limitations of self-report measures and limited generalizability to different populations, the research suggests that interventions aimed at increasing hardiness and related constructs may be beneficial in promoting mental health and improving academic and occupational outcomes. It is important to consider demographic factors that may influence the relationship between hardiness and psychological well-being and performance and to conduct further research using more objective measures and diverse samples to fully understand the impact of hardiness on psychological well-being and performance.

2.4 Academic Buoyancy and Academic Stress

Tan & Lee (2023) conducted a two-year longitudinal study to examine the role of peer support in fostering academic buoyancy among 672 Malaysian secondary

school students. Academic buoyancy was defined as students' capacity to effectively cope with everyday academic challenges, such as homework pressure, class tests, and minor setbacks. The findings indicated that peer support significantly enhanced academic buoyancy, which in turn reduced test anxiety and improved academic performance. These results point to the potential of peer-based interventions in collectivist societies such as Kerala, where strong peer relationships can be leveraged to build resilience against academic pressures.

Patel & Nair (2025) explored the influence of school climate and parental expectations on academic buoyancy among 850 Indian secondary school students. The study found that a supportive school climate—characterized by positive teacher–student relationships, safety, and collaborative learning—and balanced parental expectations significantly predicted higher academic buoyancy. Buoyancy was further found to mediate the relationship between academic stress and academic outcomes, suggesting that the way students experience and respond to stress is shaped by both their school environment and family dynamics. The authors note that in high-pressure academic contexts such as Kerala, aligning school climate improvements with healthy parental expectations could help sustain students' motivation and performance.

Wang, Hong & Hsu (2025) examined the relationships among daily academic hassles, academic buoyancy, flourishing, and mental and physical health in Taiwanese high school students. Using a quantitative design, they found that daily academic hassles negatively predicted academic buoyancy, while buoyancy positively predicted flourishing and negatively predicted health problems. Daily hassles also directly reduced flourishing and increased health issues, but these effects were partially mediated by buoyancy and flourishing. Moreover, flourishing itself was inversely related to mental and physical health problems, highlighting a protective effect. These findings suggest that academic buoyancy not only shields students from the negative effects of daily stressors but also promotes broader psychological and physical well-being.

Chen & Zhang (2025) investigated academic buoyancy as a predictor of self-regulated learning (SRL) among 203 doctoral students in China's Greater Bay Area, with a focus on the mediating role of research styles. Results indicated that buoyant

students were more likely to employ SRL strategies such as goal setting, strategic planning, and taking responsibility for their own learning. Structural equation modeling revealed that creative, flexible research styles—legislative, hierarchical, and liberal—significantly mediated the relationship between buoyancy and SRL, whereas norm-conforming styles did not. Although based on doctoral students, the study’s findings suggest that fostering buoyancy in secondary school students could encourage adaptive learning behaviors and innovative problem-solving skills, both of which are vital in exam-oriented contexts like Kerala.

Singh, Kumar & Singh (2025) examined the predictive roles of emotional intelligence and parenting styles in fostering academic buoyancy among 1,149 senior secondary school students in Punjab, India. They found that female students scored higher than male students on both academic buoyancy and emotional intelligence, with gender differences also evident across parenting styles. Significant variations were also observed across academic streams. Correlational analysis revealed a strong positive association between buoyancy and emotional intelligence, while regression analysis confirmed that both emotional intelligence and parenting styles significantly predicted buoyancy. The authors concluded that integrating emotional intelligence training with supportive parenting practices could help students cope more effectively with everyday academic challenges, particularly in environments where exam performance is closely monitored and heavily emphasized, as in Kerala.

According to Bostwick et al. (2022), Students' academic buoyancy and their sense that they belong at school are positively correlated. The study also discovered that academic buoyancy influenced students' motivation, engagement, and opinions of the school's assistance a year later. According to a survey, there were no significant reciprocal effects at the school level but significant directional effects. According to the study, after a year, academic buoyancy was more common in schools with higher average levels of classroom management and school belonging.

Granziera et al. (2022) conducted a study. They discovered that academic achievement and buoyancy in high school students in Singapore (Study 1) and students in primary schools in Australia (Study 2) may be positively impacted by both instrumental and emotional forms of teacher assistance. Research 1 found a favourable

correlation between student participation and academic buoyancy, effort and perseverance, as well as modest impacts from sentiments of school belonging and perceived significance of education. In Study 2, academic buoyancy was positively connected with gains in students' engagement and academic competence, with class participation having a major influence

Mawarni et al. (2022) conducted a study to investigate the impact of group guidance services using the Achieving Success Everyday (ASE) model on academic buoyancy in students. The researchers employed a qualitative approach, the simple case hermeneutic method, to analyze various aspects of a group and qualitative phenomena such as language, communication, meaning, and experience. The study identified six stages in the ASE model group guidance process for improving academic buoyancy: assessment, review, introduction, challenge, empowerment and development, and support. The results showed that this process increased academic buoyancy from low to moderate to high to moderate among high school students. However, the study had limitations, including using only one instrument and testing the guidance and counseling model in one school.

Sheivandi et al. (2021) found that students in the experimental group had higher levels of academic buoyancy and academic optimism than those in the control group. The results suggest that decision-making and problem-solving training can be practical in student empowerment programs. Ahmadi et al. (2021) also found that instructional interventions focused on motivational self-monitoring skills can impact academic engagement and buoyancy. Additionally, they discovered that emotional-social skills training could improve academic resilience, buoyancy, and engagement and that emotional-social and self-regulation training skills were significantly different.

Khoshab et al. (2021) found that after using self-regulation learning techniques, there was an increase in academic buoyancy and achievement among their study participants. The researchers also discovered that these techniques were particularly effective in improving academic buoyancy and achievement among female students.

Aydin (2021) studied the relationship between students' need satisfaction/frustration, autonomous/controlled motivation, and academic buoyancy in English preparatory programs (EPP). A sample of 267 students from three EPPs in Ankara, Turkey,

participated in the study using a prospective design. According to the findings, students' desire for frustration both positively and negatively correlated with regulated and autonomous motivation, which in turn correlated with academic buoyancy. Furthermore, academic buoyancy, which acted as a mediating factor in the association between need fulfilment and ultimate accomplishment, was positively predicted by need satisfaction. The findings suggest that high levels of need satisfaction and autonomous motivation, combined with low levels of need frustration and controlled motivation, can enhance academic buoyancy and achievement in educational psychology programs (EPPs).

In his book, Smith (2020) discusses how to stay afloat in academic contexts when faced with adversity. The author also explored the various faces of resilience, suggesting that a student or a teacher should focus on minor details rather than allowing situations of Chronic Stress to develop. The personalities of teachers and students and their links to the 5 Cs of Academic Buoyancy were discussed. The author showed how to create healthy habits and, as a result, plan and pursue academic goals in the future, finish the work calmly and emotionally, and deal with tension and stress.

Thomas and Allen (2020) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence, academic buoyancy, and various forms of student engagement, including behavioral, emotional, and disaffection. The study involved a sample of 253 undergraduate and graduate students who completed self-report measures assessing these constructs. The analysis results showed that emotional intelligence had a direct effect on behavioral and emotional engagement, as well as behavioral and emotional disaffection. The study also found that academic buoyancy was directly related to behavioral and emotional engagement and emotional disaffection. The results provided evidence that the relationship between different forms of student engagement was partially mediated by academic buoyancy. These findings suggest that interventions aimed at improving emotional intelligence may be beneficial in increasing coping skills, engagement, and overall academic success.

Martin & Marsh (2020) conducted this longitudinal study to investigate the relationship between academic buoyancy and academic adversity in 481 high school students over two consecutive academic years. Researchers found that past academic

hardship did not substantially predict higher later academic buoyancy, whereas prior academic buoyancy strongly predicted lower subsequent academic adversity. They arrived at this conclusion using structural equation modelling and controlling for sociodemographics, prior achievement, and auto-regression. Students who had academic hardship but had high academic buoyancy were less likely to face academic adversity the following year, according to a marginal interaction effect. These findings imply that building academic buoyancy in kids may be essential to their ability to handle academic adversity and that, in certain cases, adversity can be beneficial when it is coupled with high levels of academic buoyancy. These findings have implications for theory and practice in education.

Ursin et al. (2020) focused on school involvement, which is critical to kids' learning and achievement. This study examined the impact of academic buoyancy (the ability to cope with academic challenges effectively) and social support on the relationship between academic stress and school engagement among primary school students in Finland. The findings suggest that academic buoyancy and social support are essential in maintaining emotional and cognitive engagement with school and promoting student well-being. These findings have implications for educational practitioners in supporting primary school students' well-being and academic success and creating a positive learning environment. The study also highlights the importance of investing in children's school enjoyment and motivation from an early age to promote a positive educational climate.

Rahmani et al. (2020) study aimed to explore the relationship between students' perception of the learning environment and their academic buoyancy and performance at Semnan University of Medical Sciences in Iran. The results showed that the overall score of students' perception of the learning environment could explain 16.1% of the variance in their academic buoyancy and 13.3% in their academic performance. The subscale measuring students' perceptions of the educational climate had a significant impact on academic buoyancy. In contrast, the subscales assessing students' perceptions of learning and the social conditions of education were significant predictors of academic performance. These findings suggest that assessing and improving students' perception of the learning environment is crucial to enhancing their

academic buoyancy and performance. To improve academic buoyancy and performance, students' perceptions of the learning environment should be given a positive role.

Academic buoyancy was explored as a mediator in transformational teaching by Javadi et al. (2020). This study examined the link between academic engagement, perceived social support, academic help-seeking, and transformative instruction using structural equation modelling, with academic buoyancy acting as a mediating component. The findings demonstrated that academic engagement was directly impacted by asking for academic aid, implementing transformative teaching, and feeling supported by others both directly and indirectly through academic buoyancy. Furthermore, it was shown that academic buoyancy had a beneficial effect on academic engagement. The findings imply that students may overcome educational obstacles and raise their academic buoyancy, hence boosting their academic engagement, by strengthening help-seeking, social support, and transformative instruction. All things considered; these factors might account for around 31% of the variation in academic engagement.

Singh & Kumar (2020) summarised the sample size, sample population, and nations where buoyancy study was conducted in their review article. In the end, a number of research gaps are mentioned. A thorough investigation of buoyancy in late adolescence in developing nations is necessary. Male and female students in primary and secondary schools make up the sample group in the majority of the previous research. Few studies take into account college.

Skinner et al. (2020) identified the domains in which integrated development plays a role. They carefully summarised nine critical areas for pupils at the ground level, then highlighted developmental work focusing on social contextual elements that aid in building resilience. Multiple regions were discovered that can help to improve teaching-learning and educational procedures. Academic resilience, tenacity, engagement and re-engagement, adaptive help-seeking, emotion management, self-regulated learning, buoyancy, perseverance, mastery vs. helplessness, academic coping, and productive persistence were all part of a "field building" effort. Students and adults.

Kumar & Sharma (2020) focused on adapting the Academic Buoyancy scale to the Indian setting and examining the psychometric analysis regarding reliability and factor structure. A sample of 400 senior secondary school students from several Punjab, India districts was taken. EFA and CFA were used to validate how well the number of factors associated with the construct, and Cronbach's alpha was used to examine the scale's internal consistency. The result demonstrates that the proposed uni-dimensional model provides an excellent fit. School-related stress and its association with temperament and Academic Buoyancy were examined by Hirvonen et al. (2019). It was discovered that interventions to boost students' academic buoyancy reduced their feelings of academic stress.

Rohinsa et al. (2019) investigated the role of personality traits in predicting senior students' academic buoyancy. The results showed a strong, moderate relationship between the criterion and the explanatory variable. Academic buoyancy is favorably and significantly associated with agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness. Academic buoyancy had no significant association with neuroticism or openness.

In their study, Kabini et al. (2019) found that teaching self-regulated learning techniques boosted educational buoyancy and postponing integrity among learners. Self-learning learning strategies were found to be effective in reducing procrastinating students.

According to Vinter (2019), there were three levels of academic burnout and related coping methods, with buoyancy being the most significant protective factor against burnout. A consistent burnout prevention plan was essential to prevent burnout in schools.

Singh & Kumar (2019) analyzed the literature on Academic Buoyancy. He concluded that buoyancy was coping with daily academic problems such as challenging coursework, exam pressure, and poor grades. Academic buoyancy has an impact on a variety of factors that are critical to academic success. Few studies have focused on the development of Academic Buoyancy among students. A correlation study by Colmar et al. (2019) explored academic performance, self-concept, and Academic Buoyancy. It was discovered that buoyancy predicts self-perception, which predicts execution. Academic buoyancy and its positive predictive value for educational

functioning were the subjects of Datu & Yang (2019). The relationship between Academic Buoyancy and academic motivational features and achievement was investigated, and the results showed that innate motivation is a likely structure that links academic achievement with Academic Buoyancy.

Cahyadi (2019) investigated the role of Academic Buoyancy in predicting senior students' involvement and discovered that it could mediate the impact of teachers' mechanisms. The findings demonstrated that a good teacher structure can assist learners in meeting their capacity to confront frequent academic obstacles in school. It could also aid in shaping students' involvement with academics at school and helping pupils in increasing their Academic Buoyancy.

Sadat & Setayeshiazhari (2019) found that academic buoyancy and humor mediate the variables of academic engagement and academic emotions. The association was significant in all variables except behavior and humor and engagement and humor in a sample of 332 postgraduate students. It was found that learning components are crucial, and educational qualities for postgraduate students should be reinforced.

According to Soesanto (2019), listening to music could increase students' academic buoyancy because it helps to alleviate anxiety. The author suggested lyrical analysis as a way to boost Academic Buoyancy.

Rezvani et al. (2019) observed no significant differences in Academic Buoyancy between men and women. Still, they did find a positive and significant relationship between the aspects of communication and trouble-free communication and Academic Buoyancy.

Aydin & Michou (2019) investigated the students' EPP end-of-course evaluations (English Preparatory Programs). Extreme contentment and minimal need dissatisfaction boosted the kids' buoyancy and achievement.

In order to determine if Academic Buoyancy may predict traits like task-oriented planning, disappointment expectations, and preventive behaviour in educational contexts, Hirvonen et al. (2019) conducted research. Higher Academic Buoyancy was found to be associated with less evasive behaviour and a decreased risk of failure. They

exhibited significant task-oriented planning at the same time, mediated by academic emotions. Joy and optimism were associated with academic buoyancy.

Sadoughi & Hesampour (2019) studied whether pleasure is a mediator between academic self-efficacy and hope on the one hand and Academic Buoyancy on the other. Academic buoyancy could be predicted by happiness and hope. It was also suggested that hope and academic self-efficacy contribute to joy, students' academic buoyancy, and their ability to demonstrate solutions to issues and hurdles in educational environments.

Mawarni et al. (2019) studied the Academic Buoyancy of high school science students. In this study, a gender comparison was made, and it was discovered that science students have higher Academic Buoyancy than other students. Male students were in the same boat. Students between the ages of 15 and 18 were shown to have higher academic buoyancy.

Hirvonen et al. (2019) investigated temperament, academic buoyancy, and stress associated to school. Numerous students participated in the study. A total of 845 students participated in the study. When test results were analysed at the conclusion of the academic year, they demonstrated that low levels of stress during school-related activities were associated with outstanding academic buoyancy, effortful control, and negative affectivity scores at the start of the year. According to the research findings, academic stress can be decreased via engaging in activities that increase academic buoyancy.

Verrier et al. (2018) developed a Teachers' Academic Buoyancy Scale and studied the impact of the scale on students and school personnel using a sample of 100 students and 50 teachers. Few acute challenges (severe sickness, attendance issues, behavioral difficulties, or special educational needs) were identified. In summary, this study developed a teacher-report measure of academic buoyancy (TABS) as a straightforwardly reworded version of the existing academic buoyancy scale (ABS). Although the TABS exhibited a clear factor structure and excellent reliability, its validity was suboptimal. The scale showed no correlation with the ABS, weak correlations with measures of motivation and engagement compared to the ABS, and unexpectedly strong correlations with academic performance. These findings suggest

that teacher estimates of students' internal psychological states may be moderate and that buoyancy-indicating behaviors may not be apparent to teachers. The authors suggested that further research was needed to develop a valid and reliable teacher-report measure of academic buoyancy.

Rachmayanti & Susharso (2018) wanted to see if there was a link between academic buoyancy and job adaptability. Students in Indonesian educational environments must prepare themselves for future changes and challenges as they attend high school and eventually graduate. The results demonstrated a positive connection ($r = 0.535$) with a 0.01 significance level, indicating that strong Academic Buoyancy could lead to greater career adaptability. There was no substantial difference in degrees of occupational flexibility between men and women.

Holliman et al. (2018) discovered answers to questions on the relationship between student adaptability, motivation, academic outcome, and Academic Buoyancy. It was determined that learners needed to contribute independently to perceive course pleasure and academic accomplishment.

Hiver & Al-hoodie (2018) highlighted the importance of buoyancy for teaching second language (L2) education in their study of learners' everyday resilience for language students. According to the data, students' academic achievement and grade point all significantly predicted buoyancy. Persistence and buoyancy were discovered to have certain similarities.

Fooladi et al. (2018) investigated Academic Buoyancy Training and its impact on self-efficacy and academic success. Self-efficacy and academic success differed significantly between the control and experimental groups—academic buoyancy training increased academic success and self-efficacy.

According to Shafi et al. (2018), emotional reactions to academic difficulty could lead to productive activity but also disengagement. Feedback that helps students develop academic buoyancy and self-regulation is essential to effective teaching practice. Academic buoyancy is the ability to cope with academic challenges effectively, and self-regulation refers to controlling and directing one's learning and behavior. The feedback that supported the development of these skills could enable

students to constructively deal with lower than expected grades by encouraging and nurturing positive strategies and behaviors. Research has shown that timely, specific feedback focused on the learning process rather than just the outcome could be particularly effective in supporting the development of academic buoyancy and self-regulation. The study discovered five Academic Buoyancy indicators: (1) internal locus of control and demonstration, (2) looking forward, (3) looking to improve, (4) understanding the grade (5) being action-oriented. This study found that students used and consulted feedback more than expected, suggesting that the feedback process could be an opportunity to scaffold their development.

As a result of these findings, the researchers implemented several changes to their teaching practice. First, they taught the concept of academic buoyancy and the indicators of buoyant behavior in a first-year skills module. Second, they revised their course template for assessment feedback to include more specific grade descriptors, positive comments about what was done well, explicit recommendations for improvement, the grade, and a section for students to devise their action points. Third, they asked students to share and discuss their self-devised action points in personal tutor meetings. These adjustments were made in an effort to raise student achievement and encourage the growth of academic buoyancy.

Bahrani (2017) investigated students' cognitive emotion management and academic buoyancy, finding that self-handicapping operated as a mediator. It was established that learners' emotional tension when dealing with distressing situations impacted their self-handicapping and, consequently, their Academic Buoyancy.

According to Shaikholsami and Taheri (2017), Academic Buoyancy was favorably predicted by a causal explanation based on parent and peer bonding. Cognitive emotion management was discovered to be a strong predictor of Academic Buoyancy. The impacts of parental connection on academic buoyancy via cognitive emotion regulation adjustment and non-adjustment techniques. The effect of peer affiliation on academic buoyancy via non-adjustment cognitive emotion control methods.

Damirchi et al. (2017) investigated the role of understanding the learning situation and psychological factors in predicting academic buoyancy. Academic

buoyancy was associated with favorable perceptions of the learning environment and psychological hardiness. Important

Dahal et al. (2017) researched international students in an Australian university and discovered that deep-rooted ethnic ties and robust belief systems had a beneficial impact on academic buoyancy.

Academic buoyancy, academic adversity, and academic support were examined by Collie et al. (2017) about academic outcomes. Based on the children's accounts of support, adversity, and buoyancy, the researchers in this study employed cluster analysis to create three student groups: the thriver, the supported struggler, and the at-risk struggler. When analyzing the motivation outcomes across these groups, the researchers found significant differences in adaptive motivation outcomes between the clusters, but no notable differences in maladaptive or inhibiting outcomes. Furthermore, interaction analyses revealed only minimal moderation by language background in the relationships between the clusters and motivation outcomes. These findings indicated that students could be categorized into distinct profiles based on their experiences of support, adversity, and buoyancy, with these profiles being linked to variations in adaptive motivational outcomes. The results of this study suggest that a combination of high levels of support at home, in the community, and academic buoyancy is associated with the most adaptive student outcomes. It was also positive to see that students who experienced adversity also had access to appropriate levels of academic support. Identifying student profiles could help teachers better understand and meet the needs of diverse students in their classrooms. The study's conclusions were pertinent to our knowledge of how risk and protective variables contribute to resilience in children from underprivileged backgrounds.

Rahmi & Zarei (2016) examined the role that perfectionism and self-efficacy have in the connection between academic buoyancy and attachment (avoidance and anxiety). Academic buoyancy and attachment traits have a positive and negative correlation, respectively.

Putwain et al. (2017). Here, the topic of investigation was “the enabling and protective role of academic buoyancy in the appraisal of fear appeals used before high-stakes examinations.”

This study examined the relationship between test anxiety and academic buoyancy and the impact of these factors on examination performance. The sample consisted of 705 students in their final year of secondary education. The results showed that worry, not tension, had reciprocal relations with academic buoyancy. Worry was negatively related to the mean GCSE score, while academic buoyancy was positively related to the mean GCSE score. Tension did not predict the mean GCSE score. According to these results, academic buoyancy might help students perform better on exams by affecting their self-regulatory mechanisms and shielding them from the perception that exams are dangerous. An academically buoyant negative feedback loop was demonstrated by worry, but not by stress.

Martin et al. (2016) conducted a comparative study of Academic Buoyancy (a response to challenge) and Adaptability (a response to change) among Chinese, North American, and UK students. Academic buoyancy and adaptability were found to be higher in Chinese pupils than the national average, and they were discovered to have a strong relationship. Chinese students showed significantly higher levels of motivation and engagement than students from the United States and the United Kingdom.

Research on the efficacy of cooperative learning in a classroom context was done by Salimi et al. (2016). They discovered that this approach greatly increased the academic buoyancy of the pupils. One of the most important components of academic achievement is academic buoyancy, or the capacity of a student to recover from academic failures. It has been demonstrated that cooperative learning, in which students collaborate in small groups to accomplish a common objective, fosters this resilience. This method encourages peer interaction, shared responsibility, and mutual support, creating a positive learning environment that nurtures academic buoyancy. The study's findings highlight the potential of cooperative learning as a valuable pedagogical tool to enhance students' ability to overcome academic challenges and thrive in their educational journey.

Bakhshae et al. (2016) investigated the link between student perceptions of school atmosphere and academic buoyancy through Positive Youth Development (PYD). The variables were analyzed using casual modeling, and structural equations were supposed to be descriptive and correlative. It was discovered that teenagers'

perceptions of school climate directly impacted their PYD. Students' adaptable cognitive and behavioral models were linked to a supportive and caring environment centered on individual effort.

Victoriano (2016) examined how well the Academic Buoyancy model was applied to sports buoyancy. The relationship between athletic and academic buoyancy was investigated, and the efficacy of 5C's on both buoyancies was discovered. The research was the first step in creating a full multidimensional buoyancy model.

Datu & Yang (2016) researched Filipino students, discovering gender differences and validating the Academic Buoyancy Scale. There was a considerable difference in Academic Buoyancy between male and female students, with male students scoring higher than females.

Farhadi (2016) emphasized the importance of cognitive engagement in predicting academic vitality in pupils. Modules to enrich learner behavior and academic engagement could be improved, boosting the vitality of students' studies and their Academic Buoyancy.

This study by Putwain et al. (2015) aimed to investigate the relationship between test anxiety and academic buoyancy and the impact of these factors on academic outcomes. The sample consisted of 705 secondary school students, and the results showed that higher academic buoyancy was associated with lower levels of test anxiety and better performance on exams. These findings suggested that academic buoyancy could serve as a strong protective factor against examination phobia and help students perform better on tests.

Collie et al. (2015) investigated the relationship between control, achievement, and high school students' Academic Buoyancy. Academic buoyancy and achievement were found to be linked. It was stated that the role of control was critical since it connects previous experiences of both variables to subsequent ones.

Martin's (2014) research looked into how to assist pupils in dealing with adversity and inconsistency. Situations where things don't go well academically and how to deal with them were also explored. Aside from adversity, kids must negotiate school life well in times of change, uncertainty, transition, and novelty. According to

the authors, adaptability was necessary for dealing with uncertainty and change. Students should know how to deal with academic hardship and practical techniques to increase their' Academic Buoyancy and adaptability.

Reisy et al. (2014) investigated the role of Academic Buoyancy in mediating the relationship between self-efficacy, family communication patterns, and Academic Buoyancy. The results demonstrated that Self-efficacy worked as a complete mediator between conformity (a component of family communication pattern) and Academic Buoyancy.

Martin's (2013) study was the first to investigate the relationship between several forms of bad outcomes and the degree to which academic resilience and academic buoyancy reflect distinct (although associated) elements. 918 Australian high school students from nine different schools made up the sample. The findings indicated that academic resilience and buoyancy were independent variables that shared around 35% of their variation. Additionally, academic buoyancy was more strongly related to low-level adverse outcomes such as anxiety and uncertainty management. In contrast, academic resilience was more strongly associated with significant adverse outcomes such as self-handicapping and disengagement. These findings suggested that academic buoyancy and resilience could have different roles in coping with adverse academic outcomes.

Carrington (2013) investigated the psycho-educational elements in Second Life that influence Academic Buoyancy in 3D virtual learning environments. Self-efficacy and Academic Buoyancy were found to have a favorable association. Furthermore, achievement, goal orientation, and engagement were not predictors of Academic Buoyancy in the 3D VLE.

This study by Lars-Erik Malmberg (2013) aimed to contextualize previous research on academic buoyancy by examining the consistency of students' self-reported buoyancy across different subjects and the relation of buoyancy to psychological appraisal. The sample comprised 260 English secondary school students aged 11-16 who completed self-report questionnaires. The results showed that students held relatively consistent views about their ability to bounce back from academic setbacks, such as negative feedback or poor results, compared to their less consistent views about

the difficulty of different subjects and their competencies and effort. These findings suggested that academic buoyancy could be a relatively stable trait and highlighted the need for further research to confirm these results and explore the implications for interventions.

Martin et al. (2013) discovered that Aboriginal pupils had significantly lower educational goals than non-aboriginal students. High school students' Aboriginal status significantly moderated the effect of Academic Buoyancy on educational ambitions.

Miller et al. (2013) examined the link between student happiness and academic accomplishment. They discovered that an underlying happiness element was linked to achievement and influenced Academic Buoyancy.

Miller et al. (2013) investigated whether gender and deprivation had an impact on the connection between academic success and student well-being among students aged 7 to 11. 1,081 Northern Ireland students made up the sample, and they took part in a cross-sectional survey to gather information on their academic performance and other well-being metrics.

The findings showed that there was a positive correlation between underlying well-being and educational achievement, and that neither gender nor deprivation had any moderating effects on this association. These results showed that interventions centred on well-being, rather than gender or explicit targeting of kids from economically disadvantaged regions, may be used to increase academic success.

This study by Putwain et al. (2013) aimed to explore whether students could be classified based on their levels of “test anxiety and academic buoyancy: and how these factors related to their performance on tests. The sample consisted of 469 students divided into five groups based on their levels of “test anxiety and academic buoyancy”. The results showed that students with low levels of “test anxiety and high levels of academic buoyancy” or moderate levels of test anxiety and high levels of academic buoyancy had better test scores. In comparison, those with high levels of “test anxiety and low levels of academic buoyancy” had poorer scores. These findings suggested that “academic buoyancy” could significantly reduce test anxiety and improve performance.

The longitudinal study on personal best goals and Academic and Social Functioning was conducted by Liem et al. (2012). Deep learning, academic flow, Academic Buoyancy, positive teacher relationships, and favorable views toward peer cooperation were all found to be significantly predicted by students' personal best objectives.

In this study, Bowen (2010) aimed to investigate the validity and internal consistency of the Academic Buoyancy scale developed by Martin, Marsh, and colleagues in 2007 and examine related dimensions such as engagement, self-efficacy, parental attachment, anxiety, and control. The sample consisted of undergraduate students. The study used various methods to examine the psychometric properties of the measures, including descriptive statistics, Cronbach's Alpha, convergent validity, and structural equation modeling (SEM). The results showed that the measures had good internal consistency and convergent validity, and the hypothesized model was supported in predicting students' Academic Buoyancy. The findings suggested that the Academic Buoyancy Scale is a reliable and valid measure of everyday academic resilience.

In this study, Martin et al. (2010) aimed to investigate the role of motivation in predicting academic buoyancy in high school students. The researchers used a sample of 1,866 students from six high schools and measured academic buoyancy at two-time points, controlling for prior variance in academic buoyancy. The study found that the "5Cs" (competence, confidence, challenge, control, and commitment) significantly influenced subsequent academic buoyancy. The 5Cs mediated the relationship between prior academic buoyancy and later academic buoyancy. These findings suggested that students' ability to function effectively in a challenging school environment is essential for maintaining academic buoyancy.

In a study conducted by Green et al. (2007), the Buoyancy Scale, the Motivation and Engagement Scale, and related measures were administered to 3,450 high school students and 637 school personnel. Results showed that males were more buoyant in both groups, with higher buoyancy found in younger students in the student sample and older individuals in the working group. Additionally, there was unity in the main aspects between buoyancy and hypothesized correlates across both samples.

Martin et al. (2010) conducted a cross-sectional study that found five motivational drivers for Academic Buoyancy. Confidence (self-efficacy), coordination (planning), commitment (persistency), calm (low anxiety), and control are the five predictors of Academic Buoyancy (low uncertain control). The 5Cs were discovered to be strong indicators of academic buoyancy in the future. When looking at the direct effect of previous Academic Buoyancy on subsequent Academic Buoyancy, they were found to be significant mediators.

In their study, Martin & Marsh (2009) examined the constructs of academic resilience and buoyancy to understand better a student's ability to cope with the challenges and demands of the academic system. They argued that academic resilience alone is insufficient to explain this capacity and proposed the concept of academic buoyancy as a measure of a student's emotional stability in dealing with daily challenges. The authors provided a conceptual and empirical framework for researching academic buoyancy and resilience. They suggested that a multidimensional approach is necessary to understand these concepts and develop practical measurement tools fully.

In their study, Martin & Marsh (2008) investigated the concept of academic buoyancy among a sample of 598 students at five Australian high schools. Using multilevel modeling, they found that most of the variance in academic buoyancy was explained at the individual student level. Their substantive correlational analysis and structural equation modeling revealed that anxiety, self-efficacy, and academic engagement significantly predicted academic buoyancy at both time one and time 2. Anxiety was found to explain the variance in academic buoyancy of these predictors the most.

Nurafifah et al. (2010) of the University of Indonesia also found that academic buoyancy was related to anxiety, specifically among students who are anxious about national exams. In their study of 200 grade XII students from five schools in Bandung, the authors found that academic buoyancy is also influenced by differences in identity and self-efficacy.

Martin & Marsh (2008) conducted a study to examine the concept of academic buoyancy, which refers to a student's ability to bounce back from setbacks in an

academic setting, such as receiving poor grades, struggling to meet deadlines, and feeling pressure from tests and coursework. The study included 598 students aged 8 to 10 years in Australian schools. The results showed that academic buoyancy was positively correlated with self-efficacy, academic work, and teacher-student relationships and negatively correlated with anxiety. The study suggested that academic buoyancy was an essential factor in students' academic success and well-being.

2.4.1 Summary and Conclusion

Several studies have shown that academic buoyancy is related to various factors, such as a sense of belonging, teacher support, and self-regulation skills, and can positively impact academic success. Bostwick et al. (2022) found that academic buoyancy is related to student's motivation, engagement, and perceptions of support, while Granziera et al. (2022) found that it is correlated with effort and persistence, perceived importance of school and feelings of school belonging. Mawarni et al. (2022) identified a group guidance process that can improve academic buoyancy, and Sheivandi et al. (2021) and Ahmadi et al. (2021) found that decision-making and problem-solving training and motivational self-monitoring skills can impact academic buoyancy. Khoshab et al. (2021) discovered that self-regulation learning techniques effectively improve academic buoyancy, particularly among female students. Aydin (2021) found that need satisfaction and frustration can impact academic buoyancy and achievement and that academic buoyancy mediates the relationship between need satisfaction and final academic achievement. These findings highlight the importance of interventions and strategies that can enhance academic buoyancy in students. Rohinsa et al. (2019) found that agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness are significantly associated with academic buoyancy.

Kabini et al. (2019) found that self-regulated learning strategies can improve academic buoyancy and reduce procrastination. Vinter (2019) noted that buoyancy is a protective factor against burnout and that a prevention plan is necessary to prevent burnout in schools. Singh & Kumar (2019) found that academic buoyancy is related to academic success and that few studies have focused on its development. Colmar et al. (2019) discovered that buoyancy predicts self-perception, which predicts performance. Datu & Yang (2019) found that innate motivation is a likely structure that

links academic achievement with buoyancy. Cahyadi (2019) found that a good teacher structure can assist students in increasing their academic buoyancy. Sadat and Setayeshiazhari (2019) found that humor and academic buoyancy mediate academic engagement and emotions. Soesanto (2019) found that listening to music can increase students' academic buoyancy. Rezvani et al. (2019) found a significant positive relationship between communication and academic buoyancy. Aydin & Michou (2019) found that high-need satisfaction and low-need frustration can improve academic buoyancy and achievement. Hirvonen et al. (2019) found that academic buoyancy is linked to feelings of delight and optimism and is associated with lower evasive behavior and higher task-oriented planning. Sadoughi & Hesampour (2019) found that pleasure is a mediator between academic self-efficacy and hope on the one hand and academic buoyancy on the other. These findings suggest that interventions and strategies that enhance academic buoyancy can improve academic performance and related outcomes.

Literature from 2017 to 2012 has shown that academic buoyancy is related to various factors such as cognitive emotion management, parental and peer bonding, learning environment perceptions, cultural ties and belief systems, academic adversity and support, and learning strategies. Bahrami (2017) found that self-handicapping mediates the relationship between emotional tension and academic buoyancy. Shaikhholeslami & Taheri (2017) found that cognitive emotion management strongly predicts academic buoyancy and that parental and peer bonding impacts academic buoyancy through cognitive emotion regulation. Damirchi et al. (2017) found that academic buoyancy is associated with favorable perceptions of the learning environment and psychological hardiness. Dahal et al. (2017) discovered that strong ethnic ties and belief systems positively impact academic buoyancy in international students in Australia. Hausenblas et al. (2017) found that academic buoyancy mediates the relationship between physical activity and academic achievement and that there is a positive relationship between leisure-time physical activity and academic buoyancy. These findings highlight the importance of interventions and strategies that can enhance academic buoyancy in students and suggest that academic buoyancy can mediate the relationship between various factors and academic outcomes. Carrington (2013) found that self-efficacy and academic buoyancy have a positive relationship in 3D virtual learning environments. Lars-Erik Malmberg (2013) found that students held relatively

consistent views about their ability to bounce back from academic setbacks, compared to their less consistent views about the difficulty of different subjects and their competencies and effort.

Martin et al. (2013) discovered that Aboriginal pupils had significantly lower educational goals than non-Aboriginal students and that high school students' Aboriginal status moderated the effect of academic buoyancy on educational ambitions. Miller et al. (2013) found an underlying well-being factor positively related to academic achievement and that this relationship was not moderated by gender or deprivation. Putwain et al. (2013) found that students with low levels of test anxiety and high levels of academic buoyancy or moderate levels of test anxiety and high levels of academic buoyancy had better test scores, while those with high levels of test anxiety and low levels of academic buoyancy had poorer scores. Liem et al. (2012) found that students' personal best objectives significantly predicted deep learning, academic flow, buoyancy, positive teacher relationships, and favorable views toward peer cooperation. Bowen (2010) found that the Academic Buoyancy scale had good validity and internal consistency and was related to other dimensions such as engagement, self-efficacy, parental attachment, anxiety, and control.

In conclusion, a review of the literature on academic buoyancy suggests that it is an essential factor in students' academic success and well-being (e.g., emotional intelligence, academic adversity, school involvement, personality traits, self-regulated learning techniques, academic burnout, self-concept, teacher support, music, communication skills, need satisfaction, emotions, cognitive emotion management, parental and peer support, perceptions of the learning environment, psychological hardiness, cultural ties and belief systems, learning strategies). Interventions focusing on these factors may effectively improve academic buoyancy and promote academic success and well-being. Additionally, academic buoyancy has positively impacted academic outcomes, motivation, anxiety, engagement, emotions, and self-regulation. However, there are limitations in some of the studies, such as the use of only one instrument or testing the interventions in a single school, which suggest the need for further research to replicate and expand upon these findings. It is also important to note

that academic buoyancy and resilience are distinct but related concepts with different roles in coping with adverse academic outcomes.

These findings highlight the importance of interventions and strategies that can enhance academic buoyancy in students and suggest that academic buoyancy is related to various factors that can impact academic outcomes.

2.5 Academic Stress

Pérez-Jorge et al. (2025) investigated academic stress among 256 university students in Spain during the COVID-19 pandemic using a mixed-methods approach. Quantitative data identified key stressors, including workload, high-stakes assessments, and balancing academic and personal responsibilities. Qualitative findings highlighted coping strategies such as time management, planning, and emotional support from peers and family. The authors recommend institutional reforms, including workload adjustments and expanded support systems—interventions equally applicable to Kerala’s board examination framework, where students face similar structural stressors.

Gasser et al. (2025) conducted a comparative mixed-methods study at a Latin American university to track academic stress levels during and after the pandemic. Across both phases, stress remained consistently high, with key predictors shifting from exam pressure to self-imposed expectations, group work difficulties, and time management challenges. These results suggest that structural academic demands, rather than situational crises, are the primary drivers of sustained stress. For Kerala’s secondary schools, where similar long-term pressures persist, interventions should target both external demands and internalized performance pressures.

Zhao et al. (2025) applied Self-Determination Theory to examine the link between academic stress and physical exercise behavior among 290 Chinese middle school students. Structural equation modeling revealed that academic stress indirectly influenced exercise behavior through exercise intention, with motivation serving as an intermediary factor. This suggests that stress not only affects academic functioning but can also undermine healthy lifestyle habits—an important consideration for Kerala’s students, who often sacrifice physical activity for academic preparation.

Hendra et al. (2025) studied the combined effects of perfectionism, self-efficacy, academic stress, and workload on academic fatigue and achievement among 218 Indonesian university students. Results showed that while self-efficacy and perfectionism contributed to higher academic achievement, they also increased academic fatigue, particularly under high workload conditions. The authors argue for resilience-building interventions that balance motivation with sustainable workload management. These findings are particularly relevant for Kerala's students, who often operate under perfectionistic standards from both parents and teachers.

Wang & Chen (2025) conducted a systematic review of factors influencing student academic performance, synthesizing research across individual, family, school, and social domains. They concluded that self-efficacy, parental involvement, teacher quality, peer relationships, and socioeconomic status all interact to shape academic outcomes. The review emphasizes that effective interventions must be holistic, integrating academic skill development with psychosocial support. In Kerala's context, such a multi-layered approach could simultaneously reduce stress and improve performance.

Labrague et al. (2024) explored the mediating roles of life satisfaction and stress in the relationship between academic pressure and dropout intentions among 977 prelicensure nursing students in the Philippines. Results showed that higher academic pressure was positively correlated with stress and dropout intention, and negatively correlated with life satisfaction. Serial mediation analysis revealed that academic pressure indirectly increased dropout intentions by first lowering life satisfaction, which in turn heightened stress. Although the research was conducted in a higher education context, the cascading pathway from academic pressure to disengagement mirrors patterns in secondary school settings in Kerala, where sustained academic demands can erode well-being and increase withdrawal risk.

Rauf et al. (2024) investigated Quality of Life (QoL) trends across all five years of MBBS education among 283 medical students in Pakistan. Using the WHOQOL-BREF, they found that first-year students reported the lowest satisfaction with health, sleep, and physical fitness, while academic stress peaked in the second and fourth years. By the final year, students reported higher self-satisfaction, greater energy, and fewer

negative emotions. The authors conclude that early-stage cohorts are particularly vulnerable to stress, suggesting the value of targeted interventions during transitional phases. In Kerala, similar vulnerabilities may occur during shifts between Grade 10 and higher secondary, indicating a need for structured orientation and mentoring programs.

Chen & Wong (2024) conducted a comparative study involving 1,456 adolescents from India, China, and Singapore to examine academic stress and coping mechanisms. Findings indicated that Indian students experienced the highest stress levels, largely due to societal expectations, and relied heavily on self-efficacy and social support as coping resources. The authors emphasize that in highly competitive educational systems such as Kerala's, targeted strategies to build self-efficacy and enhance peer and family support could play a critical role in stress mitigation.

Kumar & Singh (2023) examined the effectiveness of mindfulness-based interventions in reducing academic stress and improving mental health outcomes among 412 Indian adolescents. Using a structured mindfulness training program, the study found significant reductions in perceived stress levels, with particularly strong benefits for female students. Improvements were also observed in overall mental health indicators, including emotional stability and resilience. The authors argue that mindfulness-based programs could be meaningfully integrated into Kerala's school curricula to help students manage exam-related pressures and cultivate healthier coping strategies.

Basri et al. (2022) investigated to gather information from 350 students studying undergraduate and graduate business/management degrees in Karnataka, India. A cross-sectional analytical study was adopted for this. In the current study, stress had a non-significantly negative overall influence on PL, while PIU, burnout, and resilience had substantial beneficial direct effects but significant adverse indirect effects. Burnout had a complete competitive mediation in the link between stress and PL, and its suppressive effect combined with resilience eliminates the positive effects of stress on PL, leading to a reduction in PL.

Academic procrastination was taken into consideration as a mediator in the study conducted by García-Ros et al. (2022) on the link between academic accomplishment, academic stress, subjective well-being, and self-regulated learning in

Spanish secondary school students. In a sizable city in Eastern Spain, 728 secondary school pupils, both compulsory and post-compulsory, were included in the sample. The results of the data analysis demonstrated that procrastination acted as a mediator between the links between self-regulated learning and the educational outcomes under examination, and that the suggested model suited the data well. 14% of academic success, 23.1% of subjective well-being, and 9.8% of academic stress variation were all explained by the model.

In their current research, Niazov et al. (2022) examined college students with and without Learning Disabilities (LD) regarding academic and online procrastination, academic stress, and academic self-efficacy. Additionally, the connection between these variables was looked at. It was seen that Students with and without learning disabilities had significantly different levels of every variable, according to the findings, except online procrastination. Further investigation revealed that academic stress and self-efficacy mediated the relationship between LD and academic and online procrastination. These results provided credence to the idea that students with learning disabilities (LD) had more challenges in higher education than those without LD, which can occasionally result in higher levels of procrastination.

The present study by Sriati et al. (2022) aimed to investigate the relationship between “academic stress and internet addiction in adolescents”. Using probability sampling combined with proportional stratified random sampling, cross-sectional research including 378 students from five public high schools in Garut, West Java, Indonesia, was carried out.

“The Internet Addiction Test (IAT) and the Educational Stress Scale for Adolescents (ESSA)” were used to measure internet addiction and academic stress, respectively. The data were analyzed using the Spearman rank correlation test. The results showed that most adolescents spent less than 6 hours on the Internet on weekdays and more than 6 hours on weekends. The majority of adolescents had normal or mild levels of internet dependence, while a significant number reported moderate or high levels of academic stress. The analysis revealed a significant association between academic stress and internet addiction in adolescents (p-value 0.01). Based on these

findings, it is recommended that schools and parents work together to educate teenagers about responsible internet use and address academic stress.

Hakim (2022), in this study, aimed to examine the relationship between academic stress and learning outcomes among students at the “University of Muhammadiyah Lamongan, Faculty of Economics and Business, Management Study Program”. A cross-sectional observational study was conducted with 173 students from the Management Study Program in the academic years 2019/2020 and 2020/2021. Data were collected using questionnaires and analyzed using the chi-square test. The results indicated that students in the Management Study Program experienced high levels of academic stress, mainly due to pressure from learning and unmet self-expectations. The learning outcomes of these students were found to be sufficient. Still, there was a significant positive relationship between academic stress and learning outcomes, such that higher levels of academic stress were associated with lower learning outcomes. Students perceived the independent learning curriculum as having a good impact on their self-development. Still, it was suggested that students, lecturers, and stakeholders work together to optimize the implementation of this curriculum in the future.

The purpose of this study undertaken by Nnaemeka et al. (2022) was to investigate the relationship between Internet addiction, academic procrastination, and academic stress among undergraduate students in the South East region of Nigeria. A correlational research design was used with a sample of 720 students obtained through multi-stage and purposive sampling techniques. The “Academic Procrastination Scale, Adolescents Educational Stress Scale, and Internet Addiction among Undergraduate Students Questionnaire” were used to collect data, and the data were analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation, multiple regression, and t-test of significance. The findings indicated that academic procrastination significantly predicted academic stress among undergraduate students, while Internet addiction did not considerably impact academic stress. The study's implications were discussed, including the need for educational psychologists to develop strategies to address academic procrastination and Internet addiction to reduce academic stress among undergraduate students.

Kumalasari & Akmal (2022) investigated the moderating role of “academic resilience on the relationship between academic stress and student satisfaction with online learning during the COVID-19 pandemic”. A convenience sample of 337 Indonesian undergraduate students completed an online questionnaire assessing academic stress, academic resilience, and satisfaction with online learning. Linear regression analysis demonstrated that academic stress had a significant negative impact on student satisfaction with online learning; however, this relationship was mitigated when students exhibited higher levels of academic resilience. These findings underscore the importance of fostering academic resilience in students to help them manage education-related stress and enhance their satisfaction with online learning.

Fu et al. (2022) concentrated on how adolescents perceived the detrimental effects of academic stress from their parents' high expectations for their academic performance. By studying the direct impact of teenagers' perceptions of academic stress on their depressed symptoms as well as the indirect impacts of both parent-child relationships and communication, the perception of academic stress in adolescents was positively correlated with their depressed symptoms. Parent-child interaction and parent-child communication both played a role in mediating this connection. Additionally, the association between the teenagers' reported academic stress and their depressive symptoms, as well as the indirect relationship via parent-child interaction, was considerably influenced by the adolescents' body weight status.

Yuda et al. (2022) investigated the connection between academic accomplishment, coping mechanisms, academic stress, and self-confidence. Educational achievement was correlated with three factors: academic stress, academic performance, and coping mechanisms. Therefore, self-confidence, academic stress, and coping mechanisms were crucial for achieving good academic accomplishment in physical education programs.

Li et al. (2022) investigated the relationship between academic stress and physical and psychological health among adolescents in mainland China, as well as the potential mediating factors that could influence this relationship, and it has been demonstrated that student health—both physical and psychological—was negatively impacted by academic stress. However, the precise mechanisms underpinning this link among teenagers in mainland China had hardly ever been studied. The findings showed

that high levels of anxiety, which influenced the relationship between academic stress and violence, were related to high levels of academic stress. Moreover, involvement in extracurricular activities reduced the mediating effect of worry. Teenagers who participated in more extracurricular activities exhibited a reduced correlation between academic stress and anxiety than those who participated less.

"Higher Academic Stress Was Associated with Increased Risk of Overweight and Obesity among College Students in China," according to research by Chen et al. (2020). 27,343 Chinese college students made up the sample population for the research. According to the report, the majority of pupils had stressful experiences and had a poor learning environment. Overweight and obesity may become more likely as a result of stress and negative educational experiences. They want to get training on stress management for college students, as it would enhance their well-being by lowering obesity and overweight rates.

Huang et al. (2020) looked at the relationship between stress, psychological health, and rudeness. It was intended to investigate the moderating function of thankfulness as well. A sample cohort of 30,000 students was used for the study, of which 2000 were graduates and 28,000 were undergraduates. The study's key conclusions were that the majority of college students had unfavourable learning experiences and high levels of academic stress. Anxiety related to school and bad educational experiences increased the chance of gaining weight and obesity. Because it would benefit their health by lowering overweight and obesity, training interventions were thus to be developed and implemented to help college students deal with the stress of their studies.

Abdollahi et al. (2020) investigated the long-term effects of academic stress, such as a sense of belonging to the institution. Their emotional well-being had been impacted by academic stress, and hardiness was found to have moderated this effect. Academic stress is highly predicted by two factors: academic toughness and a feeling of belonging at the institution. According to the study, students' experiences with academic stress may be lessened by cultivating a sense of belonging.

According to Eriksen et al.'s (2020) investigation, teenage pupils are experiencing mental health issues as a result of increased academic pressure in recent

years. This study, which examined the effects of parenting behaviours, values, and school stress on the academic success of middle-class parents in Norway, was the subject of this publication. It was discovered that their sense of self-worth was dependent on accomplishment and that parental pressure to achieve more was linked to mental health issues.

According to Omar et al. (2020), students suffer greatly from the pressure to do well and have a really bad time at university. Students feel a great deal of strain as a result. Many of them turn to drugs and suicide as a result of stress and strain from their studies, and many of them leave college early. A few of them experience anxiety and sadness. Exams, homework, parental and instructor expectations, and other things all contribute to academic stress. This essay draws from research conducted at “University Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)”. It was revealed that most students suffered “academic stress and were severely affected by test results and peer pressure”.

Priyanka et al. (2020) looked at teenage academic stress, which is a major global phenomenon and includes behavioural, psychological, and physical components. In CCS HAU, Hisar, postgraduate students participated in this study. With a sample of twenty female and twenty male postgraduate students, the study unequivocally demonstrated a substantial correlation between academic stress and depression. Comparing the results, it was found that the male students had greater depression while the female students experienced greater academic stress.

The COVID-19 epidemic forced Pajariantanto et al. (2020) at the Indonesian Ministry of Education to switch to a home study approach utilising digital technology platforms like Zoom, Google Classroom, and other online resources. This study examined the connection between academic stress and religion, as well as the relationships between parental, teacher, and school support and academic stress and academic participation. Academic stress and variables including parents and teachers, school support, and religiosity were shown to be positively and significantly correlated.

Cherry & Wilcox (2020) investigated how to help traumatised students feel less stressed about their academic performance by regulating their emotions and showing them compassion. "This study looked at whether mindfulness training may help college students who have experienced trauma better regulate their emotions and adopt a

nonjudgmental mindset, as well as whether it could lessen the stress associated with studying. It was shown that among students who had suffered shock, mindfulness-based training helped lessen academic stress by enhancing emotion regulation and a positive outlook.

De la Fuente et al. (2020) conducted a study on students' strategies for coping with academic stress and the role of self-regulation in managing emotional challenges. The study found that both self-regulation and regulatory teaching significantly influenced students' coping strategies. Additionally, self-regulation and external regulation played a key role in shaping these strategies, with the combination of both factors serving as a predictor of the coping strategies students employed in their daily lives.

This study was conducted by Pascoe et al. (2019) in order to determine the effects of academic stress, how it affects students' ability to learn and their performance on tests, and how it affects other issues including drug usage, depression, and anxiety. Students from secondary and postsecondary education systems made up the study's sample population. The study demonstrates how stress related to school has an impact on kids' life in a number of ways, including learning capacity, exam performance, education, and success in the workforce in the future. Physical and emotional well-being, as well as the amount and quality of sleep, have all improved. Improving pupils' ability to regulate their stress can help to change this.

Sharma (2014) studied the effects of peer group influence and academic stress on adolescent depression. When it came to depression, there was a substantial difference between young people with high and low academic stress, and the higher academic stress group favored it. No significant difference in depression levels was observed between students with high and low peer group influence. Similarly, no significant association or impact was found between peer group influence and academic stress that contributed to differences in students' depression scores. The results indicated that academic stress had a substantial effect on depression, whereas peer group influence had minimal impact on students' depression levels.

Ahmed et al. (2014) examined 407 students at the University of Kuwait and the association between dietary behaviors and academic stress. Forty-three percent of

university students reported moderate stress, with 44 percent of females and 40.9 percent of males reporting moderate stress. In addition, 28.4% of female and 22% of male students were in the severe stress category, respectively. Furthermore, academically stressed female students were more likely than non-stressed females to consume more snacks, high-cholesterol foods, and beverages. Male students, on the other hand, revealed that food consumption was not linked to academic stress.

Pozos et al. (2014) also looked at the link between academic stress and years of age and gender among 527 university students. Classroom participation, required work, and the end-of-semester exam were all linked to higher levels of chronic stress. The most common stress causes were being 18, 23, and 25 years old and being a female student. 35.3 percent of students said they had a high degree of chronic stress, 44.8 percent said they had a moderate level, and 19.9 percent said they had a low level. Further research concluded that precisely separating evidence of stressors could aid in understanding stress and its adverse effects on university students.

Tiwari & Balani (2013) investigated a stress reduction intervention program and found that school hours, workload, a lack of resources to carry out their task, and a low degree of reward were the most commonly mentioned stressors among students.

Abraham & Tyagi (2013) investigated the association between undergraduate students' academic stress and emotional intelligence. The information was gathered from 300 students enrolled in degree programs at M.D. University in the Faridabad region of Haryana. The findings demonstrated that (a) there is a strong association between academic stress and undergraduate students' emotional intelligence, and (b) emotional intelligence had no significant role in predicting undergraduate students' academic stress.

Khan and Kausar (2013) examined the influence of demographic factors, including gender, age, and educational level, on students' academic performance under stress. The study found that academic stress significantly affected students' performance; however, no statistically significant difference in perceived stress levels was observed between male and female university students on the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS). There was a considerable gap between junior and senior students on the PSS. Younger pupils were shown to have higher levels of academic stress than older

ones. When students' stress levels were evaluated at the beginning and end of the semester, there was no significant difference in PSS results.

The most significant stressors influencing university undergraduate students were identified by Khan & Yahya (2013). Family, emotional, financial, and social stress were the four variables examined in the study. The students experienced moderate social, academic, and physical stress. Living under rigid strategies and regulations might be stressful for a family. The inability to make the best judgments and find a primary match to live with as a partner can cause emotional discomfort. In addition, the number of years in school and the amount of money earned each month were positively associated with students' enjoyment. Less well-off undergraduate students found it challenging to spend money on buying and enjoying themselves, which is a sign of financial stress. Individuals had lived under social stress due to pressure and excessive deference.

Zai-ur-Rehman & Talib (2012) investigated students' perceived stress. It was found to have a detrimental solid relationship with their academic performance. Furthermore, there was a significant difference in the mean stress score between low and high-academic achievers and between low and high-stress-level groups. Most students (53 percent) stated that their course load is the source of their stress, which hurt their GPA.

Singh (2012) compared the emotional maturity of rural and urban senior secondary school pupils, defining stress as "a physical or psychological stimulus that can cause mental or physiological reactions that may lead to sickness." A healthy degree of stress could aid with cognitive tasks and performance. However, chronically excessive levels of stress could lead to anxiety and despair, which caused corticosteroid secretion to increase. The way people react to stress differs from person to person. In response to stress, some people had persistently high cortisol levels, whereas others had low or no cortisol levels. Cortisol responders with high and low cortisol levels could reflect two distinct groups with varying levels of emotional intelligence, stress, and personality features.

In a study of 27 male and 24 female postgraduate students, Das & Sahoo (2012) looked at the relationship between academic stress and depression and the impact of

gender differences. Male university students had higher levels of anxiety and despair than female university students. In both men and women, increased stress worsens depression. Stress and depression have a positive association, indicating that as stress levels rise, so does depression.

Bhavin & Anushree (2012) investigated the critical components of academic stress among master's degree students in business administration. Academic pressures included a lack of time for recreational activities and an instructional teaching technique that had a significant impact. In behavioral stresses, however, social impact significantly affects performance. Students were experiencing concerns such as headaches, moodiness, and restlessness as a result of their stress. Due to presentations, achieving educational objectives, and timely submission of projects, 65 percent of students did not have time for extracurricular activities. According to the study, academic stress was linked to study curriculum, directions, and teamwork-related concerns. Academic pressures, as well as psychological stressors, had the most significant impact on students' performance.

Busari (2012) emphasized the contrast between academic stress and stressor reaction based on data from 2,520 students at the University of Nigeria. Disappointments, disagreements, financial problems, and self-desire stressors were compared from the perspectives of female and male university students. However, no significant differences were found in their perspectives on academic changes and pressures related to stress. While female and male students differed significantly in their perceptions of psychological and subjective responses to stress, they did not differ significantly in their perceptions of behavioral and physiological responses to stressors.

Habibah et al. (2011) conducted a study at the University of Putra in Malaysia to assess students' stress and academic success in various fields. The stress levels of university students were examined, including their years of study at the university and their fields of study. Medical students reported significant stress levels, while the general population indicated moderate stress levels. In addition, compared to subsequent years, first-year university students showed a lower stress level. Academics were the true sources of stress for students. Aside from academic accomplishment, pupils' stress levels had a negative correlation.

In a study of 500 male adolescents aged 12 to 18 years in Amritsar, Chhabra & Sodhi (2011) observed that middle adolescents were more affected by psychological difficulties. There were significantly more school-related challenges, shattered families, domestic abuse, and a smaller number of close friends among these teenagers with psychological concerns. Also, according to the study, stress levels were higher in large extended families (those with more than eight people).

In a study conducted by Bhasin et al. (2010) on students in Delhi's ninth to twelfth grades, it was discovered that students taking board examinations, i.e., 10th and 12th grades, were more worried than students in nonboard classes, i.e., 9th and 11th grades.

The "perceived stress scale and the NEO five-factor assessment were used in a study by Ebstrup et al. (2011) to determine the link between different personality types and stress." Extraversion and stress were found to have a moderately significant negative link, but neuroticism and stress were found to be highly and significantly associated. Similarly, conscientiousness and stress had a moderate negative relationship.

At Islamia University, Qadir et al. (2011) investigated stress related to learning and university students' stress management tactics. They discovered the normal signs, reasons for stress, and stress management measures. Studying and assignments were serious sources of stress. Most students felt exhausted during stressful situations, and the study found that watching TV or movies, listening to music, or participating in other recreational activities helped reduce stress.

Deb & Walsh (2010) conducted a cross-sectional study on anxiety among high school students in Kolkata and found that adolescents in the medium socioeconomic group were more nervous than adolescents in the high and low socioeconomic categories, as well as teenage offspring of working mothers.

According to Mani (2010), exams are stressful since students must master significant amounts of knowledge quickly. However, students did not find tests stressful; rather, the possibility of having to sit for an examination caused tension.

Mani demonstrates that an examination's prospects of success might shape a student's academic and career future.

In a study, Vamadevappa (2009) found a positive and substantial association between parental participation and academic stress among higher secondary students. Higher academic stress is linked to good parental involvement. Girls, on the other hand, were less stressed than boys in the increased parental involvement group.

At the Malaysian University of Technology, Rafidah et al. (2009) investigated the relationship between perceived stress and stress factors such as academic, health, and social, as well as their impact on Pre-Diploma Science students' academic performance at three different times of the semester (beginning, end, and middle). Students had modest stress levels in general, and none of the stress factors substantially impacted their academic performance. In comparison to the conclusion of the semester, students at the beginning and middle of the semester had significantly higher stress levels. However, there was a strong link between perceived stress levels and academic performance at the end of the semester.

Dhuria et al. (2009) investigated the mental health of senior secondary school pupils in Delhi's classes XI and XII. They discovered that boys were more likely than girls to experience psychological problems.

Academic stress and adjustment among public and government high school students were studied by Akbar Hussain et al. (2008), who discovered that public school students were significantly more stressed than government school students, while government school students were significantly better adjusted.

According to Aruna (2008), X-class pupils' stress substantially impacted their study habits. However, there was no discernible difference in study habits or stress levels between boys and girls. The students' study habits were strongly linked to their academic stress and adjustment.

Moly Kuruvilla (2008) examined the influence of various psycho-sociological variables on academic stress, overall adjustment, and educational achievement among college students, finding a significant positive correlation between gender and academic stress, with boys experiencing higher stress levels than girls. Additionally, science

students reported higher levels of academic stress compared to arts and commerce students. The study also revealed that academic stress had a significant impact on students' academic performance.

The study "Academic Stress, Supportive Communication, and Health" was conducted by Macgeorge et al. in 2007. The purpose of the study was to find out how supportive communication from friends and family might lessen the link between students' health and academic stress. The findings suggested that stress and depression severity were positively correlated with increasing support. This study also revealed a negative relationship between depression in academic stress and emotional support. The study's conclusions considerably reduced the negative effects of stress on students' health. "Stress patterns, coping strategies, and social support among teenagers" were investigated by Latha et al. (2006). The study discovered that the biggest drivers of academic stress were getting up early in the morning to study, having a lot of homework to do, concentrating for extended amounts of time, and having long school hours.

The majority of teenagers in the stressed and unstressed groups were 14-16 years old, according to Sapru (2006). Academics were seen as a burden by stressed teens. For them, studying entailed achieving the highest possible grades and surviving in a competitive environment. Health issues were more likely in anxious people.

Lumley & Provenzano (2003) studied academic stress and discovered that it might have a variety of detrimental effects on students' well-being and academic performance. Academic stress interfered with kids' daily lives, cognitive performance, and adaptive behaviors such as school attendance.

In a study of students from the north Indian city of Chandigarh, Verma et al. (2002) discovered that when students were completing schoolwork, they were less pleased, cheerful, and pleasant than when they were engaging in other activities, which were relaxed and exciting. Schoolwork was also a source of great distress, making kids feel alone, disillusioned, and concerned. Girls were shown to be more distressed by academic stress than boys.

In their study "Perceptions of Academic Stress among Male and Female College Students in Different Academic Years," Misra et al. (2000) compared faculty and

student perceptions of students' academic stress and found that the requirement to meet assessment deadlines is a major source of stress for students.

2.5.1 Summary and Conclusion

Basri et al. (2022) found that stress negatively influenced students' academic performance, while burnout and resilience had significant beneficial and negative indirect effects on academic performance, respectively. García-Ros et al. (2022) found that self-regulated learning significantly predicted academic outcomes, with procrastination acting as a mediator, and that educational level moderated the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement and between metacognitive strategies and procrastination. The research by Niazov et al. (2022) found that students with and without learning disabilities had significantly different levels of academic and online procrastination, academic stress, and academic self-efficacy and that the relationship between learning disabilities and procrastination was mediated by academic stress and self-efficacy. The study by Sriati et al. (2022) found a significant association between academic stress and internet addiction in adolescents, and the research by Lee et al. (2022) found that academic stress was significantly associated with test anxiety and examination performance among nursing students. These studies suggest that academic stress and related factors, such as burnout, procrastination, and self-efficacy, can impact students' academic performance and well-being. The research by Chen et al. (2020) found that higher academic stress was associated with an increased risk of overweight and obesity among college students in China, while the study by Huang et al. (2020) found that incivility and academic stress had an impact on psychological health among college students, with gratitude acting as a moderator. The research by Abdollahi et al. (2020) found that academic stress was related to emotional health and that academic hardiness had a mediating effect, while the study by Eriksen (2020) found that parental pressure and values related to academic achievement were associated with mental health problems among adolescent students in Norway. The research by Omar et al. (2020) found that academic stress had negative impacts on students' mental health and well-being, leading to drug use, suicide, depression, anxiety, and dropout rates.

The study by Priyanka et al. (2020) found a significant correlation between academic stress and depression among postgraduate students in India. The study by Pajariato et al. (2020) found that religiosity and academic stress had a negative relationship with online learning motivation among students in Indonesia, while the research by Parvaneh et al. (2020) found that academic stress hurt students' academic self-esteem and that social support acted as a mediator. These studies suggest that academic stress can negatively impact students' physical, psychological, and academic well-being and that factors such as gratitude, hardiness, parental pressure, religiosity, and social support can play a role in coping with and reducing academic stress. Further research is needed to confirm and expand upon these findings and to develop effective interventions for addressing academic stress and promoting academic success and well-being among students.

Cpascoe et al. (2019) found that academic stress can negatively impact students' learning ability, test performance, health, and future job success. Developing stress management skills can help address these issues. The study by Sharma (2014) found that academic stress had a significant impact on adolescent depression, while peer group influence did not have a considerable effect. The research by Ahmed et al. (2014) found that female university students who reported higher levels of academic stress were more likely to consume unhealthy snacks, high-cholesterol foods, and beverages, while male students did not show this relationship. Pozos et al. (2014) found that academic stress was more common among female students, 18, 23, and 25 years old, and students who reported higher levels of workload, required work, and end-of-semester exam stress.

The research by Tiwari & Balani (2013) found that school hours, workload, a lack of resources, and a low level of reward were common stressors among students, while the study by Abraham & Tyagi (2013) found a strong association between academic stress and emotional intelligence among undergraduate students. The research by Khan and Kausar (2013) found that academic stress significantly impacted student performance, with younger students and students at lower educational levels reporting higher stress levels. These studies suggest that academic stress can negatively impact students' academic and psychological well-being and that factors

such as gender, age, educational level, and emotional intelligence may play a role in coping with and reducing academic stress.

According to research on academic stress, students' capacity to understand academic output, pursue further education, and succeed in their careers in the future is impacted by academic stress. Furthermore, there is strong evidence of health advantages such as enhancing the quantity and quality of sleep, promoting mental and physical well-being, and preventing the negative effects of substance usage. In conclusion, several studies have been conducted on academic stress and its impacts on students, and the findings suggest that academic stress can have adverse effects on various aspects of students' lives, including their mental and physical health, academic performance, and coping mechanisms. It has also been influenced by multiple factors such as personality traits, socioeconomic status, and workload. To address the issue of academic stress, it is essential to implement interventions that aim to reduce stress levels and improve stress management skills among students. Additionally, addressing the root causes of academic stress, such as high workloads and unrealistic expectations, may also be beneficial in reducing stress levels among students. It is essential for educators, parents, and policymakers to be aware of the potential negative impacts of academic stress and to work towards creating a supportive and less stressful learning environment for students.

2.6 Conclusion

A literature review on parenting style, self-efficacy, and academic stress suggests their interrelatedness. In summary, the research on parenting styles, academic self-efficacy, academic stress, and hardiness indicates that these factors can significantly impact various outcomes in children, adolescents, and college students, such as academic procrastination, socialization, self-regulation, self-perception, well-being, and academic achievement. Positive outcomes are linked to authoritative parenting, self-efficacy, stress management, and hardiness. In contrast, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles, high levels of stress, and low levels of hardiness have been associated with adverse outcomes. Cultural and contextual factors like race and socioeconomic status may also influence these relationships. Additionally, the research on academic buoyancy suggests that it is an essential factor in students' academic

success and well-being, with high levels associated with better grades and lower stress levels. However, the research on these topics is limited by self-report measures and limited generalizability to other populations, and further research is needed to understand the complex relationship between these factors fully.

2.7 Research Gap

The relationship between parenting styles, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy in influencing academic stress among secondary school students remains an area of critical research interest, particularly in the context of Kerala's unique sociocultural environment. Parenting styles are well-established determinants of adolescent academic outcomes; however, their impact within Kerala's collectivist and academically competitive society has not been thoroughly explored. While research indicates that lenient approaches encouraging non-traditional academic paths reduce stress, the interplay between these evolving practices and traditional parenting styles is insufficiently studied. Furthermore, understanding how culturally embedded parenting behaviors influence adolescents' emotional regulation, self-efficacy, and resilience is essential to developing region-specific interventions.

Self-efficacy and academic buoyancy are vital psychological constructs that contribute significantly to students' ability to manage academic challenges and stress. Despite Kerala's high-pressure educational climate, characterized by an exam-oriented system and societal expectations, the role of self-efficacy in buffering academic stress remains underexplored. Academic buoyancy, which enables students to recover from everyday setbacks, also requires greater attention in this high-stakes context. Current research seldom examines how these constructs vary across different socioeconomic and geographic groups or how they interact with factors such as parenting styles and hardiness to influence stress resilience. Developing integrated frameworks that account for these variables is crucial for understanding their collective impact on academic outcomes and ensuring that interventions address the specific needs of diverse student populations.

Hardiness, defined by traits such as commitment, control, and challenge, plays a key role in enhancing adolescents' stress resilience. However, there is limited research on how parenting styles contribute to the development of hardiness in adolescents,

particularly in Kerala's educational setting. The unique stressors faced by students, such as intense academic competition and societal expectations, necessitate a closer look at the intersection of hardiness with self-efficacy and buoyancy. Additionally, the lack of gender-sensitive studies further limits the scope of understanding, as recent data suggests differences in stress responses and coping mechanisms among male and female students.

Academic buoyancy, though recognized as a predictor of academic success and a buffer against stress, is underrepresented in research focusing on Indian secondary school students. The limited exploration of its interaction with parenting styles and demographic factors, such as gender and socioeconomic status, creates a critical gap in understanding its role in stress management. The development of targeted interventions that enhance academic buoyancy and integrate insights from cultural and contextual frameworks could significantly improve student resilience in high-pressure academic environments.

Addressing these gaps offers substantial implications for policy-making and personal benefits for students. For policymakers, research findings can guide the development of educational frameworks and mental health initiatives tailored to Kerala's cultural and academic context. By fostering collaborations between schools, families, and mental health professionals, policies can promote parenting practices and educational environments that support self-efficacy, hardiness, and buoyancy in students. On a personal level, students would benefit from interventions designed to suit their unique needs, including stress management workshops, peer support systems, and programs that enhance emotional regulation and coping mechanisms. These efforts not only mitigate academic stress but also empower students with the psychological tools necessary for long-term academic success and well-being, ensuring a balanced approach to education in Kerala's competitive academic landscape.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Methodology

3.1.1 Objectives of the Study

1. To study the influence of parenting style on academic stress among students.
2. To study the influence of self-efficacy on academic stress among students.
3. To study the influence of hardiness on academic stress among students.
4. To study the influence of academic buoyancy on academic stress.
5. To study the interrelationship among parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, academic buoyancy, and academic stress among high school students.

3.1.2 Hypotheses

1. There will be a significant influence of parenting style on academic stress among high school students.
2. There will be a significant influence of self-efficacy on academic stress among high school students.
3. There will be a significant influence of hardiness on academic stress among high school students.
4. There will be a significant influence of academic buoyancy on academic stress among high school students.
5. There will be significant interrelationships among parenting style, self-efficacy and hardiness, and academic buoyancy and academic stress among high school students.

3.1.3 Research Design

This research delves into how parenting styles, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism affect academic stress in high school students. A multi-stage random sampling technique was employed to pinpoint the study's target demographic within the Palakkad district. This district, encompassing 221 schools, is divided into three

educational sub-districts, further subdivided into 12 districts. Six of these were chosen at random, and within each, six schools were randomly selected, totaling 36 schools for the study. Data collection from these chosen samples utilized a survey methodology.

This research endeavor investigates five distinct variables: parenting style, self-efficacy, resilience, academic buoyancy, and academic stress. Quantitative methods were employed for hypothesis testing, as they yield results with enhanced reliability and validity. This approach allows for the quantification of data, facilitating in-depth analysis (Cavana et al., 2001). Additionally, the quantitative method's outcomes provide statistical backing for evaluating the studied variables and the relationships between them (Amaratunga et al., 2002).

Students' responses were gathered through a series of questionnaires. The collected data underwent analysis using both descriptive and inferential statistics, facilitated by the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 22.0.

Figure 3.1

Multistage Sampling Method

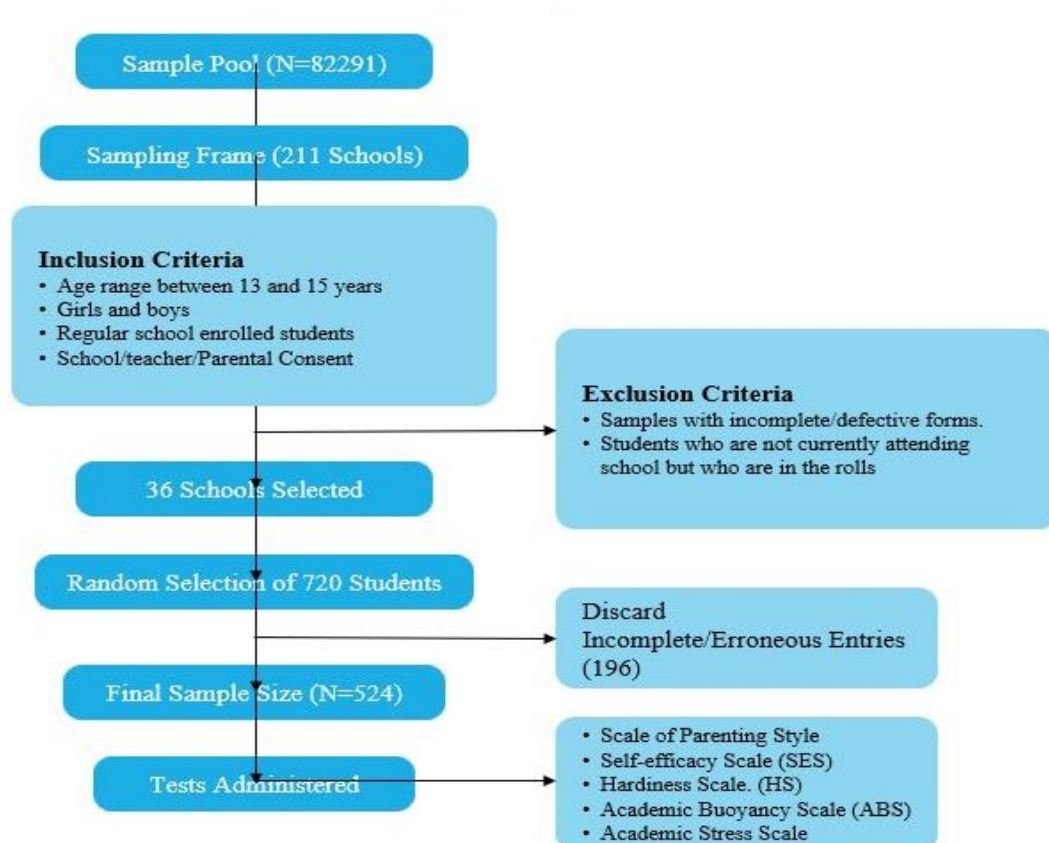
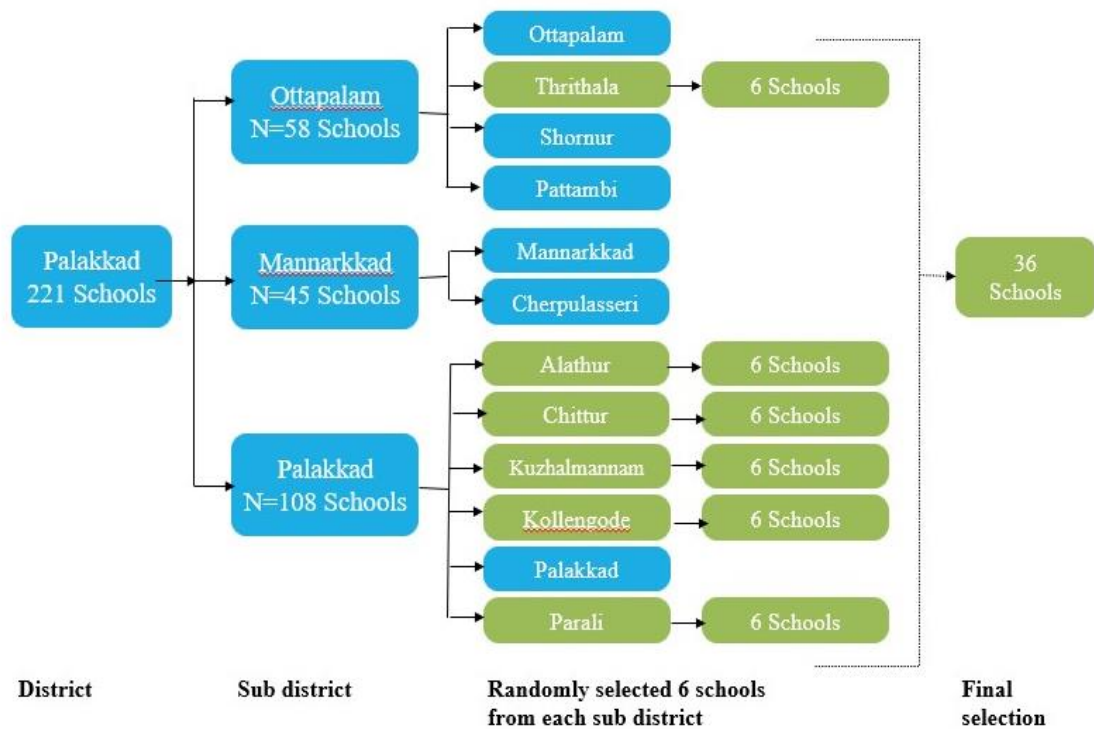


Figure 3.2

Sample Distribution



Source: <https://sametham.kite.kerala.gov.in/publicView/districts/HS/9>

3.1.4 Research Outline

Topic

Influence of Parenting Style, Self-Efficacy, Hardiness and Academic Buoyancy on Academic Stress among Secondary School Students

- First Phase: A survey of randomly selected 524 students from schools in Palakkad district was conducted.
- Second Phase: Tabulation and analysis of data was completed, and conclusions were made.
- Third Phase: Thesis writing and submission were completed.

3.1.5 Inclusion Criteria

- Age range between 13 and 15 years.
- Girls and boys
- School teacher/ parental consent
- Regular school enrolled students

3.1.6 Exclusion Criteria

- Samples with incomplete/defective forms.
- Students who are not currently attending school but who are on the rolls

3.1.7 Variables

3.1.7.1 Independent Variable

This study investigated the influence of parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy as independent variables on academic stress as the dependent variable. The researcher measured the independent variables to determine their effects on academic stress experienced by the students. Parenting Style was assessed by examining the degree of parental involvement, warmth, and control. Self-efficacy was measured by assessing students' beliefs in their ability to succeed academically. Hardiness was evaluated by examining students' ability to cope with stress and adversity. Academic Buoyancy was measured by assessing students' ability to "bounce back" from setbacks and persist in facing challenges. The selection of these independent variables was based on the hypothesis that they would significantly impact the academic stress experienced by the students. The thesis provides an in-depth explanation of the variables, how they were measured or manipulated, and the rationale for their selection in the study, focusing on their effects on academic stress as the dependent variable.

3.1.7.2 Dependent Variable

Within a research framework, the dependent variable is the focal point of measurement and observation, used to gauge the influence exerted by independent variables. In the context of a thesis exploring the effects of parenting style, self-efficacy,

resilience, and academic buoyancy on academic stress, it is the latter that assumes the role of the dependent variable.

Academic stress can be conceptualized as the multifaceted response, both psychological and physiological, to the demands and hurdles encountered in academia. This encompasses perceived academic pressure, workload, and the competitive landscape. The thesis endeavors to quantify academic stress as the dependent variable, meticulously examining how fluctuations in the independent variables correlate with the academic stress levels experienced by students.

The thesis defines academic stress and how it was measured in this study. Self-report questionnaires were used to measure the academic stress of the sample population. It was also important to justify why academic stress was used as the dependent variable and how it relates to the research question and hypothesis. Overall, the dependent variable is a critical component of any research study, and a thorough understanding of academic stress is necessary to evaluate the impact of the independent variables on student well-being and academic success.

3.2 Tools

The following tools were used in this study:

1. Scale of Parenting Style
2. Self-efficacy Scale (SES)
3. Hardiness Scale. (HS)
4. Academic Buoyancy Scale (ABS)
5. Academic Stress Scale

3.2.1 Description of the Tools Used

Self-report data was a commonly used data collection method in the research study for this Ph.D thesis. Self-report data enabled participants to report on their subjective experiences, behaviors, or attitudes, providing valuable insights into the phenomenon being studied.

In this thesis, self-report data was collected from participants through survey methods. Data collected was used to measure various variables, including attitudes, behaviors, or experiences related to the research question or hypothesis. The self-report data was used to investigate the impact of the independent variables on academic stress as the dependent variable.

3.3 Scale of Parenting Style

Scale of Parenting Style (2014) by Abdul Gafoor and Abidha Kurukkan.

Purpose: To measure perceived parenting styles among adolescents. This 38-item instrument is designed to assess the behaviours and attitudes of parents as perceived by their children, focusing on two key dimensions—**parental responsiveness** and **parental control**. These two dimensions form the basis for classifying parenting styles according to the framework proposed by Baumrind (1971) and later refined by Maccoby and Martin (1983), resulting in four categories: authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and negligent. The instrument has been specifically standardised for the socio-cultural and educational context of Kerala, ensuring that it captures parenting practices in a manner relevant to local adolescents' experiences.

The scale demonstrates strong psychometric properties. Test–retest reliability is high, with coefficients of 0.81 for the responsiveness subscale and 0.83 for the control subscale, indicating consistency over time. Criterion validity coefficients of 0.80 for responsiveness and 0.76 for control further confirm the accuracy of the scale in measuring the intended constructs. These properties collectively support the tool's effectiveness in both research and practical applications.

Instructions Given

Before administering the Scale of Parenting Style, students were informed of the objectives of the test to enhance motivation and understanding. They were instructed to read each statement carefully and to respond honestly based on their experiences. Participants were encouraged to clarify any doubts before beginning and to follow the instructions precisely throughout the test. It was emphasised that careful reading and accurate responses were essential for reliable results.

Scoring

Responses are recorded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “always false” (1) to “always true” (5), with no negative scoring. The items are equally distributed between the responsiveness and control dimensions. Scores are calculated separately for fathers and mothers, and then combined to obtain overall responsiveness and control scores. Each participant thus receives six scores: father’s responsiveness, father’s control, mother’s responsiveness, mother’s control, adolescent self-rating, and parent rating. Based on median scores for responsiveness and control, parenting style is categorised as follows: high responsiveness and high control indicate an **authoritative** style; low responsiveness and low control indicate a **negligent** style; high responsiveness and low control indicate an **indulgent** style; and low responsiveness and high control indicate an **authoritarian** style. This scoring procedure allows for a detailed classification of parenting approaches at both the individual and combined parental levels.

3.4 Self-efficacy Scale

Self-efficacy Scale (SES) (1982) by Mark Sherer, James E. Maddux, Blaise Mercandante, Steven Prentice-Dunn, Beth Jacobs, and Ronald W. Rogers.

Purpose: To measure self-efficacy

This 30-item instrument is designed to assess self-efficacy, a person's belief in their ability to succeed. It focuses on general perceptions of mastery and does not target behaviors in specific situations. Self-efficacy, shaped by past experiences and future expectations, plays a crucial role in influencing behavior.

The instrument comprises two distinct subscales: one gauging general self-efficacy and the other evaluating social self-efficacy. Internal consistency is commendable, with Cronbach's alpha values of .86 for the general subscale and .71 for the social subscale, indicating a high degree of reliability in measuring their respective constructs. However, no data regarding test-retest reliability is available.

This tool demonstrates good criterion-related validity, as it effectively predicts that individuals with higher self-efficacy tend to achieve greater success compared to those with lower scores. This correlation between self-efficacy and real-world

outcomes supports the instrument's practical utility in assessing this important psychological construct.

Instructions Given

Before administering the Self-efficacy Scale (SES) test, it was correctly instructed, and students in each session were well-motivated before the test by being familiarized with the test objectives. It was emphasized that all pupils should follow the instructions precisely, and they were invited to clarify any doubts they may have had. It was noted that reading and following all directions closely during the test was critical for accurate results. Similar instructions were provided during the administration of the Scale of Parenting Style test, emphasizing the importance of following the instructions precisely and asking for clarification if needed. Overall, it was observed that the test-takers followed the instructions closely, and the test administration went smoothly.

Scoring

Following the assessment, seven items (1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25) are discarded as filler items. The remaining items are scored on a scale of 1 to 5, corresponding to answer choices A through E. Items phrased negatively (3, 6, 7, 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 29, 30) undergo reverse scoring. This means a response of 1 becomes 5, 2 becomes 4, and so on. This adjustment aligns these items with the positive framing of the others. After reverse scoring, the values for all items are summed to yield a final score. This composite score reflects the individual's overall level of self-efficacy. Higher scores reflect greater confidence in one's abilities, whereas lower scores indicate reduced self-assurance.

3.5 Hardiness Scale (HS)

Purpose: To measure hardiness (resiliency to stress).

The Hardiness Scale, a creation of Paul T. Bartone, Robert J. Ursano, Kathleen M. Wright & Larry H. Ingraham (1989), is a comprehensive 45-item instrument designed to assess an individual's dispositional resilience or hardiness. Hardiness is a psychological construct that reflects an individual's approach and reaction to life experiences.

This scale is divided into three significant subscales, each representing a different aspect of hardiness. The first, 'Commitment', represents a sense of purpose and responsibility towards oneself, others, and various tasks. The second, 'Control', embodies a sense of autonomy and the ability to influence one's life. The third, 'Challenge', signifies a zest for life and views life experiences as opportunities for growth.

Research has shown that hardiness plays a crucial role in how individuals process and cope with stressful life events. It has been linked to psychological well-being in various life situations, suggesting its importance in maintaining mental health.

The challenge and control subscales showed acceptable internal consistency, with alpha coefficients of .62 and .66, respectively. The subscales demonstrated even stronger internal consistency, reaching an alpha of .82. As a whole, the tool exhibited excellent reliability, achieving an overall alpha coefficient of .85. This high value suggests that the items within the tool are cohesively measuring the intended construct, further supporting its reliability for research and practical applications.

The tool's validity was affirmed through several analyses. The 30-item short form demonstrated a strong correlation of .82 with the scores of its 45-item counterpart, suggesting that the abbreviated version effectively captures the essence of the original instrument. Moreover, the scale scores exhibited a remarkable correlation of .93 with the total scores obtained from the comprehensive 76-item version, reinforcing the tool's ability to measure the intended construct accurately. Furthermore, the principal components factor analysis provided empirical support for the hypothesized three-subscale structure, enhancing the construct validity of the instrument. Notably, it's important to acknowledge that scores on this tool can be sensitive to fluctuations caused by stressful life events, underscoring its potential utility for tracking changes in individuals' experiences over time.

Instructions Given

Before administering the Hardiness Scale (HS) test, participants were introduced to the objectives and instructions before taking the test to ensure that they were familiar with the content. It was observed that the participants followed the

instructions precisely, and any questions or concerns were clarified promptly. It was noted that reading and following all directions closely during the test was critical for accurate results, and this was emphasized to the participants. Before the test, students were motivated to perform their best, which likely contributed to the smooth administration of the test. Similar instructions were provided when administering the Self-efficacy Scale (SES) and Scale of Parenting Style tests, emphasizing the importance of following instructions precisely and asking for clarification. Overall, it was observed that the administration of the Hardiness Scale test went smoothly, with participants following instructions accurately to ensure accurate results.

Scoring

The Hardiness Scale measures resilience through three subscales: Commitment, Control, and Challenge. To calculate your Hardiness score, begin by adjusting the scores for certain items. Items 3-7, 9-12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, 35, 37, 38, 40, 41, and 43-45 need to be reverse-scored. This means that the original rating is flipped; for example, a score of 1 becomes a 4, and a score of 4 becomes a 1.

Once the items are reversed, you can calculate your score for each subscale. For the Commitment subscale, add up your responses for items 1, 7, 8, 9, 17, 18, 23, 24, 25, 31, 37, 39, 41, 44, and 45. The Control subscale is calculated by totaling your scores for items 2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 13, 14, 19, 22, 26, 28, 29, 34, 42, and 43. Finally, to determine your Challenge subscale score, sum your responses for items 5, 6, 12, 15, 16, 20, 21, 27, 30, 32, 33, 35, 36, 38, and 40.

In the Hardiness Scale, higher scores indicate greater resilience. By understanding your scores on each subscale, you gain insights into your strengths and areas for development in managing stress and challenges.

3.6 Academic Buoyancy Scale (ABS)

Academic Buoyancy Scale (2020) by Zeba Aqil, Shah Mohd. Khan, and Divya R. Panwani.

Purpose: To measure academic buoyancy. This 27-item instrument is designed to assess an individual's ability to cope effectively with the routine challenges of school life, such as poor grades, assignment deadlines, examination stress, and other day-to-

day academic pressures. Academic buoyancy reflects a proactive, resilient approach to setbacks, enabling students to maintain performance and motivation despite difficulties. The scale includes items representing seven dimensions of academic buoyancy: **academic coordination** (items 2, 12, 19, 18, 3), **academic clarity** (items 26, 27, 17, 7, 6), **composure** (items 14, 16, 15, 9, 23), **academic climate** (items 21, 25, 10, 20), **academic confidence** (items 8, 4, 5, 11), **academic commitment** (items 1, 13), and **self-control** (items 24, 22).

The ABS demonstrates excellent reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.945 and a value of 0.972 based on Pearson's correlation, indicating remarkable internal consistency. Construct validity is highly significant ($p < 0.00001$). Item validity was established by retaining only those items with a t-value greater than 2.33 at the 1% level, ensuring the inclusion of highly discriminating items.

Instructions Given

Before administering the Academic Buoyancy Scale, participants were introduced to the purpose of the test and its instructions. The importance of reading each item carefully and following the directions precisely was emphasised. Doubts were clarified before the commencement of the test to ensure comprehension. Participants were encouraged to give their best effort, contributing to smooth and accurate test administration. Similar instructions were followed for the Hardiness Scale, Self-Efficacy Scale, and Scale of Parenting Style, with a consistent emphasis on careful reading, adherence to instructions, and clarification of doubts when necessary.

Scoring

Items are rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). For specific items (4, 5, 8, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 22, 23, and 24), scoring is reversed so that "strongly disagree" is scored as 5 and "strongly agree" as 1. The total score ranges from 27 to 135, with higher scores indicating greater academic buoyancy.

3.7 Academic Stress Scale

Academic Stress Scale (1970) by Kim, adapted to the Indian context by Rajendran and Kaliappan (1990).

Purpose: To measure the level and domains of academic stress.

The Academic Stress Scale is a 40-item instrument designed to assess the intensity and sources of academic stress experienced by students. Originally developed by Kim in 1970, the scale was adapted by Rajendran and Kaliappan (1990) to suit the socio-cultural and educational conditions of India. The Indianised version has been widely used in research, including studies examining the effects of behavioural interventions on reducing academic stress and improving academic performance. The instrument covers five key domains of stress: Personal Inadequacy (F1), Fear of Failure (F2), Interpersonal Difficulties with Teachers (F3), Teacher–Pupil Relationship / Teaching Methods (F4), and Inadequate Study Facilities (F5), each represented by eight items.

The scale demonstrates strong psychometric properties. Content validity was established through expert review of items to ensure alignment with the intended constructs, while item analysis confirmed that each item had sufficient discriminative power. Test–retest reliability was established by administering the scale to 50 students twice, with a 25-day interval between administrations, yielding a correlation coefficient of 0.82. This indicates high stability and dependability over time.

Instructions Given

Before administering the Academic Stress Scale, participants were introduced to the purpose of the test and its instructions. The importance of reading each statement carefully and following the directions precisely was emphasised. Any questions or doubts were clarified before the commencement of the test. Participants were encouraged to give their best effort, which contributed to smooth and accurate administration. Similar instructions were followed for the Hardiness Scale, Self-Efficacy Scale, Scale of Parenting Style, and Academic Buoyancy Scale, ensuring consistency in administration procedures across all instruments.

Scoring

Each of the 40 items is rated on a four-point scale, with scores ranging from 1 to 4. The total score is the sum of all items, with a maximum possible score of 160. Scores can also be calculated separately for each of the five domains, each having a maximum

score of 32. The relationship between score and academic stress level is direct and linear: higher scores indicate greater intensity of academic stress, while lower scores indicate reduced stress levels. This straightforward scoring method allows for a clear and quantifiable assessment, making the tool effective for both research and intervention purposes.

3.8 Socio-Demographic Details

Researchers in this study delved into a wide range of factors that might influence academic stress. Beyond the typical demographics like gender, age, religion, and education level, they looked deeper. This included academic performance (exam grades), family structure (joint or nuclear family), and even socioeconomic factors like parental occupation and income.

The investigation extended further to encompass aspects of the student's immediate academic environment. The researchers considered the classes attended, exams taken in the current year, and the quality of student-teacher relationships. Additionally, the workload from assignments and homework was factored in to provide a holistic picture of potential stressors. This comprehensive approach aimed to identify a multitude of influences that could contribute to academic stress in students.

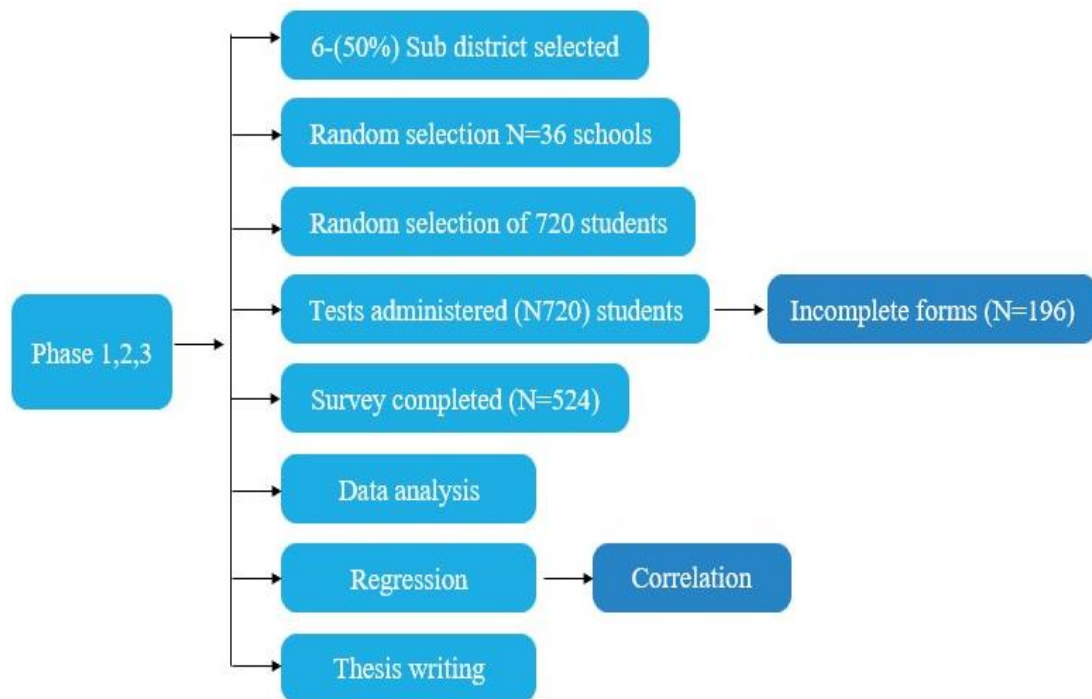
3.9 Procedure

Sample

To procure a diverse and representative sample of 524 students, researchers implemented a meticulous multistage random sampling methodology. This approach involved selecting participants from both government and private schools across three distinct districts. The multistage nature of this technique ensured that each level of selection contributed to the overall representativeness of the sample. By incorporating diverse educational institutions and geographic locations, the researchers aimed to capture a comprehensive snapshot of student experiences and perspectives relevant to their study.

Figure 3.3

Procedure of the Study



3.9.1 Data Collection Method

A multistage random sampling method was used to select the population of high school students for the present study. There are 221 schools in Palakkad district, which has three educational sub-districts. Twelve sub-districts come under the educational districts, of which six sub-districts were randomly selected. Then, six schools were randomly selected from each sub-district, and a total of 36 schools were selected for the study. It was decided to collect data from 20 students belonging to each school. Thereby, 720 students were selected randomly. A survey method was employed for data collection from these selected samples. Data was collected using self-report questionnaires completed by the participants. The questionnaires measured parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, academic buoyancy, and stress. The questionnaires were distributed to the participants in the classroom setting and were collected anonymously. The chosen tests or tools were then administered to the chosen sample according to the manual's normal guidelines. The researcher built a cooperative and healthy environment with the subjects while collecting the data, following many modern

researchers' advice to elicit real and honest responses. The subjects were assured that the information gathered would be utilized solely for research purposes and that their test results would be kept private. It was first established that the subjects fully comprehended each condition and answer category. To do this, the investigator first familiarised himself with the precise instructions provided in the accompanying manual, then described and explained them to the subjects clearly and concisely.

All of the psychological tests mentioned before were given to 720 people one-on-one. To avoid weariness, the entire data set was gathered in two sessions at a specific institution, separated by two hours. The Academic Stress and Parenting Scale was tested in the first session, and hardiness, self-efficacy, and academic buoyancy were tested in the second session. The students were given extensive instructions and columns for their personal information on each test.

Instructions Given

Students in each session were motivated well before the tests by familiarising them with the test objectives. It was made a point to ensure that all of the pupils had followed the directions to the letter. They were also invited to clarify any doubts they may have had. It was also requested that the cooperation and aid of some of the teachers be requested to check for cheating on the part of the pupils so that the test's goal would not be defeated. It was double-checked that all test subjects had completed the tests and their bio-data according to the specified instructions in every way.

There was no time limit, yet the tests took about two hours to complete. Consumable exam booklets were used and collected for subsequent proceedings after the testees were given due time to complete each test.

During the categorization and analysis of data, it was found that only 524 questionnaires could be considered, and the remaining questionnaires were discarded due to incomplete data or details.

The data for this study was analyzed using descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and regression analysis. It was analyzed using statistical software, including SPSS and Excel. The results were presented in tables and graphs to facilitate understanding.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The organization, analysis, and interpretation of data and the derivation of conclusions and generalizations are critical stages in the research process that enable researchers to construct a coherent narrative from the raw data they have collected. Data was collected through various tests per the methodology outlined in the preceding chapter to advance the study's objectives and evaluate the hypotheses. The researcher performed data analysis following data collection, as raw scores were complex to interpret independently.

This chapter presents the findings obtained through the application of specific statistical techniques. The data was analyzed using regression and correlation analyses. Before analysis, the data must be systematized and organized through editing, classification, and tabulation.

Demography of the Sample Population

The survey involved 524 students from secondary schools, of which 267 (51%) were girls and 257(49%) were boys. The students were selected using a simple random sampling method from different schools in the Palakkad district.

Table 4.1

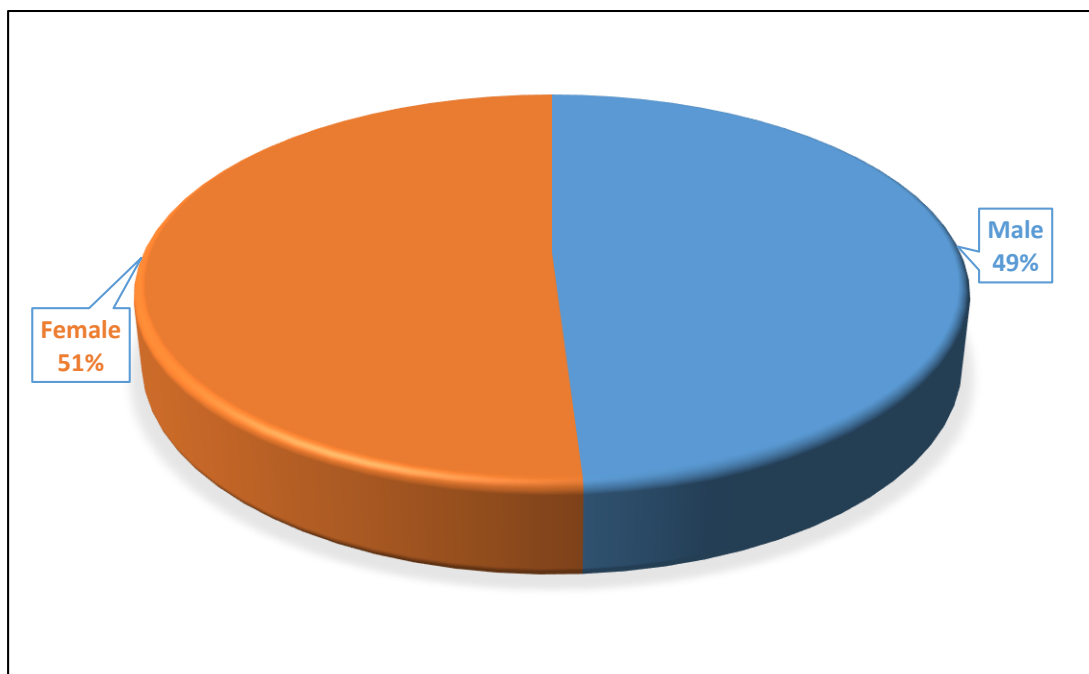
Gender of the Students

S. No	Gender	N	Percentage
1	Male	257	49.0
2	Female	267	51.0
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.1 presents the distribution of students based on gender. According to the data, 51% of the students and 49% are female.

Figure 4.1

Gender of the Students



Level of Key Variables Academic Stress

Table 4.2

Level of Personal Inadequacy of Students

S. No.	Personal Inadequacy	N	Percentage
1	High	100	19.2
2	Moderate	301	57.4
3	Low	123	23.4
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.2 shows the students' levels of personal inadequacy. More than half (57.4%) of the students have a moderate level, 23.4% have a low level, and 19.2% have a high level.

Figure 4.2

Level of Personal Inadequacy of Students

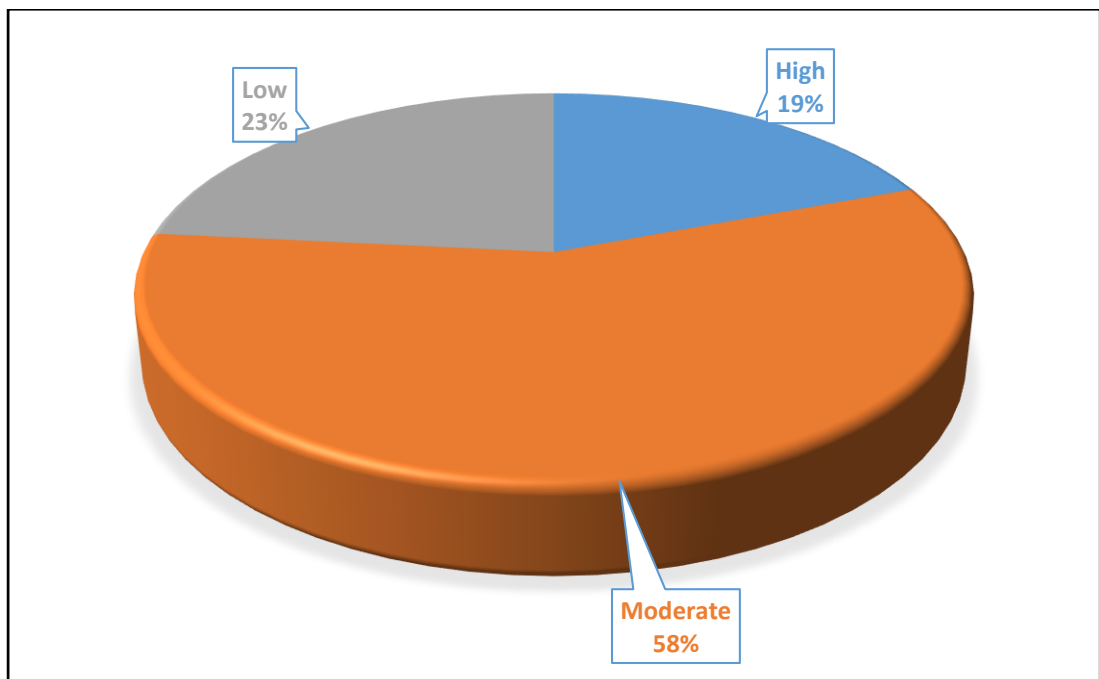


Table 4.3

Level of Fear of Failure of Students

S. No.	Fear of Failure	N	Percentage
1	High	97	18.6
2	Moderate	324	61.8
3	Low	103	19.6
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.3 depicts the students' level of fear of failure. It is evident that, of the total students, more than half (61.8%) have a moderate fear of failure, 19.6% have a low fear of failure, and 18.6% have a high fear of failure.

Figure 4.3

Level of Fear of Failure of Students

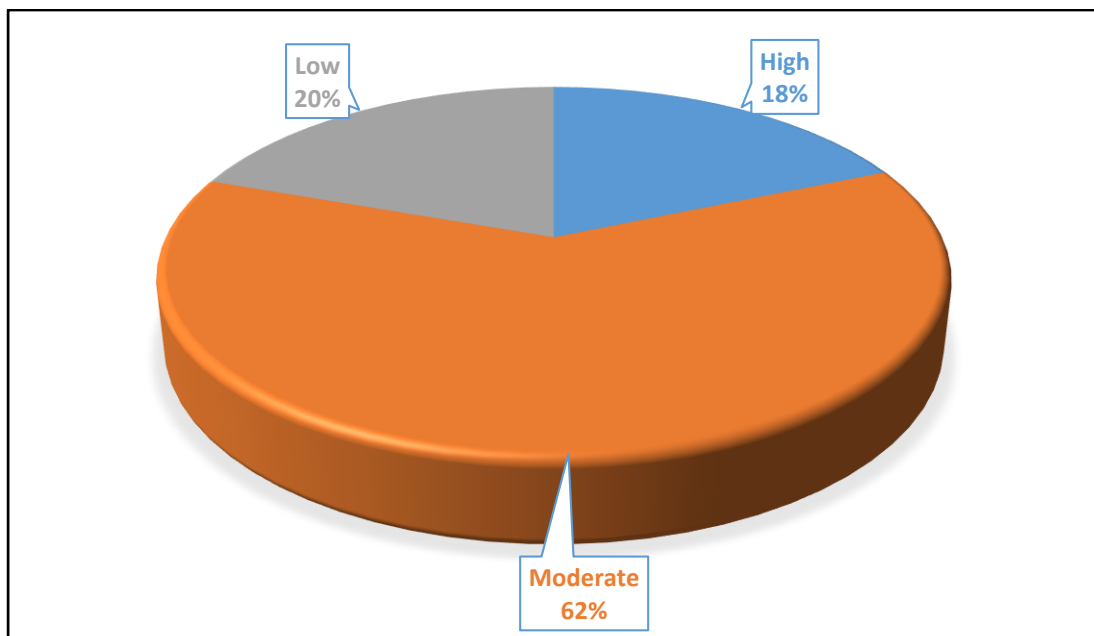


Table 4.4

Level of Interpersonal Difficulties for Students with Teachers

S. No	Interpersonal Difficulties with Teacher	n	Percentage
1	High	91	17.4
2	Moderate	340	64.8
3	Low	93	17.8
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.4 depicts the level of interpersonal difficulties with the teacher. Nearly two-thirds of the students (64.8%) have moderate interpersonal difficulties with the teacher, 17.8% have low interpersonal difficulties, and 17.4% have high interpersonal difficulties.

Figure 4.4

Level of Interpersonal Difficulties for Students with Teachers

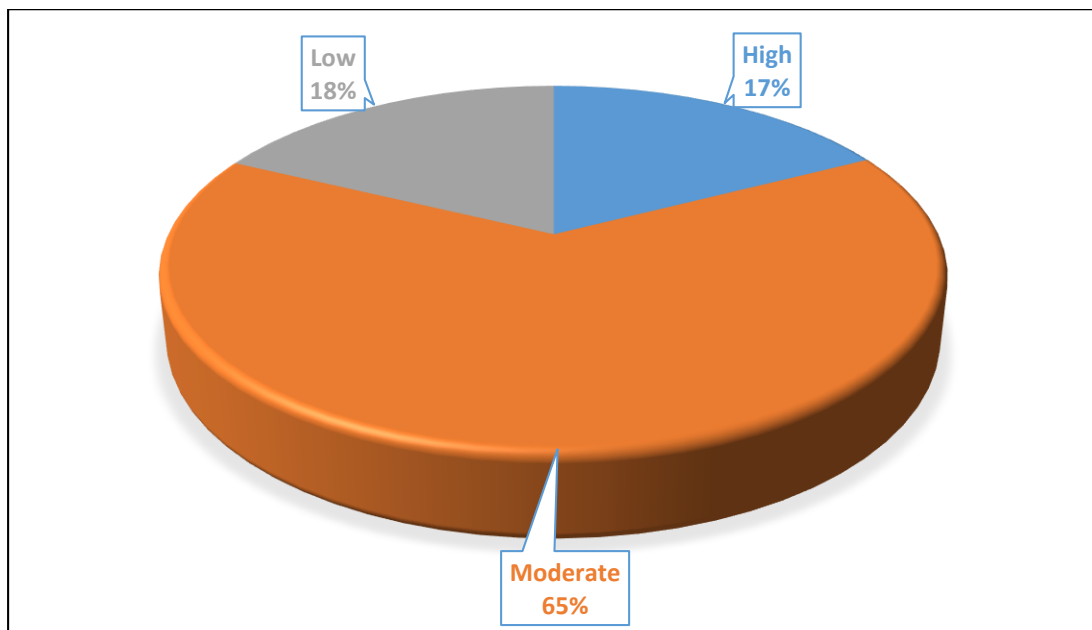


Table 4.5*Level of Teacher-Pupil Relationship / Teaching Methods*

S. No.	Teacher-Pupil Relationship	N	Percentage
1	High	87	16.6
2	Moderate	334	63.8
3	Low	103	19.6
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.5 shows the level of teacher-pupil relationship. It is clear from the table that nearly two-thirds (63.8%) of the students have a moderate level of teacher-pupil relationship, 19.6% have a low level of teacher-pupil relationship, and 16.6% have a high level of teacher-pupil relationship.

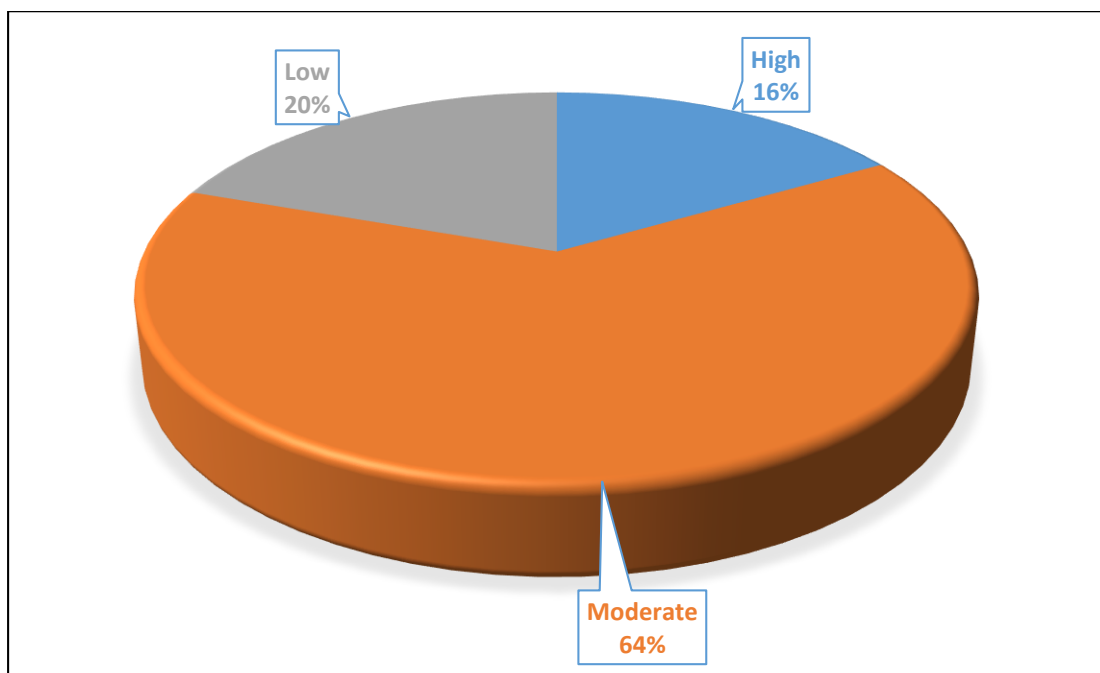
Figure 4.5*Level of Teacher-Pupil Relationship / Teaching Methods*

Table 4.6

Level of Inadequate Study Facilities for Students

S. No.	Inadequate Study Facilities	N	Percentage
1	High	96	18.2
2	Moderate	334	63.8
3	Low	94	18.0
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.6 depicts the students' levels of inadequate study facilities. It shows that nearly two-thirds (63.8%) of the students have a moderate level of inadequate study facilities, 18.2% have a high level of inadequate study facilities, and 18% have a low level of inadequate study facilities.

Figure 4.6

Level of Inadequate Study Facilities for Students

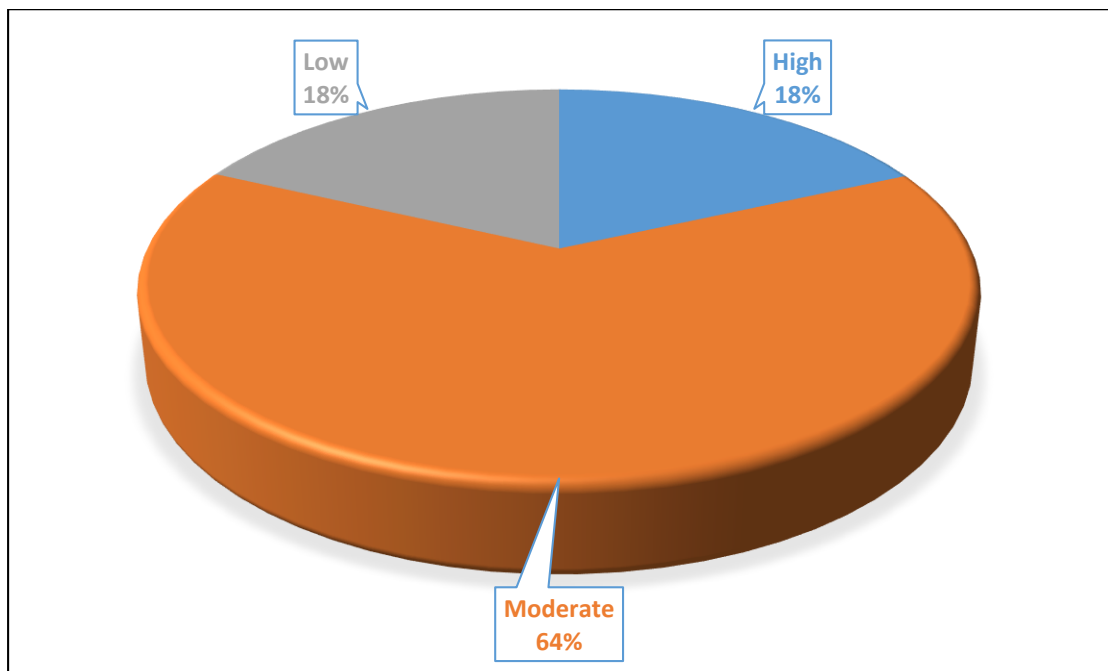


Table 4.7

Level of Academic Stress of Students

S. No.	Academic Stress	N	Percentage
1	High	74	14.2
2	Moderate	362	69.0
3	Low	88	16.8
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.7 depicts the level of academic stress. Of the total students, more than two-thirds (69%) have moderate academic stress, 16.8% have low academic stress, and 14.2% have high academic stress.

Figure 4.7

Level of Academic Stress of Students

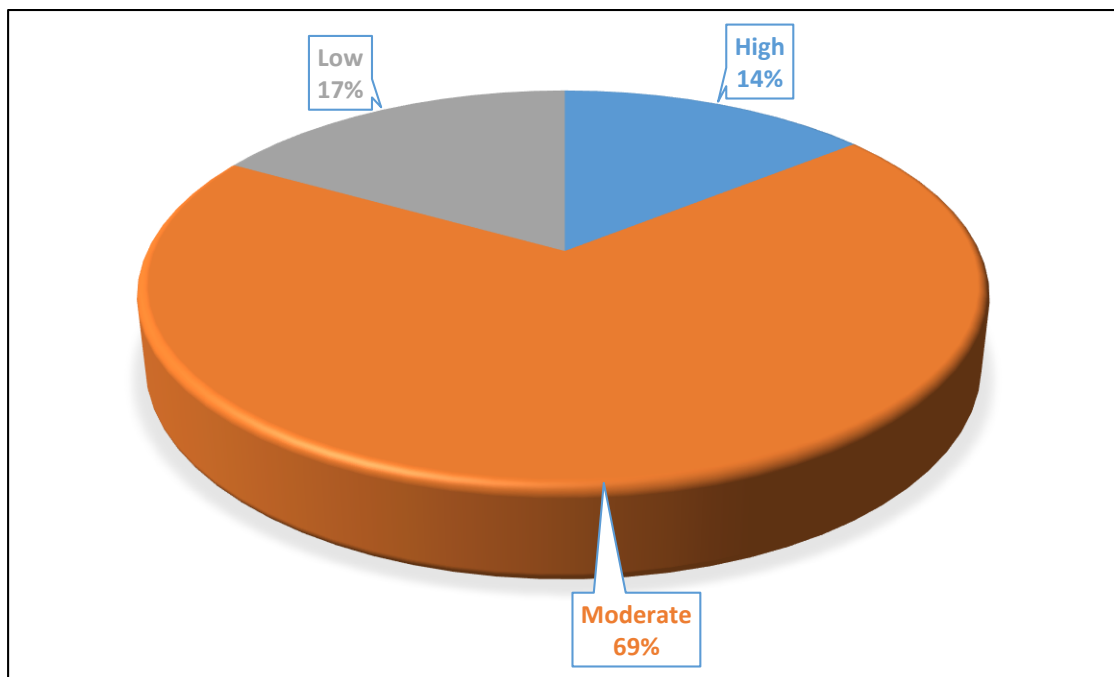


Table 4.8*Level of Parenting Responsiveness*

S. No.	Category	Level	N	Percentage
1	Father	High	262	50.0
		Low	262	50.0
2	Mother	High	285	54.4
		Low	239	45.6
3	Parenting (Overall)	High	264	50.4
		Low	260	49.6

Table 4.9*Level of Parenting - Control*

S. No.	Category	Level	N	Percentage
1	Father	High	275	52.4
		Low	249	47.6
2	Mother	High	282	53.8
		Low	242	46.2
3	Parenting (Overall)	High	269	51.4
		Low	255	48.6

The table shows that fathers' responsiveness and control were high among half of the students. The table also shows that mothers' responsiveness and control were high among half of the students. The table also indicates that Parenting responsiveness and control were high among half of the students.

Table 4.10*Description of Parenting Style*

S. No	Parenting Style	N	Percentage	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
		Father		Mother		Parent	
1	Authoritative	215	41.0	230	43.8	211	40.2
2	Negligent	202	38.6	186	35.6	201	38.4
3	Indulgent	47	9.0	55	10.6	53	10.2
4	Authoritarian	60	11.4	53	10.0	59	11.2
Total		524	100.0	524	100.0	524	100

Table 4.10. depicts the parenting style of the students. The table reveals that, of the total students, 41% of the student's fathers' parenting style was found to be authoritative, 38.6% of their father's parenting style was found to be negligent, 11.4% of their father's parenting style was Authoritarian, and 9% of their father's parenting style was found to be Indulgent.

Table 4.10. also reveals that, of the total students, 43.8% of the student's mothers' parenting style was found to be authoritative, 35.6% of their mother's parenting style was found to be negligent, 10.6% of their mother's parenting style was Indulgent and 10% of their mother's parenting style was found to be Authoritarian.

Table 4.10 reveals that, of the total students, 40.2% of their parenting style was authoritative, 38.4% was negligent, 11.2% was Authoritarian, and 10.2% was Indulgent.

Table 4.11*Level of Commitment of Students*

S. No.	Commitment	n=	Percentage
1	Very High	101	19.2
2	Slightly High	157	30.0
3	Moderately Low	134	25.2
4	Very Low	134	25.6
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.11 reveals that of the total students, 30% have a slightly high level of commitment, 25.6% have a very low level, 25.2% have a moderately low level, and 19.2% have a very high level.

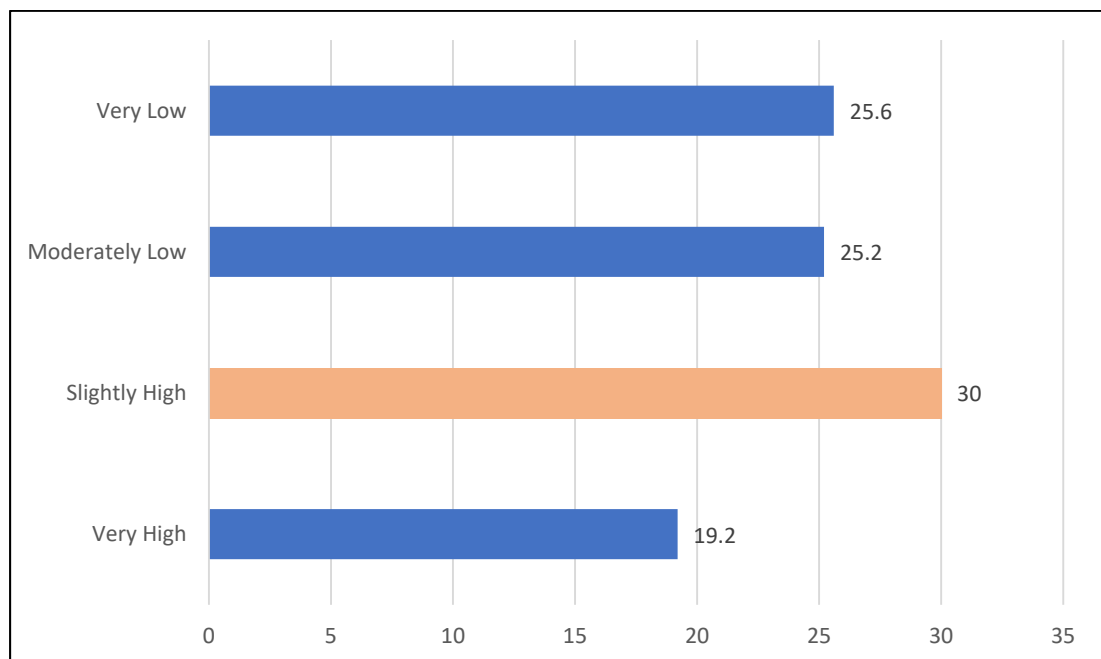
Figure 4.8*Level of Commitment of Students*

Table 4.12*Level of Control*

S. No.	Control	n	Percentage
1	Very High	112	21.4
2	Slightly High	123	23.4
3	Moderately Low	139	26.6
4	Very Low	150	28.6
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.12 reveals that, of the total students, 28.6% have a very low level of control, 26.6% have a moderately low level of control, 23.4% have a slightly high level, and 21.4% have a very high level of control.

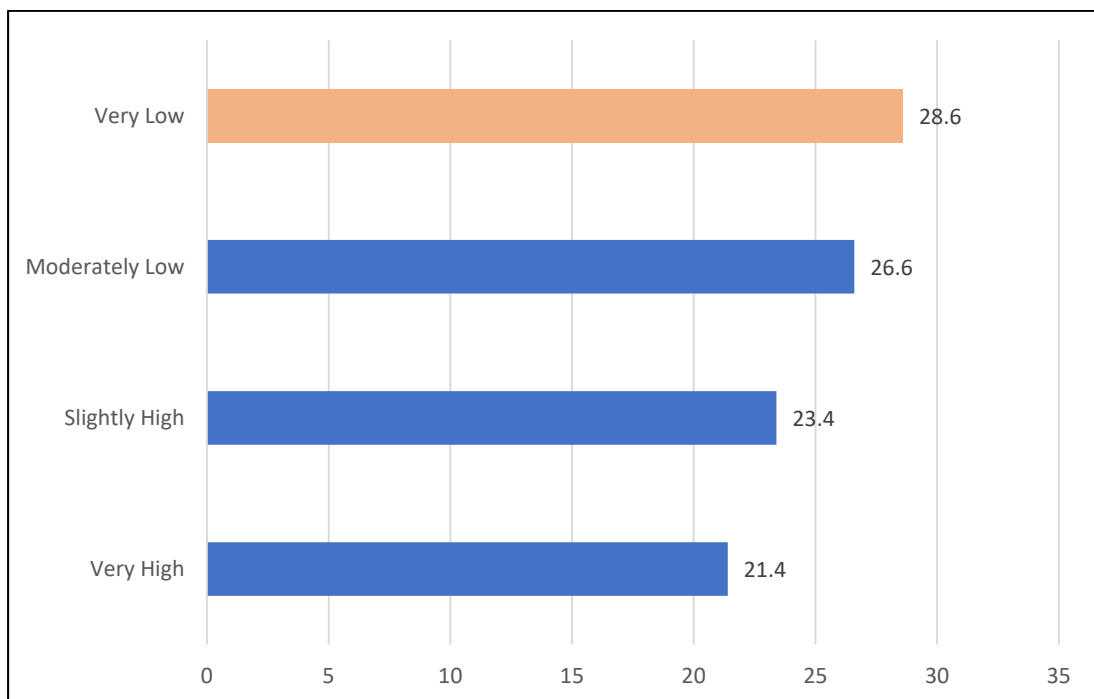
Figure 4.9*Level of Control*

Table 4.13*Level of Challenge for Students*

S. No.	Challenge	N	Percentage
1	Very High	91	17.4
2	Slightly High	122	25.2
3	Moderately Low	158	30.2
4	Very Low	143	27.2
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.13 shows that 30.2% of the students have a moderately low level of challenge, 27.2% have a very low level of challenge, 25.2% have a slightly high level of challenge, and 17.4% have a very high level of challenge.

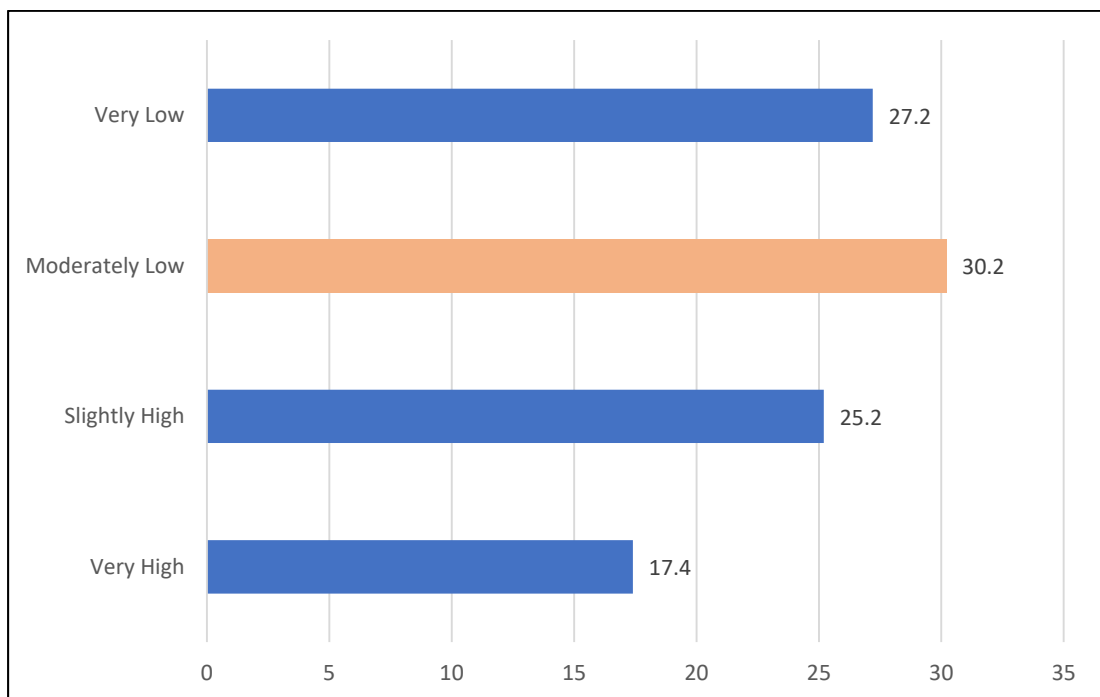
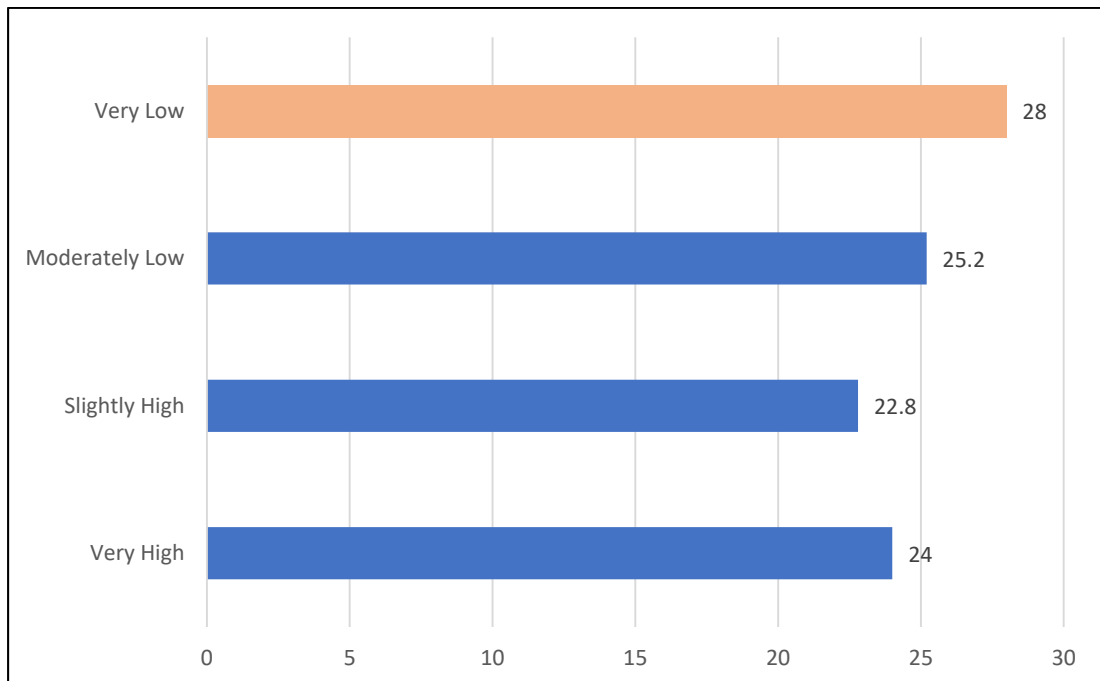
Figure 4.10*Level of Challenge for Students*

Table 4.14*Level of Hardiness of Students*

S. No.	Hardiness	N	Percentage
1	Very High	126	24.0
2	Slightly High	119	22.8
3	Moderately Low	132	25.2
4	Very Low	147	28.0
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.14 shows the students' hardiness level, which reveals that 28% of them have a very low level of hardiness, 25.2% have a moderately low level of hardiness, 24% have a very high level of hardiness, and 22.8% have a slightly high level of hardiness.

Figure 4.11*Level of Hardiness of Students*

Academic Buoyancy

Table 4.15

Level of Academic Co-Ordination

S. No	Academic Co-Ordination	N	Percentage
1	High	115	22.0
2	Moderate	325	62.0
3	Low	84	16.0
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.15 shows the students' levels of academic coordination. It reveals that 62% have a moderate level of academic coordination, 22% have a high level of academic coordination, and 16% have a low level of academic coordination.

Figure 4.12

Level of Academic Co-Ordination

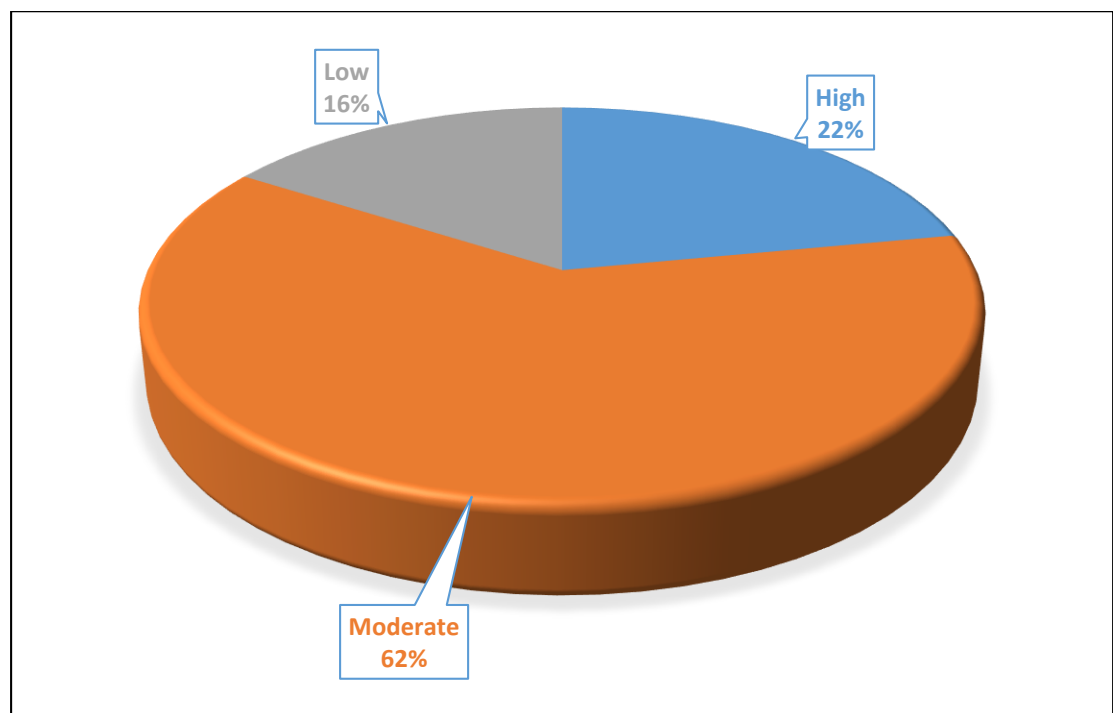


Table 4.16

Level of Academic Clarity

S. No	Academic Clarity	N	Percentage
1	High	74	14.2
2	Moderate	372	71.0
3	Low	78	14.8
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.16 shows the level of academic clarity, which reveals that the majority (71%) of the students have a moderate level of academic clarity, 14.8% have a low level of academic clarity, and 14.2% have a high level of academic clarity.

Figure 4.13

Level of Academic Clarity

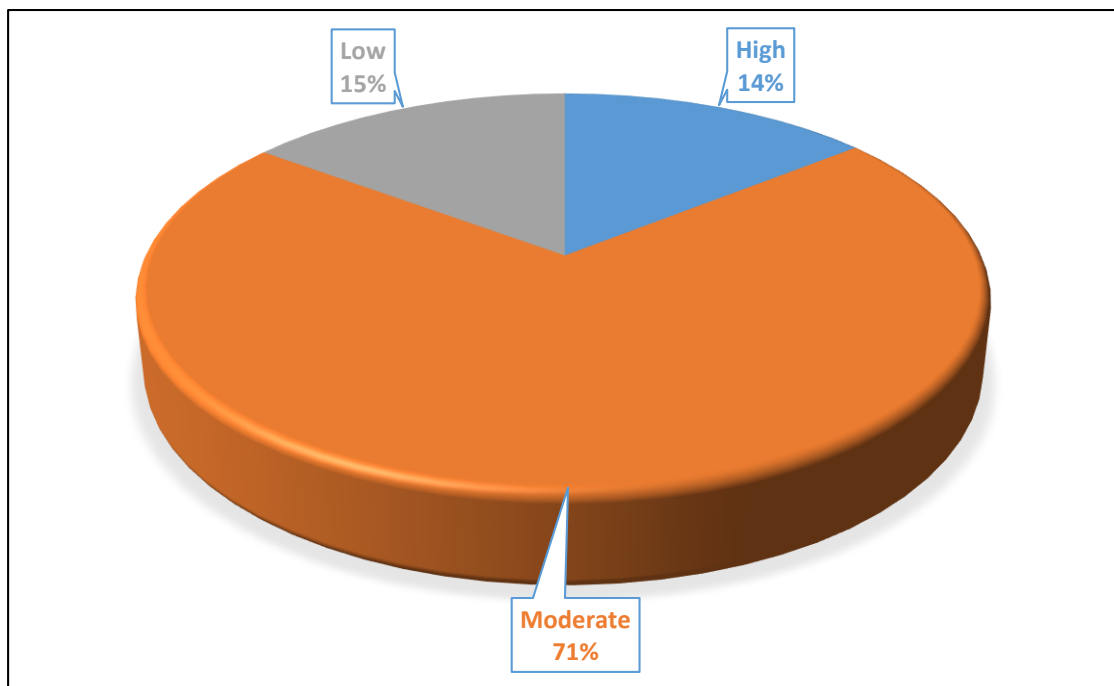


Table 4.17

Level of Composure

S. No.	Composure	N	Percentage
1	High	68	13.0
2	Moderate	353	67.4
3	Low	103	19.6
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.17 shows that 67.4% of the students have a moderate level of composure, 19.6% have a low level, and 13% have a high level of composure.

Figure 4.14

Level of Composure

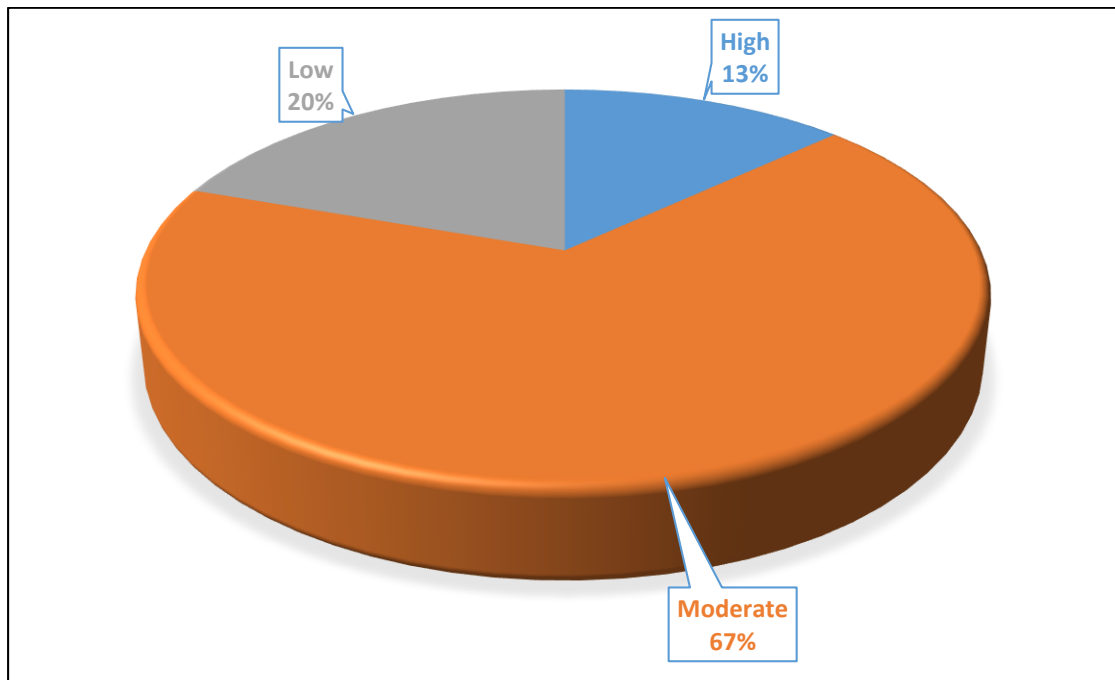


Table 4.18

Level of Academic Climate

S. No.	Academic Climate	N	Percentage
1	High	111	21.2
2	Moderate	326	62.2
3	Low	87	16.6
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.18 shows that 62.2% of the students have a moderate academic climate, 21.2% have a high one, and 16.6% have a low one.

Figure 4.15

Level of Academic Climate

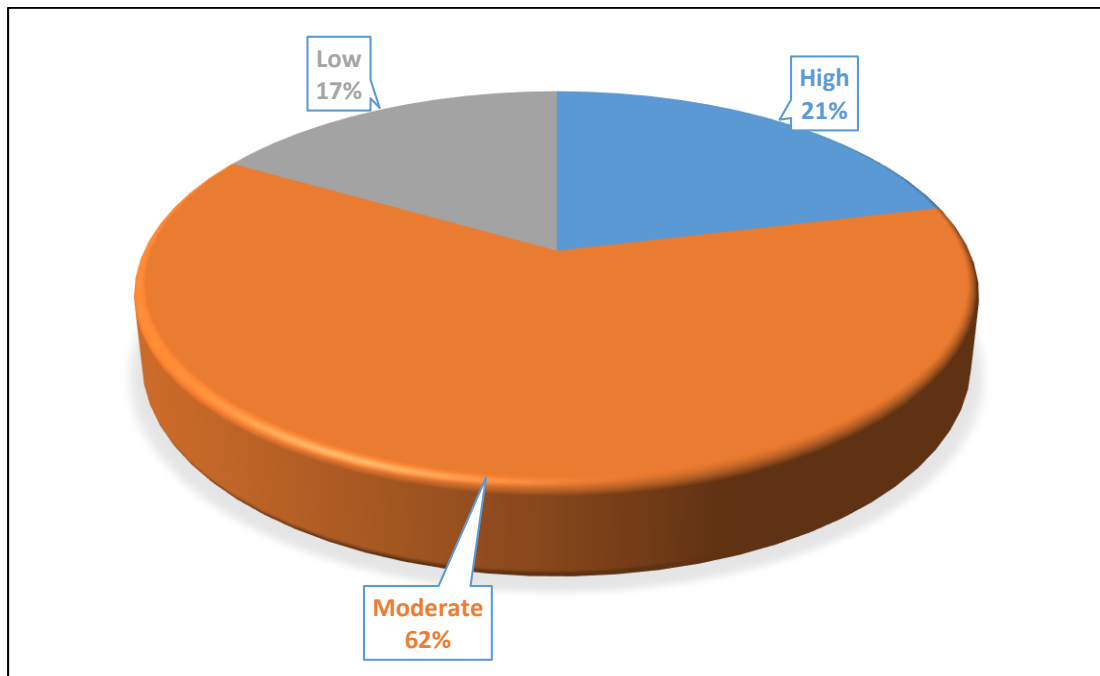


Table 4.19

Level of Academic Confidence

S. No	Academic Confidence	N	Percentage
1	High	88	16.8
2	Moderate	326	62.2
3	Low	110	21.0
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.19 shows that 62.2% of the students have a moderate level of academic confidence, 21% have a low level of academic confidence, and 16.8% have a high level of academic confidence.

Figure 4.16

Level of Academic Confidence

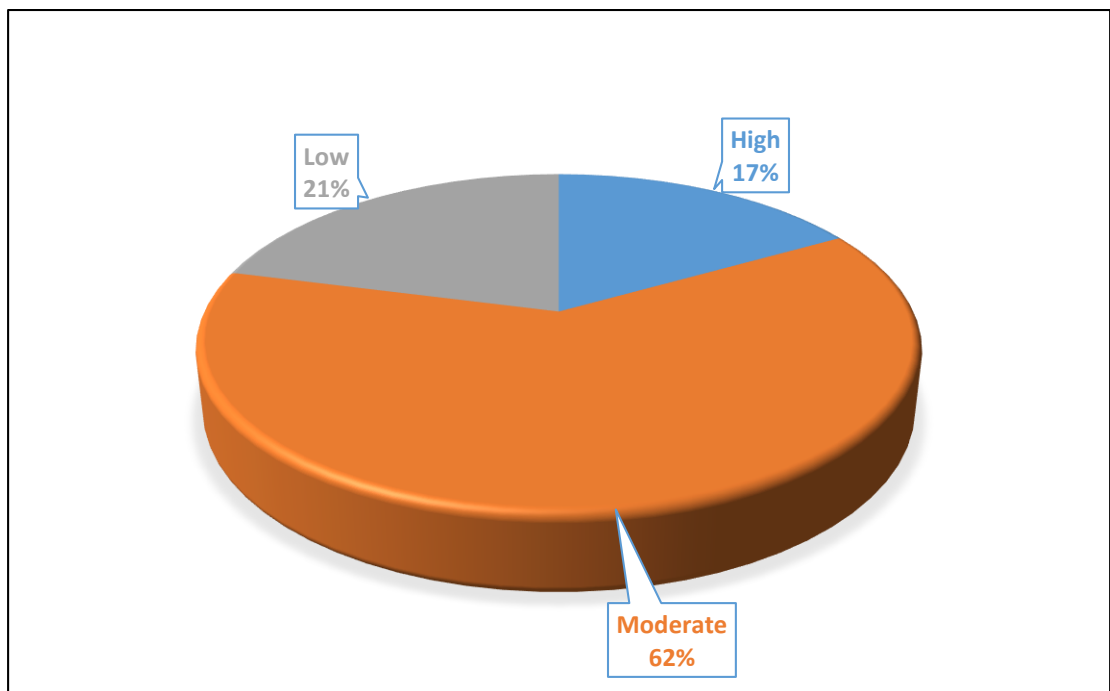


Table 4.20

Level of Academic Commitment

S. No.	Academic Commitment	N	Percentage
1	High	140	26.8
2	Moderate	232	44.2
3	Low	152	29.0
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.20 shows that 44.2% of the students have a moderate level of academic commitment, 29% have a low level of academic commitment, and 26.8% have a high level of academic commitment.

Figure 4.17

Level of Academic Commitment

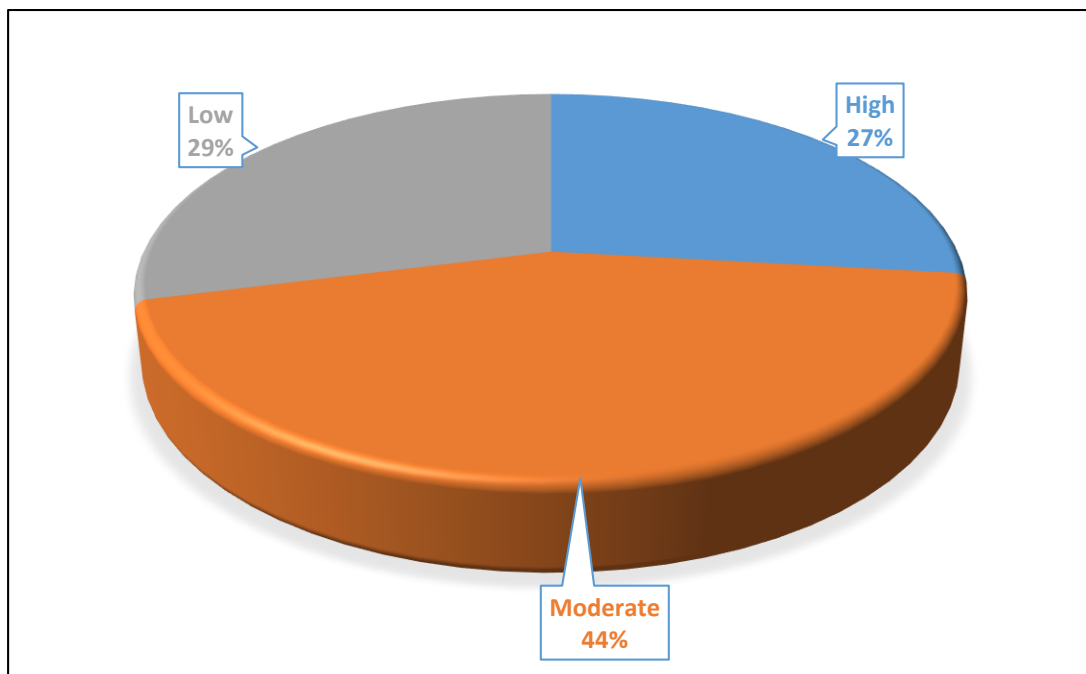


Table 4.21

Level of Self-Confidence

S. No.	Self-Confidence	N	Percentage
1	High	165	31.6
2	Moderate	202	38.6
3	Low	156	29.8
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.21 reveals that 38.6% of the students have a moderate level of self-confidence, 31.6% have a high level of self-confidence, and 29.8% have a low level of self-confidence.

Figure 4.18

Level of Self-Confidence

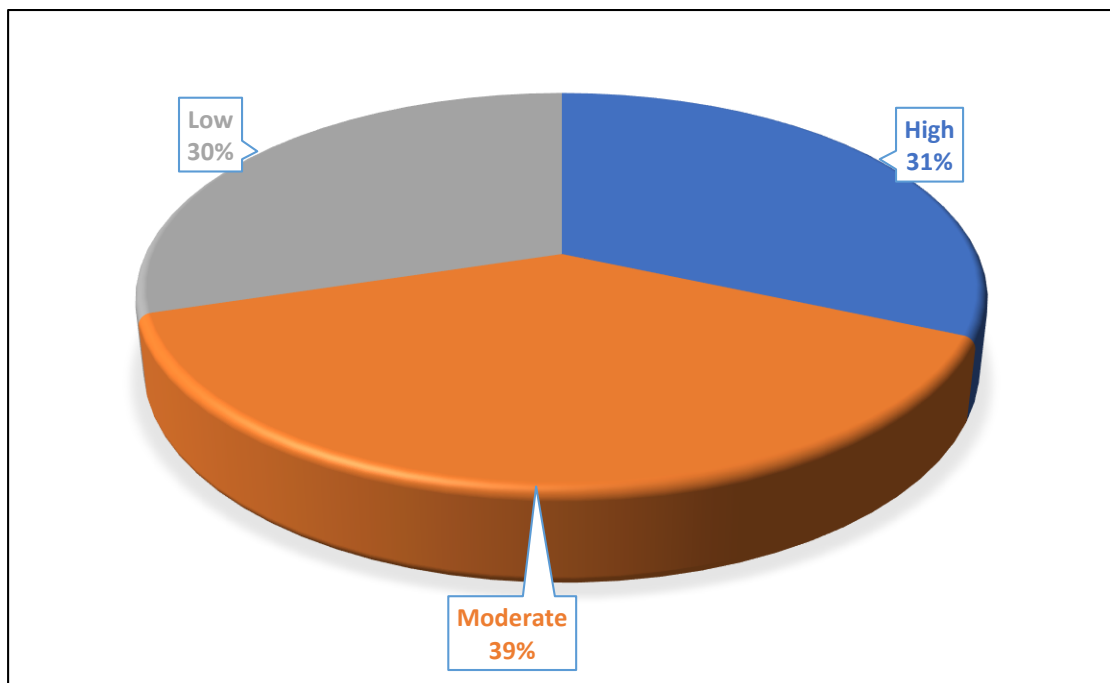


Table 4.22

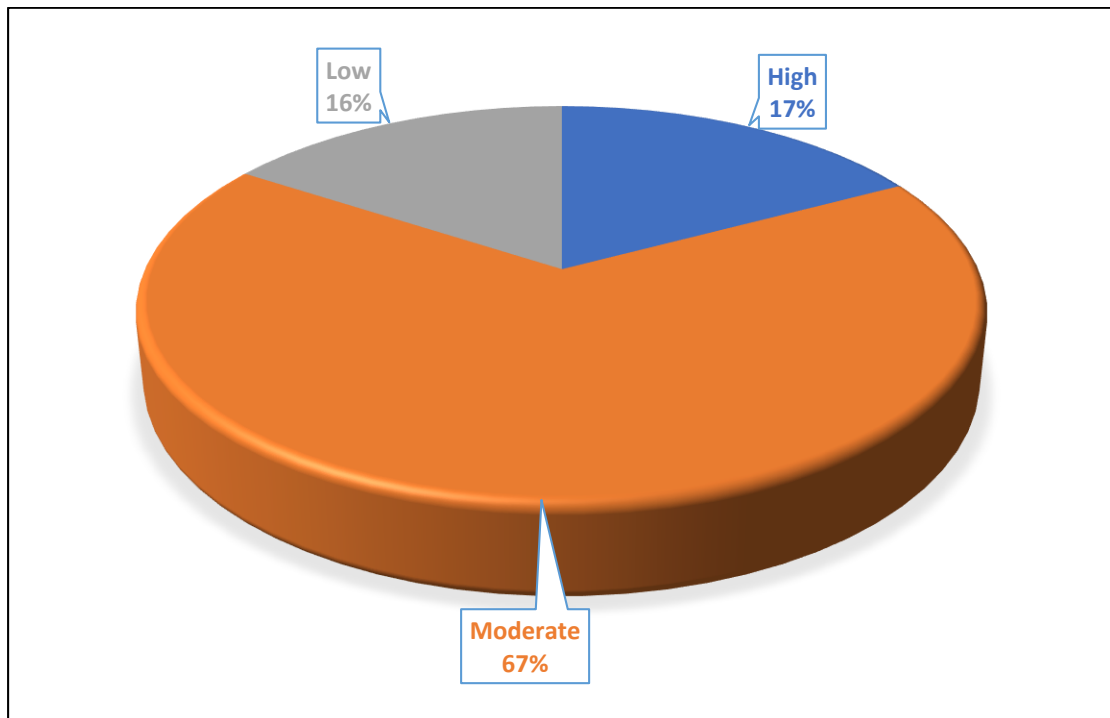
Level of Buoyancy

S. No.	Buoyancy	N	Percentage
1	High	90	17.2
2	Moderate	351	67.0
3	Low	83	15.8
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.22 reveals that 67% of the students have moderate buoyancy, 17.2% have high buoyancy, and 15.8% have low buoyancy.

Figure 4.19

Level of Academic Buoyancy



Self- efficacy

Table 4.23

Level of General Self-Efficacy

S. No.	General Self Efficacy	N	Percentage
1	High	76	14.6
2	Moderate	364	69.4
3	Low	84	16.0
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.23 shows the students' general self-efficacy level. It reveals that 69.4% have a moderate level of general self-efficacy, 16% have a low level of general self-efficacy, and 14.6% have a high level of general self-efficacy.

Figure 4.20

Level of General Self-Efficacy

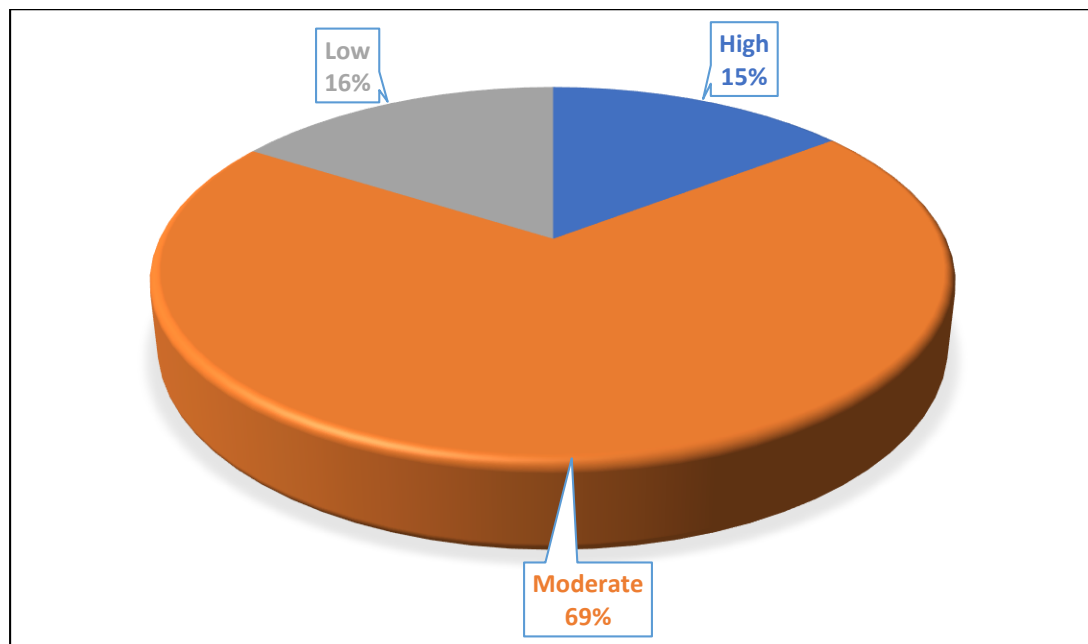


Table 4.24

Level of Social Self-Efficacy

S. No.	Social Self Efficacy	N	Percentage
1	High	97	18.6
2	Moderate	343	65.4
3	Low	84	16.0
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.24 reveals that 65.4% of the students have moderate social self-efficacy, 18.6% have high social self-efficacy, and 16% have low social self-efficacy.

Figure 4.21

Level of Social Self-Efficacy

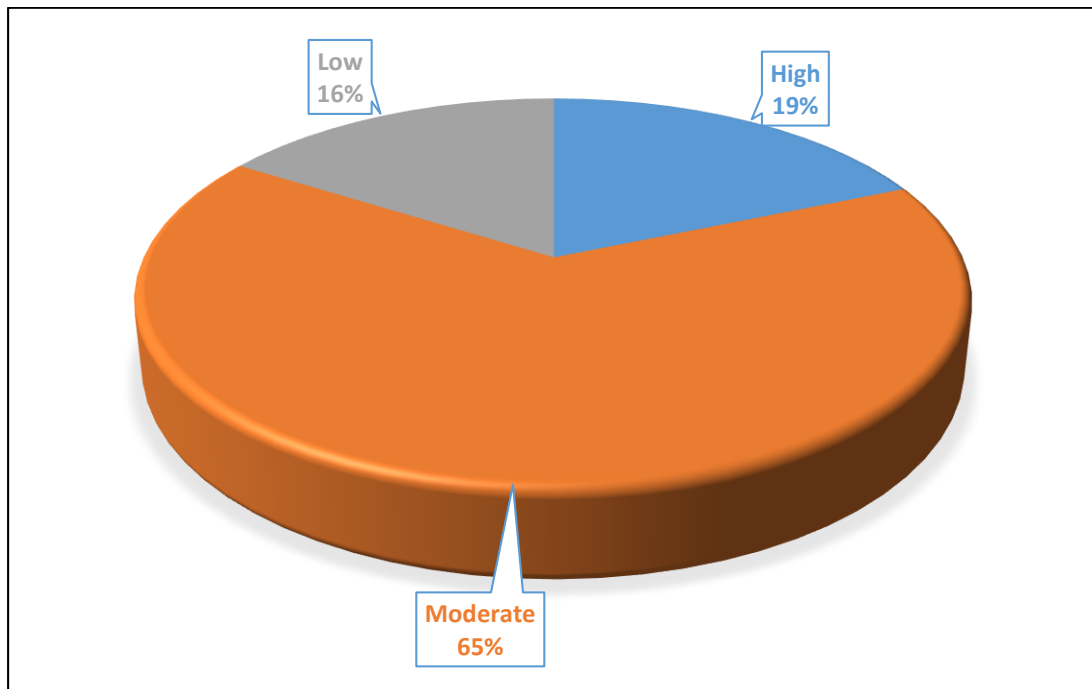


Table 4.25

Level of Self-Efficacy

S. No.	Self-Efficacy	n	Percentage
1	High	83	15.8
2	Moderate	364	69.4
3	Low	77	14.8
Total		524	100.0

Table 4.25 reveals that 69.4% of the students have a moderate level of self-efficacy, 15.8% have a high level of self-efficacy, and 14.8% have a low level of self-efficacy.

Figure 4.22

Level of Self-Efficacy

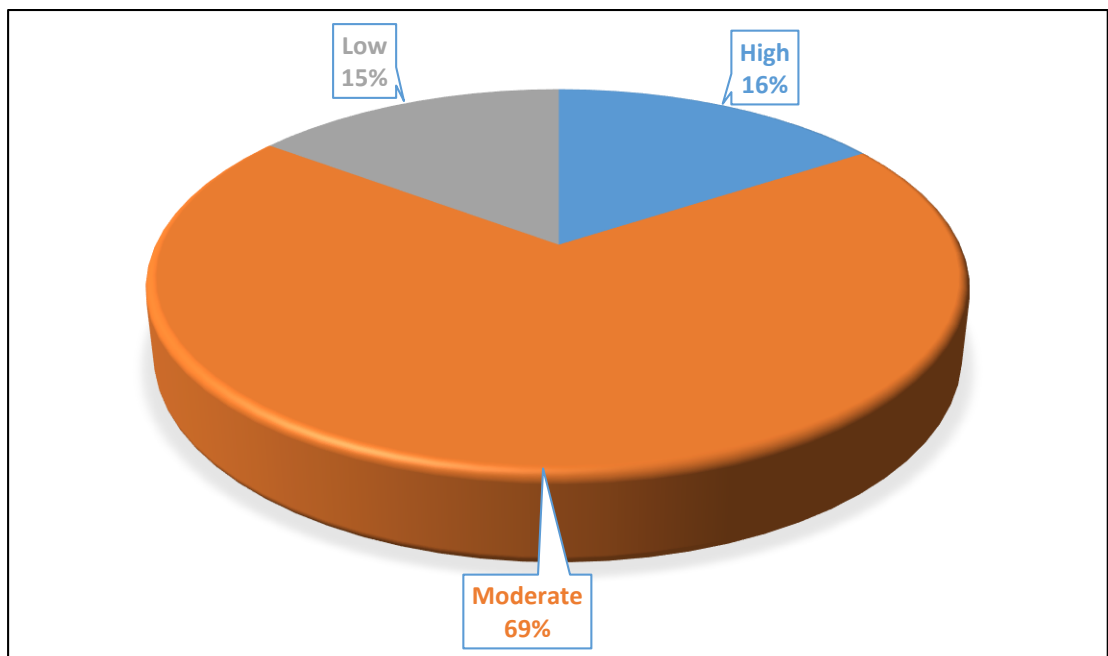


Table 4.26*Interrelationship among variables*

	Academic stress	Parenting Style	Academic Buoyancy	Self-efficacy	Hardiness
Academic stress	1	0.125**	-.516**	-.325**	-.379**
Parenting Style		1	-.153**	-.056	-.105*
Academic Buoyancy			1	.446**	.420
Self-efficacy				1	.479**
Hardiness					1

Table 4.26 showcases the correlation coefficients among several variables: academic stress, parenting style, academic buoyancy, self-efficacy, and hardiness. The correlation coefficient can vary from -1 to 1. A value closer to 1 or -1 signifies a stronger relationship, while a value near 0 indicates a weaker relationship. The diagonal line in the table represents the correlation of each variable with itself, which is invariably 1.

The correlation coefficient between academic stress and parenting style is $r = 0.125$, indicating a weak positive relationship. This suggests academic stress increases as the parenting style becomes more supportive without setting proper boundaries. The correlation coefficient between academic stress and buoyancy is -0.516 , indicating a moderate negative relationship. This suggests that as academic buoyancy increases, academic stress decreases. These results also confirmed a weak but statistically significant influence of parenting style on academic stress among students. However, parenting style accounts for only a small proportion of the variance in academic stress.

The findings show a weak negative relationship between academic stress and self-efficacy, $r = -0.325$. This suggests that as self-efficacy increases, academic stress decreases. Further, it is also reported that academic stress is significantly correlated

with hardiness, $r=-0.379$, indicating a weak negative relationship. This suggests that as hardiness increases, academic stress decreases.

The correlation coefficient between parenting style and academic buoyancy is -0.153 , indicating a weak negative relationship. This suggests that as parenting style becomes more supportive, academic buoyancy decreases.

The correlation coefficient between parenting style and self-efficacy is -0.056 , suggesting a weak negative, albeit insignificant, relationship. This implies that as the parenting style becomes more supportive, there is a slight decrease in self-efficacy. This finding appears to contradict the study conducted by Tam et al. (2012). Their research investigated the influence of different parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive) on adolescents' self-efficacy. They found that an authoritative parenting style had a significant positive association with self-efficacy, contributing 12.8% to students' self-efficacy.

The correlation coefficient between parenting style and hardiness is -0.105 , indicating a weak negative relationship. This suggests that hardiness may decrease slightly as the parenting style becomes more controlling.

The correlation coefficient between academic buoyancy and self-efficacy is 0.446 , indicating a moderate positive relationship. This suggests that as academic buoyancy increases, self-efficacy also tends to increase.

The correlation coefficient between academic buoyancy and hardiness stands at 0.420 , suggesting a moderately positive relationship. This implies that a slight increase in hardiness may be observed as academic buoyancy increases.

Similarly, the correlation coefficient between self-efficacy and hardiness is 0.479 , indicating a moderate positive relationship. This suggests that an increase in self-efficacy could potentially lead to an increase in hardiness.

The results indicate that the relationships among the variables examined in this study range from weak to moderate. However, it's important to note that the strength of these relationships is relatively low.

Table 4.27*Significance Test for Academic Stress based on Fathers Parental Style*

Academic Stress	Fathers Parental Style	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Result
Personal Inadequacy	Authoritative	215	8.71	5.68	F=19.116** P<0.01
	Negligent	202	13.10	6.20	
	Indulgent	47	11.60	5.57	
	Authoritarian	60	9.80	5.96	
Fear of Failure	Authoritative	215	6.82	4.54	F=13.635** P<0.01
	Negligent	202	10.13	6.11	
	Indulgent	47	9.57	4.82	
	Authoritarian	60	8.36	5.09	
Interpersonal Difficulties with Teacher	Authoritative	215	7.13	5.30	F=10.376** P<0.01
	Negligent	202	10.41	6.50	
	Indulgent	47	9.06	6.16	
	Authoritarian	60	8.36	5.49	
Teacher-Pupil relationship / Teaching Methods	Authoritative	215	8.04	6.24	F=7.090** P<0.01
	Negligent	202	11.04	6.98	
	Indulgent	47	9.33	6.08	
	Authoritarian	60	9.43	5.85	
Inadequate Study Facilities	Authoritative	215	8.75	5.67	F=7.232** P<0.01
	Negligent	202	11.51	6.44	
	Indulgent	47	10.64	5.36	
	Authoritarian	60	9.70	6.03	
Overall Academic Stress	Authoritative	215	39.47	23.81	F=14.142** P<0.01
	Negligent	202	56.21	28.59	
	Indulgent	47	50.22	24.58	
	Authoritarian	60	45.68	24.07	

** Significant at 0.01 level

*Significant at 0.05 level

The results of the ANOVA revealed significant variations in academic stress across dimensions based on fathers' parenting styles. Students with negligent fathers consistently reported the highest levels of academic stress, while those with authoritative fathers experienced the lowest levels. For instance, students with negligent fathers exhibited the highest mean scores in personal inadequacy ($M = 13.10$, $SD = 6.20$), compared to those with authoritative fathers ($M = 8.71$, $SD = 5.68$; $F = 19.116$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, fear of failure was significantly greater among students with negligent fathers ($F = 13.635$, $p < 0.01$). Negligent parenting was also associated with elevated levels of interpersonal difficulties with teachers ($F = 10.376$, $p < 0.01$) and inadequate teacher-pupil relationships ($F = 7.090$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, students with negligent fathers reported the highest mean scores in inadequate study facilities ($F = 7.232$, $p < 0.01$) and overall academic stress ($M = 56.21$, $SD = 28.60$), whereas those with authoritative fathers reported the lowest overall academic stress ($M = 39.47$, $SD = 23.81$; $F = 14.142$, $p < 0.01$).

These findings highlight the protective role of authoritative parenting in mitigating academic stress across all measured dimensions. In contrast, negligent parenting exacerbates stress, emphasizing the need for interventions that promote positive and supportive parenting practices. By synthesizing these observations, the analysis underscores the integral role of paternal involvement, particularly through authoritative parenting, in reducing students' academic stress and fostering their well-being.

Table 4.28*Significance Test for Academic Stress based on Mothers Parental Style*

Academic Stress	Mothers Parental Style	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Result
Personal Inadequacy	Authoritative	229	8.95	5.93	
	Negligent	187	13.08	6.21	F=16.198**
	Indulgent	56	11.37	5.16	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	52	10.10	5.96	
Fear of Failure	Authoritative	229	7.05	4.60	
	Negligent	187	10.23	6.12	F=11.981**
	Indulgent	56	9.11	4.90	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	52	8.30	5.52	
Interpersonal Difficulties with Teacher	Authoritative	229	7.27	5.40	
	Negligent	187	10.60	6.62	F=10.491**
	Indulgent	56	8.56	4.83	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	52	8.48	6.16	
Teacher-Pupil relationship / Teaching Methods	Authoritative	229	8.30	6.18	
	Negligent	187	11.10	7.14	F=6.216**
	Indulgent	56	8.96	4.88	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	52	9.34	6.95	
Inadequate Study Facilities	Authoritative	229	8.86	5.55	
	Negligent	187	11.42	6.67	F=6.096**
	Indulgent	56	10.70	5.31	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	52	10.12	6.19	
Overall Academic Stress	Authoritative	229	40.44	23.98	
	Negligent	187	56.44	29.07	F=12.487**
	Indulgent	56	48.71	21.67	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	52	46.34	26.87	

** Significant at 0.01 level

*Significant at 0.05 level

The ANOVA results given in the table above indicated significant variations in academic stress across dimensions based on mothers' parenting styles. Students with negligent mothers consistently reported the highest levels of academic stress, while those with authoritative mothers experienced the lowest levels. Specifically, personal inadequacy was significantly higher among students with negligent mothers ($M = 13.08$, $SD = 6.21$) compared to those with authoritative mothers ($M = 8.95$, $SD = 5.93$; $F = 16.198$, $p < .01$). Similar patterns were observed in fear of failure ($F = 11.981$, $p < .01$), interpersonal difficulties with teachers ($F = 10.491$, $p < .01$), teacher-pupil relationships ($F = 6.216$, $p < .01$), and inadequate study facilities ($F = 6.096$, $p < .01$). Overall academic stress was highest among students with negligent mothers ($M = 56.44$, $SD = 29.07$), while the lowest levels were reported by students with authoritative mothers ($M = 40.44$, $SD = 23.98$; $F = 12.487$, $p < .01$).

These findings highlight the protective influence of authoritative maternal parenting in mitigating academic stress across various dimensions. Students with authoritative mothers consistently reported lower stress levels, emphasizing the positive impact of this parenting approach. Conversely, negligent maternal parenting was associated with significantly higher stress levels, underscoring the need for interventions that promote supportive and engaged parenting practices. The analysis demonstrates the critical role of maternal involvement in reducing academic stress and enhancing student well-being.

Table 4.29*Significance Test for Academic Stress based on Parental Style*

Academic Stress	Parental Style	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Result
Personal Inadequacy	Authoritative	211	8.62	5.77	
	Negligent	201	13.16	6.16	F=20.931**
	Indulgent	53	11.82	5.33	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	59	9.53	5.75	
Fear of Failure	Authoritative	211	6.79	4.50	
	Negligent	201	10.19	6.10	F=14.744**
	Indulgent	53	9.74	4.76	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	59	7.94	5.20	
Interpersonal Difficulties with Teacher	Authoritative	211	7.01	5.19	
	Negligent	201	10.49	6.60	F=11.594**
	Indulgent	53	9.13	5.10	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	59	8.33	6.15	
Teacher-Pupil relationship / Teaching Methods	Authoritative	211	7.98	6.10	
	Negligent	201	11.09	7.14	F=7.586**
	Indulgent	53	9.17	4.92	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	59	9.55	6.59	
Inadequate Study Facilities	Authoritative	211	8.57	5.44	
	Negligent	201	11.52	6.51	F=8.478**
	Indulgent	53	11.06	5.52	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	59	9.80	6.28	
Overall Academic Stress	Authoritative	211	38.98	23.29	
	Negligent	201	56.45	28.85	F=15.500**
	Indulgent	53	50.94	22.33	P<0.01
	Authoritarian	59	45.18	25.85	

** Significant at 0.01 level

*Significant at 0.05 level

The ANOVA results provided in the table revealed significant variations in academic stress across dimensions based on parental styles. Students with negligent parents consistently reported the highest levels of academic stress, while those with authoritative parents experienced the lowest levels. For example, in the dimension of personal inadequacy, students with negligent parents exhibited the highest mean score ($M = 13.16$, $SD = 6.16$), compared to those with authoritative parents ($M = 8.62$, $SD = 5.77$; $F = 20.931$, $p < .01$). Similarly, fear of failure was significantly higher among students with negligent parents ($M = 10.19$, $SD = 6.10$), whereas those with authoritative parents reported the lowest scores ($M = 6.79$, $SD = 4.51$; $F = 14.744$, $p < .01$). Additional dimensions, including interpersonal difficulties with teachers ($F = 11.594$, $p < .01$), teacher-pupil relationships ($F = 7.586$, $p < .01$), and inadequate study facilities ($F = 8.478$, $p < .01$), also revealed significant differences, with students of negligent parents reporting higher stress levels. Overall academic stress was highest among students with negligent parents ($M = 56.45$, $SD = 28.85$), while the lowest levels were observed among students with authoritative parents ($M = 38.99$, $SD = 23.29$; $F = 15.500$, $p < .01$).

These findings underscore the critical influence of parenting styles on academic stress, highlighting the protective role of authoritative parenting in reducing stress across all measured dimensions. Authoritative parenting fosters healthier outcomes for students by promoting lower stress levels, while negligent parenting is consistently associated with heightened academic stress. This emphasizes the necessity of interventions aimed at educating parents on effective parenting strategies to support their children's academic and emotional well-being. By fostering balanced and supportive parental approaches, these interventions could play a vital role in enhancing students' resilience and reducing academic stress.

Table 4.30*Influence of Parenting Style on Academic Stress Among Students*

Independent Variable	Dependent variable	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	P value
Parenting Style	Academic stress	.125	.016	.014	26.68	.005

Table 4.30 provides an analysis of the impact of parenting styles on students' academic stress levels. A simple regression analysis was performed to understand the correlation between these two variables. In this analysis, academic stress served as the dependent variable, while the parenting style was the independent variable.

The model summary is presented in Table 4.30. The R value, which signifies the simple correlation, stands at 0.125. This suggests a minor positive correlation between the parenting style and academic stress. The R Square value is 0.016, implying that parenting style can explain about 1.6% of the variation in academic stress. The Adjusted R Square value, a slightly tweaked version of R Square that accounts for the number of predictors in the model, is 0.014.

The standard error of the estimate is 26.68, which represents the average deviation of the observed values from the regression line. A lower standard error would signify a more precise prediction by the model.

The p- value is 0.005, which is below the 0.05 threshold, indicating that the results hold statistical significance. Therefore, while the correlation between parenting style and academic stress is statistically significant, it is relatively minor.

In conclusion, the regression analysis indicates that parenting style has a statistically significant, but minor, impact on academic stress, accounting for only a small fraction of the variance (1.6%). The R Square value of 0.016 suggests that there are other significant factors influencing academic stress that were not included in the model, indicating a need for further research to identify and incorporate these variables.

A multitude of studies have explored the impact of parenting style on academic stress. The evidence consistently points to the fact that a positive and supportive parenting style is linked with lower levels of academic stress among students.

Sari & Sulistiyaningsih (2023) found that active parental involvement, communication, and positive parenting strategies effectively reduced academic stress. Uma & Manikandan (2014) found that parenting style significantly impacts adolescent academic stress.

The studies by Aunola & Nurmi (2005), Llorca, Richaud & Malonda (2017), and Chang and Schwartz (2013) provide additional support for the link between parenting style and academic stress. These studies consistently demonstrate that authoritative parenting, characterized by support, guidance, and autonomy, is associated with higher academic achievement and lower academic stress. In contrast, authoritarian parenting, which tends to be controlling and demanding, is linked to higher levels of academic stress.

Other similar studies by Hoeve et al. (2009) conducted a meta-analysis and found that authoritarian parenting was associated with an increased risk of adolescent problem behavior, which can contribute to heightened academic stress. Conversely, authoritative parenting was associated with a decreased risk for adolescent problem behavior, highlighting its role in reducing academic stress among students. Beyond parenting style, parental involvement is vital for academic success. A meta-analysis by Jeynes (2007) revealed a clear link between engaged parents and higher student achievement. This suggests that active participation from parents, beyond just their parenting approach, can significantly impact a student's educational journey. Therefore, fostering parental involvement could be a key strategy for enhancing academic outcomes.

This implies that parents actively engaged in their child's education and adopting a positive parenting style can help reduce academic stress and enhance academic performance.

In another study by Rimm-Kaufman & Pianta (2000), they conducted a meta-analytic review. They discovered that parenting style was positively related to children's

academic achievement and social-emotional adjustment in school. This suggests that a positive parenting style contributes to overall well-being and reduced academic stress in students. Blum and Rinehart (2000) conducted a study on adolescents. They found that those who reported having more supportive and authoritative parents have higher GPAs compared to those with less supportive and authoritarian parents. This finding indicates that a parenting style characterized by warmth, support, and guidance reduces academic stress and positively impacts academic performance. Studies by Grolnick & Ryan (1989) found that parents who fostered autonomy and self-regulation in their children have adolescents who were more self-regulated and less stressed about school. This suggests that an autonomy-supportive parenting style, which encourages independence and self-direction, contributes to lower levels of academic stress among students.

The findings from this research and these previous studies revealed that authoritative parenting style predicted better academic performance and lower academic stress in school and college students, while controlling and demanding parenting styles, such as authoritarian parenting, were associated with higher levels of academic stress. The body of research discussed here strongly supports the notion that a more favorable parenting style is associated with lower levels of academic stress among students. The studies demonstrate that authoritative parenting, characterized by warmth, support, autonomy, and active involvement, is beneficial for academic achievement and well-being, reducing academic stress. These findings highlight the importance of positive parenting practices in promoting positive developmental outcomes and reducing academic stress among students.

Table 4.31

Predicting Academic Stress through Self-Efficacy

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.349	.122	.118	25.22

The R value (0.349) indicated in the table above shows the relationship between the independent variable (general self efficacy and social self-efficacy) and dependent variable (Academic Stress). It is clear that, there is a significant relationship found between self efficacy and academic stress.

The above table reveals that, 12.2 percent of the variation in the dependent variable (academic stress) is explained by the independent variable (general self efficacy and social self-efficacy).

The analysis indicates a significant relationship between self-efficacy (general self-efficacy and social self-efficacy) and academic stress, as reflected by the R value (0.349). Additionally, the results reveal that 12.2% of the variation in academic stress is explained by self-efficacy. These findings highlight the importance of self-efficacy as a contributing factor to academic stress, emphasizing its role in students' ability to manage stress effectively.

Table 4.32

ANOVA for Regression Model Predicting Self-efficacy

	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	43836.157	2	21918.079	34.446	.000
	Residual	316239.225	497	636.296		
	Total	360075.382	499			

The above table shows whether the amount of variation accounted by R-square is significant. It also explains the overall effect of the independent variable (general self efficacy and social self-efficacy) on the dependent variable (academic stress) is significant. From the ANOVA value (F=34.446; P<0.01) it is concluded that the overall model is statistically significant or the independent variable have a significant effect over the dependent variable.

The analysis confirms that the variation accounted for by the R-square is statistically significant, indicating a meaningful overall effect of the independent variables (general self-efficacy and social self-efficacy) on the dependent variable

(academic stress). The ANOVA value ($F = 34.446$, $p < 0.01$) demonstrates that the overall model is statistically significant, underscoring the significant impact of self-efficacy on academic stress. These results highlight the predictive power of self-efficacy in explaining variations in academic stress.

Table 4.33

Coefficients of the Regression Model for Predicting academic stress

	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	110.765	8.798		12.590	.000
	General Self Efficacy	-1.143	.145	-.354	-7.905	.000
	Social Self Efficacy	.111	.347	.014	.320	.749

The regression test result given in the table reveals that, R-square values was significant with an ANOVA value of 34.446 and p-value lesser than 0.01, thus using the values of the coefficient (beta) from the regression coefficient table above the estimated linear regression equation is given below

$$Y = 146.062 + 0.354 (X1) + 0.014 (X2)$$

For the above proposed model, Y represents the dependent variable (academic stress) and X represents the independent variable (general self efficacy and social self-efficacy). On the basis of beta coefficients (regression coefficients) from the above table. Where; Constant (intercept), beta (0) = 110.765 represents when the value of the independent variable (general self efficacy and social self-efficacy) is zero, the academic stress would take the value 146.062. Beta(1) indicates that one unit increase in the general self efficacy results in -0.354 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 7.905 with (P-value = 0.00 < 0.05) is also significant. Beta(2) indicates that one unit increase in the social self-efficacy results in -0.014 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 0.320 with (P-value = 0.00 > 0.05) is not significant.

The regression analysis confirms that the proposed model is statistically significant, with an R-square value supported by an ANOVA value of 34.446 ($p < 0.01$). The results show that general self-efficacy significantly reduces academic stress, as indicated by the beta coefficient (-0.354 , $p < 0.05$). However, social self-efficacy does not have a significant impact on academic stress (-0.014 , $p > 0.05$). These findings emphasize the importance of general self-efficacy in alleviating academic stress.

Table 4.34

Influence of Self-Efficacy on Academic Stress among Students

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Sig.
Self-efficacy	Academic stress	.325 ^a	.106	.104	25.42	.000

Table 4.34 provides an analysis of the impact of self-efficacy on students' academic stress levels. A simple regression analysis was performed to understand the correlation between these two variables. In this analysis, academic stress served as the dependent variable, while self-efficacy was the independent variable.

The model summary is presented in Table 4.32. The R value, which signifies the simple correlation, stands at 0.325. This suggests a moderate negative correlation between self-efficacy and academic stress. The R Square value is 0.106, implying that self-efficacy can explain about 10.6% of the variation in academic stress. The Adjusted R Square value, a slightly tweaked version of R Square that accounts for the number of predictors in the model, is 0.104.

The standard error of the estimate is 25.42, which represents the average deviation of the observed values from the regression line. A lower standard error would signify a more precise prediction by the model.

The significance value (Sig.) is 0.000, which is below the 0.05 threshold, indicating that the results hold statistical significance. Therefore, the correlation between self-efficacy and academic stress is significant.

In conclusion, the regression analysis indicates that self-efficacy has a statistically significant, but moderate, impact on academic stress, accounting for 10.6% of the variance. The results suggest a significant negative influence of self-efficacy on academic stress among students. These findings are supported by various other previous studies.

The influence of self-efficacy on academic stress and performance has been the subject of numerous studies. The consensus among researchers is that students with higher self-efficacy tend to experience less academic stress and perform better academically.

A multitude of research has delved into the correlation between self-efficacy and a variety of academic results. A notable study by Pintrich & De Groot in 1990 focused on college students. Their findings revealed that students with a stronger belief in their academic abilities were more inclined to establish ambitious objectives, demonstrate resilience in the face of obstacles, and employ effective learning techniques.

This implies that students who have a robust conviction in their academic success are more likely to have lower stress levels and superior academic achievements.

A comprehensive meta-analysis by Pajares (1996) affirmed the significant role of self-efficacy in predicting academic success across a range of subjects and educational levels. This suggests that students who are confident in their academic abilities are more likely to experience less stress and achieve greater academic success.

Further research by Chee et al. (2019) honed in on undergraduate students in Malaysia, discovering that self-efficacy was a crucial determinant of both academic stress and achievement. This suggests that students with a strong sense of self-efficacy are more likely to experience lower levels of academic stress and achieve better academic outcomes.

Supporting these findings, a study by Lee et al. (2020) examined the effect of self-efficacy on academic stress and performance among high school students. The study found a negative correlation between self-efficacy and academic stress, suggesting that students with higher self-efficacy tend to experience lower levels of academic stress.

In conclusion, these studies collectively highlight the significant impact of self-efficacy on academic stress and performance. They underscore the importance of fostering self-efficacy among students to mitigate academic stress and enhance academic performance.

A meta-analysis by Garcia et al. (2021) explored the correlation between self-efficacy and academic stress among university students. The results affirmed a significant negative correlation, suggesting that students with higher self-efficacy experienced less academic stress.

Zimmerman et al. (1992) conducted a study focusing on the relationship between self-efficacy, stress, and academic success among college students. The findings indicated that students with higher self-efficacy experienced less academic stress.

Chemers et al. (2001) investigated the correlation between self-efficacy, coping strategies, and academic performance among college students. The study revealed that students with higher self-efficacy experienced less academic stress and performed better academically.

Richardson et al. (2012) conducted a study focusing on first-year university students. The study explored the relationship between self-efficacy, stress, and academic performance. The findings indicated that students with higher self-efficacy experienced less stress and performed better academically.

In conclusion, these studies collectively highlight the significant impact of self-efficacy on academic stress and performance. They emphasize the significance of cultivating self-efficacy in students to reduce academic stress and improve academic performance.

In essence, a substantial body of research underscores the notion that elevated levels of self-efficacy correlate with diminished academic stress and enhanced academic performance among students. These insights emphasize the significance of nurturing a sense of self-confidence and belief in students' academic capabilities. By bolstering self-efficacy, educational practitioners and parents may have the potential to alleviate academic stress and foster improved academic results for students.

Table 4.35*Predicting Academic Stress through Hardiness**Model Summary*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.499	.249	.244	23.35

The R value (0.449) indicated in the table shows the relationship between the independent variable (commitment, control and challenge) and dependent variable (Academic Stress). It is clear that, there is a significant relationship found between hardiness and academic stress.

The above table reveals that, 24.9 percent of the variation in the dependent variable (academic stress) is explained by the independent variable (commitment, control and challenge).

The analysis reveals a significant relationship between hardiness (commitment, control, and challenge) and academic stress, as indicated by the R value (0.449). Furthermore, 24.9% of the variation in academic stress is explained by these independent variables, highlighting the influence of hardiness components on students' academic stress levels.

Table 4.36*ANOVA for Regression Model with Predictors of academic stress*

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	89506.079	3	29835.360	54.693	.000
	Residual	270569.303	496	545.503		
	Total	360075.382	499			

The above table shows whether the amount of variation accounted by R-square is significant. It also explains the overall effect of the independent variable (commitment, control and challenge) on the dependent variable (academic stress) is

significant. From the ANOVA value ($F=54.693; P<0.01$) it is concluded that the overall model is statistically significant or the independent variable have a significant effect over the dependent variable.

The analysis confirms that the variation accounted for by the R-square is statistically significant, indicating a meaningful overall effect of the independent variables (commitment, control, and challenge) on the dependent variable (academic stress). The ANOVA value ($F = 54.693, p < 0.01$) demonstrates that the overall model is significant, highlighting the strong influence of these hardiness components on academic stress.

Table 4.37

Coefficients of the Regression Model for Predicting academic stress Based on Hardiness subscales

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	146.092	15.382		9.497	.000
Commitment	-2.181	.235	-.418	-9.298	.000
Control	-.617	.267	-.104	-2.309	.021
Challenge	.572	.264	.086	2.169	.031

The regression test result shown in the table reveals that, R-square values was significant with an ANOVA value of 54.639 and p-value lesser than 0.01, thus using the values of the coefficient (beta) from the regression coefficient table above the estimated linear regression equation is given below

$$Y = 146.062 + 0.418 (X1) + 0.104 (X2) + 0.086 (X3)$$

For the above proposed model, Y represents the dependent variable (academic stress) and X represents the independent variable (commitment, control and challenge). On the basis of beta coefficients (regression coefficients) from the above table. Where; Constant (intercept), beta (0) = 146.062 represents when the value of the independent variable (commitment, control, challenge) is zero, the academic stress would take the

value 146.062. Beta(1) indicates that one unit increase in the commitment results in -0.418 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 9.298 with (P-value = 0.00 <0.05) is also significant. Beta(2) indicates that one unit increase in the control results in -0.104 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 2.309 with (P-value = 0.00 <0.05) is also significant. Beta (3) indicates that one unit increase in the challenge results in -0.086 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 2.169 with (P-value = 0.00 <0.05) is also significant.

The regression analysis confirms that the proposed model is statistically significant, with an R-square value supported by an ANOVA value of 54.639 ($p < 0.01$). The regression equation $Y = 146.062 - 0.418(X_1) - 0.104(X_2) - 0.086(X_3)$ shows that academic stress decreases with increases in commitment (X_1), control (X_2), and challenge (X_3). Specifically, a one-unit increase in commitment, control, and challenge reduces academic stress by 0.418, 0.104, and 0.086 units, respectively, with all coefficients being statistically significant ($p < 0.05$, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.05$). These results emphasize the significant role of hardiness components in reducing academic stress.

Table 4.38

Influence of Hardiness on Academic Stress Among Students

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Sig.
Hardiness	Academic stress	.379 ^a	.144	.142	24.88	.000

Table 4.38 provides an analysis of the impact of hardiness on students' academic stress levels. A simple regression analysis was performed to understand the correlation between these two variables. In this analysis, academic stress served as the dependent variable, while hardiness was the independent variable.

The model summary is presented in Table 4.38. The R value, which signifies the simple correlation, stands at 0.379. This suggests a moderate negative correlation

between hardiness and academic stress. The R Square value is 0.144, implying that hardiness can explain about 14.4% of the variation in academic stress. The Adjusted R Square value, a slightly tweaked version of R Square that accounts for the number of predictors in the model, is 0.142.

The standard error of the estimate is 24.88, which represents the average deviation of the observed values from the regression line. A lower standard error would signify a more precise prediction by the model.

The significance value (Sig.) is 0.000, which is below the 0.05 threshold, indicating that the results hold statistical significance. Therefore, the correlation between hardiness and academic stress is significant.

In conclusion, the regression analysis indicates that hardiness has a statistically significant, but moderate, impact on academic stress, accounting for 14.4% of the variance. The results suggest a significant negative influence of hardiness on academic stress among students. These findings are supported by various other previous studies.

In essence, the regression analysis indicates that hardiness has a significant influence on academic stress, accounting for 14.4% of the variance. This suggests that hardiness plays a considerable role in shaping academic stress levels.

The findings reveal a noteworthy negative impact of hardiness on academic stress among students. These insights are corroborated by numerous other prior studies.

This discourse seeks to reinforce analogous findings on the correlation between academic stress and hardiness, as observed in the referenced studies. The collective insights from Abdollahi et al. (2020), Hystad et al. (2009), Kamtsios & Karagiannopoulou (2015), and Sawatzky (1998) enrich our comprehension of the effects of academic stress on students' well-being and the potential alleviating role of hardiness.

The study by Abdollahi et al. (2020) suggests that a sense of belonging in school and academic hardiness are significant predictors of academic stress among high school students. This is in line with the findings of Hystad et al. (2009), which show that students with higher levels of hardiness experience less academic stress at the university level.

This is further corroborated by the research of Kamtsios & Karagiannopoulou (2015), who underscore the correlation between academic stressors and academic hardiness among undergraduate students. They emphasize the importance of addressing and fostering hardiness.

These studies collectively highlight the crucial role of hardiness in managing academic stress and promoting student well-being. The current research, along with previous studies, supports the idea that hardiness can significantly alleviate the adverse effects of academic stress.

Table 4.39

Predicting Academic Stress through Academic Buoyancy

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.694	.481	.430	19.99

The R value (0.694) indicated the relationship between the independent variable (Academic Co-Ordination, Academic Clarity, Composure, Academic Climate, Academic Confidence, Academic Commitment and Self-Confidence) and dependent variable (Academic Stress). It is clear that, there is a significant relationship found between hardiness and academic stress. The above table reveals that, 48.1 percent of the variation in the dependent variable (academic stress) is explained by the independent variable (Academic Co-Ordination, Academic Clarity, Composure, Academic Climate, Academic Confidence, Academic Commitment and Self-Confidence).

The analysis reveals a significant relationship between hardiness factors (Academic Co-ordination, Academic Clarity, Composure, Academic Climate, Academic Confidence, Academic Commitment, and Self-Confidence) and academic stress, as indicated by the R value (0.694). Additionally, 48.1% of the variation in academic stress is explained by these independent variables, highlighting the substantial influence of these factors on students' academic stress levels.

Table 4.40*ANOVA for Regression Model Predictors of academic stress subscales*

	Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	26335.983	7	3762.283	9.416	.000
	Residual	28369.460	71	399.570		
	Total	54705.443	78			

The above table shows whether the amount of variation accounted by R-square is significant. It also explains the overall effect of the independent variable (Academic Co-Ordination, Academic Clarity, Composure, Academic Climate, Academic Confidence, Academic Commitment and Self-Confidence) on the dependent variable (academic stress) is significant. From the ANOVA value ($F=9.416$; $P<0.01$) it is concluded that the overall model is statistically significant or the independent variable have a significant effect over the dependent variable.

The analysis confirms that the variation accounted for by the R-square is statistically significant, indicating a meaningful overall effect of the independent variables (Academic Co-ordination, Academic Clarity, Composure, Academic Climate, Academic Confidence, Academic Commitment, and Self-Confidence) on the dependent variable (academic stress). The ANOVA value ($F = 9.416$, $p<0.01$) demonstrates that the overall model is statistically significant, highlighting the significant impact of these academic factors on academic stress.

Table 4.41

Coefficients of the Regression Model for Predicting academic stress Based on Academic Buoyancy

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	159.907	18.247		8.763	.000
Academic Co-Ordination	-1.738	.839	-.238	-2.071	.042
Academic Clarity	-.923	.992	-.109	-.931	.355
Composure	-.370	.977	-.044	-.379	.706
Academic Climate	-1.233	1.118	-.115	-1.103	.274
Academic Confidence	-3.336	.804	-.388	-4.148	.000
Academic Commitment	-.652	1.747	-.043	-.373	.710
Self-Confidence	-.586	1.613	-.040	-.363	.718

The regression test result reveals that, R-square values was significant with an ANOVA value of 9.416 and p-value lesser than 0.01, thus using the values of the coefficient (beta) from the regression coefficient table above the estimated linear regression equation is given below

$$Y = 9.416 + 0.238 (X1) + 0.109 (X2) + 0.044 (X3) + 0.115 (X4) + 0.388 (X5) + 0.43 (X6) + 0.040 (X7)$$

For the above proposed model, Y represents the dependent variable (academic stress) and X represents the independent variable (Academic Co-Ordination, Academic Clarity, Composure, Academic Climate, Academic Confidence, Academic Commitment and Self-Confidence). On the basis of beta coefficients (regression coefficients) from the above table. Where; Constant (intercept), beta (0) = 159.907 represents when the value of the independent variable (Academic Co-Ordination, Academic Clarity, Composure, Academic Climate, Academic Confidence, Academic Commitment and Self-Confidence) is zero.

Commitment and Self-Confidence) is zero, the academic stress would take the value 159.907. Beta(1) indicates that one unit increase in the Academic Co-Ordination results in -0.238 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 2.071 with (P-value = 0.00 <0.05) is also significant. Beta(2) indicates that one unit increase in the Academic Clarity results in -0.109 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 0.931 with (P-value >0.05) is not significant. Beta (3) indicates that one unit increase in the Composure results in -0.044 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 0.931 with (P-value >0.05) is not significant. Beta (4) indicates that one unit increase in the Academic Climate results in -0.115 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 1.103 with (P-value >0.05) is not significant. Beta (5) indicates that one unit increase in the Academic Confidence results in -0.388 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 4.148 with (P-value <0.05) is also significant. Beta (6) indicates that one unit increase in the Academic commitment results in -0.043 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 0.373 with (P-value >0.05) is not significant. Beta (6) indicates that one unit increase in the Self-Confidence results in -0.040 units decrease in the academic stress and t value = 0.363 with (P-value >0.05) is not significant. Thus, it is clear that academic co-ordination and academic confidence are the significant predictors of academic stress.

The regression analysis indicates that the proposed model is statistically significant, with an R-square value supported by an ANOVA value of 9.416 ($p < 0.01$). The regression equation $Y = 159.907 - 0.238(X1) - 0.109(X2) - 0.044(X3) - 0.115(X4) - 0.388(X5) - 0.043(X6) - 0.040(X7)$ shows that academic stress decreases with increases in academic co-ordination and academic confidence. Specifically, a one-unit increase in academic co-ordination and academic confidence leads to a decrease in academic stress by 0.238 and 0.388 units, respectively, with both coefficients being statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). However, academic clarity, composure, academic climate, academic commitment, and self-confidence were not found to be significant predictors of academic stress. These findings emphasize the importance of academic co-ordination and academic confidence in reducing academic stress.

Table 4.42*Influence of Academic Buoyancy on academic stress among students*

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Sig.
Academic Buoyancy	Academic stress	.516 ^a	.266	.265	23.02	.000

Table 4.42 provides an analysis of the impact of academic buoyancy on students' academic stress levels. A simple regression analysis was performed to understand the correlation between these two variables. In this analysis, academic stress served as the dependent variable, while academic buoyancy was the independent variable.

The model summary is presented in Table 4.42. The R value, which signifies the simple correlation, stands at 0.516. This suggests a moderate negative correlation between academic buoyancy and academic stress. The R Square value is 0.266, implying that academic buoyancy can explain about 26.6% of the variation in academic stress. The Adjusted R Square value, a slightly tweaked version of R Square that accounts for the number of predictors in the model, is 0.265.

The standard error of the estimate is 23.02, which represents the average deviation of the observed values from the regression line. A lower standard error would signify a more precise prediction by the model.

The significance value (Sig.) is 0.000, which is below the 0.05 threshold, indicating that the results hold statistical significance. Therefore, the correlation between academic buoyancy and academic stress is significant.

In conclusion, the regression analysis indicates that academic buoyancy has a statistically significant, but moderate, impact on academic stress, accounting for 26.6% of the variance. The results suggest a significant negative influence of academic buoyancy on academic stress among students. These findings are supported by various other previous studies.

In essence, the regression analysis indicates that academic buoyancy significantly influences academic stress, accounting for 26.6% of the variance. This suggests that academic buoyancy plays a considerable role in shaping academic stress levels.

The relationship between academic buoyancy and academic stress is supported by numerous studies, reinforcing the findings of the current research. These studies collectively highlight the significant impact of academic buoyancy on academic stress.

The research conducted by Martin & Marsh (2008) revealed a correlation between higher levels of academic buoyancy and lower levels of academic stress. This implies that students with a higher degree of academic buoyancy are more equipped to handle obstacles and challenges, resulting in decreased stress levels. This finding is consistent with the idea that academic buoyancy enables students to recover from academic hurdles and sustain resilience when confronted with stress.

In a comprehensive review and meta-analysis, Leppin et al. (2014) scrutinized the effectiveness of resilience training programs. These programs included interventions aimed at boosting academic buoyancy with the goal of mitigating stress. Although their focus was not strictly on academic stress, their findings highlighted the beneficial impacts of resilience interventions in fostering mental well-being and diminishing stress levels. These interventions indirectly alleviate academic stress by bolstering individuals' overall resilience.

A pertinent study by Martin et al. (2012) delved into the notion of adaptability and its correlation with academic outcomes, encompassing stress. While the study did not directly concentrate on academic stress, it underscored the significance of adaptability in navigating challenges and uncertainties in academic environments. A higher degree of adaptability was linked with positive adaptation and diminished stress, suggesting that individuals demonstrating superior adaptability may encounter lower levels of academic stress.

A study conducted by Houghton & Anderson (2017) delved into the mutual relationship between academic buoyancy and psychological risk factors, encompassing academic stress. Their findings revealed that elevated levels of academic buoyancy correlated with reduced levels of academic stress. Conversely, lower levels of

psychological risk were linked with increased levels of academic buoyancy. This implies that bolstering academic buoyancy could potentially diminish academic stress and foster overall well-being.

Furthermore, Putwain et al. (2015) conducted a study that specifically examined the correlation between test anxiety, academic buoyancy, and exam performance. Their research revealed a reciprocal relationship between the worry aspect of test anxiety and academic buoyancy. Higher academic buoyancy levels were associated with improved exam performance, while increased worry was linked to lower performance. This highlights the role of academic buoyancy in alleviating test anxiety and its beneficial impact on academic achievement. Taken together, these studies offer compelling evidence supporting the correlation between academic buoyancy and academic stress, which is consistent with the findings of the current study.

Conclusion

The analysis presented in this Chapter gives valuable insights into the multifaceted influences on academic stress among high school students. This section synthesizes the findings and connects them to the research objectives, emphasizing their significance and implications.

Objective 1: Influence of Parenting Style on Academic Stress

The study reveals significant variations in academic stress across different parenting styles. Authoritative parenting emerges as a protective factor, consistently associated with lower levels of academic stress, while negligent parenting correlates with elevated stress levels. These findings underscore the importance of supportive and structured parental practices in mitigating academic stress. This aligns with existing literature that highlights the beneficial effects of authoritative parenting on students' well-being and academic outcomes.

Objective 2: Influence of Self-Efficacy on Academic Stress

The analysis confirms a significant negative relationship between self-efficacy and academic stress. General self-efficacy, in particular, demonstrates a strong protective influence, reducing stress levels significantly. These findings highlight the critical role of self-efficacy in fostering resilience and coping mechanisms among

students. Building students' confidence in their abilities could serve as an effective strategy to alleviate academic stress and improve performance.

Objective 3: Influence of Hardiness on Academic Stress

The study identifies hardiness—encompassing commitment, control, and challenge—as a significant predictor of academic stress. Students with higher levels of hardiness experience reduced stress, suggesting that fostering these traits can enhance students' capacity to navigate academic challenges. The findings emphasize the need for interventions that build resilience and adaptability in students.

Objective 4: Influence of Academic Buoyancy on Academic Stress

Academic buoyancy—characterized by factors such as academic coordination, confidence, and composure—emerges as a critical determinant of stress levels. A moderate negative correlation between academic buoyancy and stress suggests that students who exhibit higher buoyancy are better equipped to handle academic pressures. This underscores the importance of fostering a positive academic environment that supports students' emotional and academic resilience.

Objective 5: Interrelationship among Parenting Style, Self-Efficacy, Hardiness, Academic Buoyancy, and Stress

The study highlights complex interrelationships among the examined variables. Academic buoyancy and self-efficacy exhibit moderate positive correlations with hardiness, suggesting interconnected pathways through which these traits influence stress. Additionally, while parenting style shows a weaker influence, its interplay with other variables emphasizes the need for a holistic approach to understanding academic stress. Collectively, these findings suggest that fostering supportive parenting, enhancing self-efficacy, and cultivating hardiness and buoyancy can create a synergistic effect in reducing stress.

Implications

The results of this study provide a comprehensive understanding of the factors influencing academic stress among high school students. The findings emphasize the need for:

- **Parental Interventions:** Encouraging authoritative parenting practices to provide the support and structure necessary for reducing stress.
- **Educational Strategies:** Incorporating programs that build self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy, empowering students to manage academic challenges effectively.
- **Holistic Approaches:** Recognizing the interconnected nature of the factors and designing interventions that address multiple dimensions of students' experiences.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS

This study aimed to determine the effect of independent factors, namely Parenting Style, Self-efficacy, Hardiness, and Academic Buoyancy, on dependent variable, namely Academic stress in adolescents. The sample population involved 524 students from secondary schools, of which 257 (49%) were girls and 267(51%) were boys. The pupils were from classes 9 and 10th grade. The pupils were chosen from schools in the Palakkad district.

The analysis revealed significant insights into how these independent factors influence academic stress among adolescents. The findings indicate that the interplay between parenting styles and students' self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy significantly impacts their academic stress levels.

5.1 Summary and Conclusions

Objectives of the Study

1. To study the influence of parenting style on academic stress among students.
2. To study the influence of self-efficacy on academic stress among students.
3. To study the influence of hardiness on academic stress among students.
4. To study the influence of academic buoyancy on academic stress.
5. To study the interrelationship between parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, academic buoyancy, and stress among high school students.

Hypotheses

1. There will be a significant relationship between academic stress and parenting style among high school students.
2. There will be a significant relationship between academic stress and self-efficacy among high school students.
3. There will be a significant relationship between academic stress and hardiness among high school students.

4. There will be a significant relationship between academic stress and academic buoyancy among high school students.
5. There will be significant interrelationships among parenting style, self-efficacy and hardiness, and academic buoyancy and stress among high school students.

5.2 Research Design

The focus of this research is to explore the impact of factors such as parenting style, self-belief, resilience, and buoyancy on the academic stress experienced by high school students. The study employed a multistage random sampling technique to identify the student population for the investigation.

Palakkad district, with its 221 schools and three educational sub-districts, served as the geographical context for the study. Within these educational districts, there are 12 sub-districts. A random selection process was used to choose six of these sub-districts. Subsequently, six schools were randomly picked from each selected sub-district, resulting in a total of 36 schools being included in the study.

Data collection was carried out using a survey methodology. From the 36 chosen schools, a total of 720 students were randomly selected to participate in the survey. However, 196 of these surveyed samples had to be excluded due to incomplete or incorrect entries. This led to a final sample size of 524 students, which formed the basis for the subsequent analysis.

The present research study involves five variables, i.e., parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, academic buoyancy, and academic stress. Since using quantitative methods for hypothesis testing produces results with improved reliability and validity, the quantitative method has been used to quantify the obtained data for an additional outcome analysis.

5.3 Research Outline

Topic

Influence of Parenting Style, Self-Efficacy, Hardiness and Academic Buoyancy on Academic Stress among Secondary School Students

- First Phase: A survey of randomly selected 524 students from schools in Palakkad district was conducted.
- Second Phase: Tabulation and analysis of data was completed, and conclusions were made.
- Third Phase: Thesis writing and submission were completed.

a. Summary

This study delves into the impact of various elements such as parenting style, self-belief, resilience, and academic buoyancy on the academic stress experienced by students. The results indicate that these elements contribute to academic stress in different ways:

The correlation analysis among the variables revealed the following relationships:

Academic stress showed a weak positive correlation with parenting style ($r=0.125$) and moderate negative correlations with academic buoyancy ($r=-0.516$), self-efficacy ($r=-0.325$), and hardiness ($r=-0.379$).

There were weak negative correlations between parenting style and academic buoyancy ($r=-0.153$), self-efficacy ($r=-0.056$), and hardiness ($r=-0.105$), indicating minimal impact on these factors.

Moderate positive correlations were found between academic buoyancy and self-efficacy ($r=0.446$), academic buoyancy and hardiness ($r=0.420$), and self-efficacy and hardiness ($r=0.479$), suggesting that increases in academic buoyancy are associated with increases in self-efficacy and hardiness.

Parenting Style: The statistical analysis highlights the significant influence of fathers' parenting styles on various dimensions of academic stress among students. The ANOVA results reveal substantial variations ($p < 0.01$) in personal inadequacy, fear of failure, interpersonal difficulties with teachers, teacher-pupil relationships, and inadequate study facilities based on fathers' parenting styles. Students with negligent fathers consistently exhibit higher levels of stress across all dimensions, including overall academic stress, emphasizing the adverse effects of this parenting approach. Conversely, students with authoritative fathers report the lowest stress

levels, underscoring the positive impact of this balanced and supportive parenting style. These findings affirm the pivotal role of paternal involvement and parenting style in shaping students' academic stress and emotional well-being, highlighting the need for awareness and interventions to promote effective parenting practices.

The statistical analysis reveals a significant impact of mothers' parenting styles on various dimensions of academic stress among students. The ANOVA results show notable variations ($p < 0.01$) in personal inadequacy, fear of failure, interpersonal difficulties with teachers, teacher-pupil relationships, and inadequate study facilities based on mothers' parenting styles. Students with negligent mothers consistently reported higher levels of stress across all dimensions, including overall academic stress, highlighting the detrimental effects of this parenting approach. In contrast, students with authoritative mothers experienced the lowest levels of academic stress, demonstrating the positive influence of this supportive and balanced parenting style. These findings underscore the critical role of maternal involvement and effective parenting practices in reducing academic stress and fostering student well-being. Overall, the statistical analysis highlights the significant variations in academic stress and its dimensions based on parenting style, as evidenced by the ANOVA results ($p < 0.01$). Students with negligent parenting styles exhibited higher levels of personal inadequacy, fear of failure, interpersonal difficulties with teachers, issues in teacher-pupil relationships, and inadequate study facilities. Furthermore, their overall academic stress was notably higher. These findings underscore the importance of parenting styles in shaping students' academic and emotional challenges, particularly emphasizing the negative impact of negligent parenting on students' stress levels and educational experiences.

The regression analysis indicates that parenting style has a statistically significant, albeit modest, effect on academic stress, with an R value of 0.125 and an R Square value of 0.016, explaining 1.6% of the variance in academic stress. A p-value of 0.005 confirms the significance of this relationship, demonstrating that while the effect size is small, parenting style contributes meaningfully to students' academic stress. The findings further underscore the protective role of authoritative parenting in reducing stress levels across all dimensions, while negligent parenting is

consistently linked to the highest levels of stress, highlighting its detrimental impact on students' academic experiences. These results reinforce the importance of supportive and balanced parental approaches in alleviating academic stress and fostering student well-being. Interventions to educate parents on effective parenting strategies could significantly enhance students' academic and emotional resilience.

Self-Efficacy: The analysis demonstrates a significant relationship between self-efficacy (both general and social self-efficacy) and academic stress, as evidenced by the R value of 0.35. Additionally, the results show that 12.2% of the variation in academic stress can be explained by self-efficacy. These findings highlight the important role of self-efficacy in contributing to academic stress, emphasizing its potential to help students manage stress more effectively.

The analysis further confirms the statistical significance of the variation accounted for by R-square, indicating that self-efficacy (general and social) has a meaningful overall effect on academic stress. The ANOVA result ($F = 34.44$, $p < 0.01$) demonstrates the model's statistical significance, emphasizing the strong impact of self-efficacy on academic stress. These findings underscore the predictive power of self-efficacy in explaining variations in academic stress.

Regression analysis confirms that the proposed model is statistically significant, with an R-square value supported by an ANOVA value of 34.44 ($p < 0.01$). The results indicate that general self-efficacy significantly reduces academic stress, as shown by the beta coefficient of -0.35 ($p < 0.05$). However, social self-efficacy does not significantly impact academic stress (beta = -0.014 , $p > 0.05$). These findings highlight the significance of general self-efficacy in mitigating academic stress.

Self-efficacy's influence on academic stress is moderately significant, with an R value of 0.325 and an R Square value of 0.106, accounting for 10.6% of the variance. The significance value of 0.000 further supports the relevance of self-efficacy in affecting academic stress, confirming its important role in students' stress management.

Hardiness: The analysis reveals a significant relationship between hardiness (commitment, control, and challenge) and academic stress, with an R value of

0.499. Additionally, these hardiness components explain 24.9% of the variation in academic stress, highlighting their influence on students' stress levels.

The analysis confirms that the variation accounted for by R-square is statistically significant, demonstrating a meaningful overall effect of the hardiness components (commitment, control, and challenge) on academic stress. The ANOVA value ($F = 54.64$, $p < 0.01$) indicates that the model is significant, reinforcing the strong influence of these factors on academic stress.

Regression analysis confirms that the model is statistically significant, with an R-square value supported by an ANOVA value of 54.64 ($p < 0.01$). The regression analysis shows that increases in commitment, control, and challenge lead to decreases in academic stress. Specifically, a one-unit increase in commitment, control, and challenge reduces academic stress by 0.418, 0.104, and 0.086 units, respectively, with all coefficients being statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). These findings emphasize the significant role of hardiness components in alleviating academic stress.

The analysis also shows a significant relationship between hardiness factors (academic coordination, academic clarity, composure, academic climate, academic confidence, academic commitment, and self-confidence) and academic stress.

Hardiness has a moderate influence on academic stress, with an R value of 0.379 and an R Square value of 0.144, explaining 14.4% of the variance. This result is statistically significant, as indicated by a significance value (Sig.) of 0.000, confirming the importance of hardiness in reducing academic stress.

Academic Buoyancy: The analysis confirms that the variation accounted for by R-square is statistically significant, indicating a meaningful overall effect of the independent variables (academic co-ordination, academic clarity, composure, academic climate, academic confidence, academic commitment, and self-confidence) on academic stress. The ANOVA value ($F = 9.416$, $p < 0.01$) demonstrates that the overall model is statistically significant, highlighting the significant impact of these academic factors on academic stress.

The regression analysis indicates that the proposed model is statistically significant, with an R-square value supported by an ANOVA value of 9.416 ($p < 0.01$).

The regression shows that academic stress decreases with increases in academic co-ordination and academic confidence. Specifically, a one-unit increase in academic co-ordination and academic confidence leads to a decrease in academic stress by 0.238 and 0.388 units, respectively, with both coefficients being statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). However, academic clarity, composure, academic climate, academic commitment, and self-confidence were not found to be significant predictors of academic stress. These findings emphasize the importance of academic co-ordination and academic confidence in reducing academic stress.

Academic buoyancy is identified as the most influential factor affecting academic stress, with an R value of 0.516 and an R Square value of 0.266, explaining 26.6% of the variance. The significance value (Sig.) of 0.000 further substantiates this finding, highlighting the significant role of academic buoyancy in reducing academic stress.

Hypothesis	Significant/ Insignificant	Accepted / rejected
There will be a significant influence of parenting style on academic stress among high school students.	Significant	Accepted
There will be a significant influence of self-efficacy on academic stress among high school students.	Significant	Accepted
There will be a significant influence of hardiness on academic stress among high school students.	Significant	Accepted
There will be a significant influence of academic buoyancy on academic stress among high school students.	Significant	Accepted
There will be significant interrelationships among parenting style, self-efficacy and hardiness, and academic buoyancy and academic stress among high school students.	Significant	Accepted

5.4 Conclusion

This research investigates the impact of several factors, including parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy, on students' academic stress. The findings reveal that these factors contribute to academic stress in different ways. Parenting style has a statistically significant but minor influence on academic stress. Self-efficacy and hardiness both have a moderate effect, while academic buoyancy has the most pronounced impact. Correlation analysis shows weak to moderate relationships among these variables. Academic stress has a weak positive correlation with parenting style and moderate negative correlations with academic buoyancy, self-efficacy, and hardiness. Further correlations reveal minimal impact of parenting style on academic buoyancy, self-efficacy, and hardiness, while moderate positive correlations exist between academic buoyancy and self-efficacy, academic buoyancy and hardiness, and self-efficacy and hardiness. In conclusion, while all four factors significantly impact academic stress, their individual contributions vary, with parenting style having the least impact and academic buoyancy having the most substantial effect. This underscores the complex interplay of these factors in shaping students' academic stress levels and highlights the need for further studies to better understand these dynamics and develop effective strategies to mitigate academic stress among students.

5.5 Implications for Education

This study's findings reveal several implications for transforming educational procedures in India's school system under the New Education Policy (NEP). Rapid changes in the educational landscape impose new demands, leading to stress among students. Adolescents, irrespective of gender, experience academic stress, which impacts their mental health. Thus, reducing academic stress is critical for improving adolescents' overall well-being. The current study holds significant relevance for teachers, counselors, researchers, students, and other stakeholders involved in adolescent education.

5.6 Key Recommendations

1. Stress-Free and Supportive Learning Environment

- Schools should adopt various measures to combat academic stress and create a stress-free, friendly environment conducive to students' academic and personal development.
- Families and schools must collaborate to ensure students are supported both at home and school, fostering a holistic approach to their well-being.

2. Balanced Workload

- School administrators and teachers should ensure that students' workloads are manageable to prevent burnout and maintain effectiveness.
- When developing curricula, educators should consider student feedback to make learning more engaging and inclusive of students' original ideas.

3. Extracurricular Activities and Counselling Services

- Education authorities should encourage schools to conduct more extracurricular activities, enhance teacher-student relationships, and provide comprehensive counseling services to support students' mental health.

4. Parental Involvement and Parenting Styles

- The study highlights the importance of parents adopting authoritative parenting styles that promote a supportive and positive learning environment, thereby reducing academic stress.
- Understanding the impact of cultural differences on parenting styles is essential. Schools should provide resources and workshops for parents to help them adopt effective parenting practices.

Development of Self-Efficacy

- Schools should prioritize fostering self-efficacy among students by encouraging them to view academic challenges as opportunities for growth and achievement.

- Educators can enhance students' confidence by providing adequate preparation and recognizing prior successes, which helps mitigate the adverse effects of academic stress.

Promoting Hardiness and School Belonging

- Schools should focus on fostering a sense of belonging and resilience (hardiness) among students. A positive school environment can significantly reduce academic stress and improve students' coping abilities.
- Initiatives to promote school belonging and resilience should be integrated into the school's culture and daily practices.

Academic Buoyancy and Stress Management

- Educational institutions should implement programs that develop students' academic buoyancy, helping them manage stress through effective coping mechanisms and resilience.
- A comprehensive approach to stress management, tailored to the needs of high school students, is crucial given that they spend most of their time in the school environment.

The New Education Policy (NEP) presents a distinctive chance to overhaul the educational framework in India, tackling the urgent matter of academic stress among learners. By adopting these suggestions, educational institutions can foster a more nurturing and efficient learning atmosphere, enhancing students' psychological well-being and scholastic achievements. This comprehensive strategy is in harmony with the NEP's objective of delivering fair, inclusive, and high-quality education to all learners, equipping them for future challenges.

This policy transformation offers a unique platform to address the prevalent issue of academic stress among students. The implementation of these recommendations can help schools to establish a more supportive and productive learning environment. This not only promotes mental health among students but also paves the way for their academic success. This all-encompassing approach is in line

with the vision of the NEP, which aims at providing an equitable, inclusive, and quality education to all students, thereby preparing them to face the challenges of the future.

In essence, the NEP provides a golden opportunity to rejuvenate the Indian education system, with a special focus on mitigating academic stress among students. The execution of these proposed changes can enable schools to cultivate a more conducive and effective learning milieu, thereby fostering students' mental health and facilitating their academic triumph. This holistic methodology is congruent with the NEP's aspiration of ensuring equal, inclusive, and superior education for every student, thereby readying them for the trials of the future.

5.7 Suggestions for Research in the Future

- Similar research could be done in other states.
- This study includes only private schools and the government in the Palakkad district. Further research can be undertaken in other districts in Kerala.
- The current study can also be undertaken using experimental methods to determine how independent variables are related to and affect the other selected dependent variable.
- The current study can be expanded to include students in other grade levels
- Future research could investigate the effectiveness of interventions promoting academic buoyancy to mitigate the negative effects of academic stress on academic performance.

5.8 Limitations

The present study, while providing valuable insights into the influence of parenting style, self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy on academic stress among secondary school students, is subject to certain limitations. Firstly, the research was geographically limited to the Palakkad district of Kerala. Although a multi-stage random sampling technique was employed to enhance representativeness, the findings may not fully reflect the experiences of students from other districts, states, or varied socio-cultural contexts. Secondly, the cross-sectional survey design captured data at a

single point in time, thereby restricting the ability to draw causal inferences between the variables under investigation.

All variables were measured using standardized self-report questionnaires, which, despite demonstrating satisfactory reliability and validity, remain susceptible to response biases such as social desirability and inaccurate self-assessment. Furthermore, the study concentrated on four independent variables, explaining only a modest proportion of the variance in academic stress (parenting style: 1.6%; self-efficacy: 10.6%; hardiness: 14.4%; academic buoyancy: 26.6%). This indicates that other relevant factors—such as peer influence, mental health conditions, school environment, teacher support, or family stress—were not incorporated into the model.

The sample was restricted to students aged 13–15 years, limiting the generalizability of the results to younger or older secondary school students. While the scales used were adapted for the Kerala context, most were originally developed elsewhere, and cultural interpretations of the items may still have influenced participant responses. Additionally, of the 720 questionnaires initially distributed, only 524 were complete and usable, raising the possibility of non-response bias. These limitations should be considered when interpreting the findings, and future research could address them by adopting longitudinal designs, expanding geographical coverage, incorporating additional predictors, and employing mixed-method approaches to capture richer and more nuanced data.

REFERENCES

- Abdali, A., & Golmohammadian, M., & Rashidi, A. (2018). The effectiveness of acceptance and commitment therapy on test anxiety and Academic Buoyancy of secondary high school female students. *Journal of Sabzevar University of Medical Sciences*, 25(4), 573-580.
- Abdollahi, A., Maleki Farab, N., Panahipour, S., & Allen, K. A. (2020). Academic hardness as a moderator between evaluative concerns perfectionism and academic procrastination in students. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 181(5), 365-374.
- Abraham and Tyagi (2013). A study of academic stress of undergraduate students in relation to emotional intelligence. *Advanced International Research Journal of Teacher Education*, 1(2).
- Ahmadi, R., Hosseini-nasab, S. D., & Azmodeh, M. (2021). Compare the Effectiveness of Motivational Self-Regulatory Skills Training and Emotional-Social Skills Training on Academic Buoyancy, Resilience and Academic Engagement in Junior High School Students with Low Academic Performance in the Fifth District of Tabriz. *Journal of Instruction and Evaluation*, 14(53), 61-92.
- Ahmed, F., Radhwan, L., Azmi, G. Z. S., & Beajan, M. (2014). Association between Stress and Dietary Behaviours among Undergraduate Students in Kuwait: Gender Differences. *Journal of Nutritional Health*, 1(1), 104-109. doi: 10.15744/2393-9060.1.104.
- Akhras, N. M. (2016) The relationship between psychological hardness and future anxiety in the clinical sample. *International Interdisciplinary Journal of Education*.
- Anchal, A. (2010). The Impact of Parenting Styles on Adolescents' Problems and their Academic Achievement. (Doctoral thesis).
- Ang, R. P. (2006). Effects of parenting style on personal and social variables for Asian adolescents. *The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 76, 503–511.

- Anice James, & Marice, P. (2004). Academic stress and achievement in science as related to scientific aptitude and scientific attitude among B.Ed. students in Tamil Nadu. *Journal of Educational Research and Extension*, 41(2), 13-16.
- Ardura, D., & Galán, A. (2019). The interplay of learning approaches and self-efficacy in secondary school students' academic achievement in science. *International Journal of Science Education*, 41(13), 1723-1743.
- Aruna, R. (2008). Study habits of high school pupil in relation to certain variables. *Journal of Education and Extension*, 32 (3), 8-11.
- Asha (2010). Academic Achievement in Relation to Parenting Style and Personality: A Study among School Students. (Master's thesis).
- Aunola, K., Stattin, H., & Nurmi, J. E. (2000). Parenting styles and adolescents' achievement strategies. *Journal of Adolescence*, 23, 205–222.
- Aveyard, H. (2014). *Doing a literature review in health and social care: A practical guide*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Aydın, G., & Michou, A. (2019). Self-determined motivation and Academic Buoyancy as predictors of achievement in normative settings. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90(4), 964-980. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12338>.
- Azarian, A., Farokhzadian, A. A & Habibi, E. (2016) Relationship between psychological hardiness and emotional control index: A communicative approach. *International Journal of Medical Research & Health Sciences*, 2016, 5(S): 216-221.
- Bahrami, F. (2017). The Relationship between Cognitive Emotion Regulation and Academic Buoyancy with The Role of Mediating Self-Handicapping in Students. *Iranian Journal of Educational Sociology*, 1(6), 114-124.
- Bakhshaei, F., Hajezi, E., Dortaj, F., & Farzad, V. (2016). The Modeling of School Climate Perception and Positive Youth Development with Academic Buoyancy. *Journal of Current Research in Science*, 5(1), 94–100. Retrieved from www.jcrs010.com.

- Baldwin, D., McIntyre, A., & Hardaway, E. (2007). Perceived parenting styles on collegestudents' optimism. *College Student Journal*, 41, 550-557.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191.
- Bandura, A. (1978). Reflections on self-efficacy. *Advances in Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 1(4), 237-269.
- Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37, 122-147.
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1986). The explanatory and predictive scope of self-efficacy theory. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 4(3), 359-373.
- Bandura, A. (1990). Perceived self-efficacy in the exercise of control over AIDS infection. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 13, 9-17.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organisational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 248-287.
- Bandura, A. (1992). Self-efficacy mechanism in psychobiologic functioning. In R. Schwarzer (Ed.), *Self-efficacy: Thought control of action*, 355-394. Washington, DC: Hemisphere.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28, 117-148.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. *Encyclopaedia of human behaviour*, In V.S. Ramachandran (Ed.), New York: Academic Press, 71-81.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Social cognitive theory and mass communication. In J. Bryant & D. Zillmann (Eds.), *Media effects: Advances in theory and research*, 61-90. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bandura, A. (1995). Exercise of personal and collective efficacy in changing societies. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies*, 1-45. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York: Freeman.
- Bandura, A.(1999). Social cognitive theory of personality. In D. Cervone and Y. Shoda, (Eds.), *The coherence of personality: Social-cognitive bases of consistency, variability, and organisation*, 185-241. New York: Guilford Press.
- Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory of personality. In L.A. Pervin and O.P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and Research 2*, 154-196.
- Bandura, A. and Adams, N.E. (1977). Analysis of self-efficacy theory of behavioral change. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 1, 287-310.
- Bandura, A. and Locke, E. (2003). Negative self-efficacy and goal effects revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1, 87-99.
- Bandura, A., & Wood, R. (1989). Effect of perceived controllability and performance Standards on self-regulation of complex decision making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56(5), 805.
- Bandura, A., Caprara, G.V., Barbaranelli, C., Gerbino, M. and Pastorelli, C. (2003). Role of affective self-regulatory efficacy on diverse spheres of psychosocial functioning. *Child Development*, 74, 769-782.
- Bandura, A., Reese, L. and Adams, N. E. (1982). Microanalysis of action and fear arousal as a function of differential levels of perceived self-efficacy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43, 5-21.
- Barton, A. L., & Kirtley, M. S. (2012). Gender differences in the relationships among parenting styles and college student mental health. *Journal of American College Health*, 60(1), 2126.
- Bartwal, R.A., & Raj, A. (2015). Academic stress among school-going adolescents in relation to their social intelligence. *Indian Streams Research Journal*, 5(2), DOI: 10.9780/22307850, <http://isrj.org/UploadedData/4419.pdf>.
- Basri, S., Hawaldar, I. T., Nayak, R., & Rahiman, H. U. (2022). Do academic stress, burnout and problematic internet use affect perceived learning? Evidence from India during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Sustainability*, 14(3), 1409.

- Baum, a. (1990). Stress, intrusive imagery, and chronic distress. *Health Psychology*, 9(6), 653.
- Baumrind, D. (1966). Effects of authoritative parental control on child behavior. *Child Development*, 887-907.
- Bellis, M. A., Hughes, K., Calafat, A., Juan, M., Ramon, A., Rodriguez, J. A., & Phillips-Bhasin, S.K., Sharma R., Saini, N.K., (2010). Depression, anxiety and stress among adolescent students belonging to affluent families in Delhi. *Indian Journal of Pediatrics*, 77(2), 161-165.
- Bhavin, U. Pandya., Revati P. C., & Anushree, K. (2012). A Study on impact of academic stress on MBA Students of Gujarat Technological University. *International Refereed Research Journal*, 3(3), 20-28.
- Bhooma, K., & Sokhi, R. K. (2018). Influence of Family and Friends on Academic Stress among Adolescents. *Recent Advances in Psychology*, 5(1), 62-69.
- Blissett, J. (2011). Relationships between parenting style, feeding style and feeding practices and fruit and vegetable consumption in early childhood. *Appetite*, 57(3), 826-831.
- Blissett, J., & Haycraft, E. (2008). Are parenting style and controlling feeding practices related?. *Appetite*, 50(2-3), 477-485.
- Bowen, D. (2010). Academic Buoyancy: Investigating Measures and Developing a Model of Undergraduates' Everyday Academic Resilience (Vol. 689). Charles Sturt University.
- Bradley, R. H., & Caldwell, B. M. (1995). Caregiving and the regulation of child growth and development: Describing proximal aspects of caregiving systems. *Developmental Review*, 15(1), 38-85.
- Burton, P., Phipps, S., & Curtis, L. (2002). All in the family: A simultaneous model of parenting style and child conduct. *American Economic Review*, 92(2), 368-372.
- Busari, A. O. (2012). Identifying differences in perceptions of academic stress and reaction to stressors based on gender among first-year University Students. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(14), 138-146.

- Cahill, S. P., Gallo, L. A., Lisman, S. A., & Weinstein, A. (2006). Willing or able? The meanings of self-efficacy. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 25*(2), 196-209.
- Cahyadi, S. (2019). Peran Teacher Structure terhadap Engagement melalui Academic Buoyancy pada Siswa Menengah Atas. *Journal Studies Insania, 7*(2), 122–134. <https://doi.org/10.18592/jsi.v7i2.3234>.
- Calafat, A., García, F., Juan, M., Becoña, E., & Fernández-Hermida, J. R. (2014). Which parenting style is more protective against adolescent substance use? Evidence within the European context. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 138*, 185-192.
- Carlo, G., McGinley, M., Hayes, R., Batenhorst, C., & Wilkinson, J. (2007). Psycho-educational factors in the prediction of Academic Buoyancy in Second Life® (Doctoral dissertation, Capella University). Parenting styles or practices? Parenting, sympathy and prosocial behaviors among adolescents. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 168*, 147–176.
- Carver, C. S., & Connor-Smith, J. (2010). Personality and coping. *Annual Review of Psychology, 61*, 679-704.
- Cathy D. Lirgg & Deborah L. Feltz (1991). Teacher versus Peer Models Revisited: Effects On Motor Performance and Self-Efficacy, *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 62*:2, 217-224, DOI: 10.1080/02701367.1991.10608713.
- Cayubit, R. F. O. (2014). Academic self-efficacy and study hours as predictors of test anxiety among high school students. *Philippine Journal of Counseling Psychology, 16*(1), 64–73.
- Chakravarty, A. (2005). Chronic daily headache in children and adolescents: A clinic based study from India. *Cephalalgia, 25*(10), 795-800. DOI:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2982.2005.00958.x>.
- Chandra, A., & Batada, A. (2006). Exploring stress and coping among urban African American adolescents: The shifting lens study. *Preventing Chronic Disease Public Health Research, Practice, and Policy, 3*, 1-10.

- Chandrashekara, S., Jayashree, K., Veeranna, H. B., Vadiraj, H. S., Ramesh, M. N., Shobha, A., Vikram, Y. K. (2007). Effects of anxiety on TNF- α levels during psychological stress. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 63(1), 65-69. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychores.2007.03.001>.
- Cheema, J. R. (2018). Effect of math-specific self-efficacy on math literacy: Evidence from a Greek survey. *Research in Education*, 102(1), 13-36.
- Chen, S., & Zhang, L. (2025). Academic buoyancy and self-regulated learning among doctoral students: The mediating roles of creativity-generating research styles. [Journal Name, if known].
- Chen, Y., Liu, X., Yan, N., Jia, W., Fan, Y., Yan, H., ...& Ma, L. (2020). Higher Academic Stress was Associated with Increased Risk of Overweight and Obesity among College Students in China. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(15), 5559.
- Cherry, M. L., & Wilcox, M. M. (2020). Decreasing perceived and academic stress through Emotion regulation and removing extra words judging with trauma-exposed college students. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 27(2), 101.
- Chhabra, G.S., Sodhi, M.K. (2011). Factors Contributing to Psycho-Social Ill-Health in Male Adolescents. *Online Journal of Health Allied Sciences*. 10(3), 2.
- Chi Kuan Mak, M., Bond, M. H., Simpson, J. A., & Rholes, W. S. (2010). Adult attachment, perceived support, and depressive symptoms in Chinese and American cultures. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 29(2), 144-165.
- Choi, N. (2005). Self-Efficacy and Self-Concept as Predictors of College Students' Academic Performance. ERIC - ProQuest, 42(2). Retrieved from <https://proxy.library.upenn.edu:2072/eric/docview/62008695/6923B99E19024697PQ/4?accountid=14707>.
- Cole, M. S., Feild, H. S., & Harris, S. G. (2004). Student learning motivation and Psychological Hardiness: Interactive Effects on students' Reactions to a management class. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 3(1), 64-85.

- Collie, R. J. (2021). COVID-19 and Teachers' Somatic Burden, Stress, and Emotional Exhaustion: Examining the Role of Principal Leadership and Workplace Buoyancy. *AERA Open*, 7, 2332858420986187.
- Collie, R. J., Martin, A. J., Bottrell, D., Armstrong, D., Ungar, M., & Liebenberg, L. (2017).
- Dahal, J., Prasad, P. W. C., Maag, A., Alsadoon, A., & Siong, L. H. (2017). The effect of culture and belief systems on students' Academic Buoyancy. *Educ Inf Technol*.
- Damirchi, E. S., Karimianpoor, G., & Jalilian, S. (2017). Prediction of Academic Buoyancy Based on Perception of Learning Environment and Psychological Hardiness in Medical Sciences Student. *Educational Strategies in Medical*, 10(5), 364–374.
- Das, P. P. P & Sahoo, R. (2012). Stress and depression among post-graduate student. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 2(7), 1-5.
- Datu, J. A. D., & Yang, W. (2019). Academic Buoyancy, academic motivation, and academic achievement among Filipino high school students. *Current Psychology*, (July). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-019-00358>.
- Deb S, Walsh K: Anxiety among high school students in India. *Aust J Educational and Developmental Psychology*, 10, 18- 31.
- DeMeulenaere, M. A. (2016) A Study of the Relationship of Stress, Burnout, Hardiness, and Social Support in Pre Kindergarten and Kindergarten Teachers. Ph. D Thesis (Published). Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College in The School of Education.
- Dhuria M, Sharma N, Taneja DK, Kumar R, Ingle GK: Assessment of mental health status of senior secondary school children in Delhi. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Public Health*. 2009, 21(1), 9-25.
- Dwairy, M., & Menshar, K. E. (2006). Parenting style, individuation, and mental health of Egyptian adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence*, 29, 103–117.

- Ebstrup, J., Eplov, L., Pisinger, C., & Jorgensen, T. (2011). Association between the five- factor personality traits and perceived stress: Is the effect mediated by general self-efficacy?. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping: An International Journal*, 24(4), 407-419.
- Eriksen, I. M. (2020). Class, parenting and academic stress in Norway: middle-class youth on parental pressure and mental health. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 1-13.
- Erikson, E. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.
- Farhadi, A. (2016). Predicting Academic Buoyancy based on cognitive, motivational and behavioral involvement among students of Lorestan University of Medical Sciences. *Education Strategies in Medical Sciences*, 9(4), 260-265.
- Fields, M. M. (2013). *Resilience, Socioeconomic Status, and Career Decision Self-Efficacy in Rural Appalachian Adolescents*. (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest.
- Fooladi, A., Kajbaf, M. B., & Ghamarani, A. (2018). Effectiveness of Academic Buoyancy Training On Academic Success and Academic Self-Efficacy of Girl Students. *Journal of Instruction and Evaluation*, 1(42), 37–54. https://doi.org/http://jinev.iaut.ac.ir/article_543431_en.html
- Fu, Y., Ren, W., & Liang, Z. (2022). Perceived academic stress and depressive symptoms among Chinese adolescents: A moderated mediation analysis of overweight status. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 296, 224-232.
- Fuentes, M. C., García-Ros, R., Pérez-González, F., & Sancerni, D. (2019). Effects of parenting styles on self-regulated learning and academic stress in Spanish adolescents. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(15), 2778.
- Gar, N. S., Hudson, J. L., & Rapee, R. M. (2005). Family factors and the development of anxiety disorders. In *Psychopathology and the Family* (pp. 125-145). Elsevier.
- Garza, K. K., Bain, S. F., & Kupczynski, L. (2014). Resiliency, self-efficacy, and persistence of college seniors in higher education. *Research in Higher Education Journal*, 26, 1–19.

- George, P., Chrousos, M. D., Philip, W., & Gold, M. D. (1992). The concept of stress System disorders. *J Am Med Assn*, 267, 1244-52.
- Gota, A. A. (2012). Effects of Parenting styles, academic Self-efficacy, and achievement motivation on the academic achievement of university students in Ethiopia (Doctoral Dissertation).
- Gupta, K., & Khan, B. N. (1987). Anxiety level as a factor in concept formation. *Journal of Psychological Researches*.
- Gupta, K., & Khan, B.N. (1987). Anxiety level as a factor in concept formation. *Journal of Psychological Reports*, 31, 187-192.
- Gupta, M., & Mehtani, D. (2017). Effect of parenting style on academic achievement of senior secondary school students: An analytical analysis. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences*, 6(10), 167-185.
- Gupta, R., & Sharma, P. (2024). Hardiness and coping strategies among Indian adolescents: A mixed-methods study. *Indian Journal of Psychology*, 49(3), 210–225.
- Gustafsson, P., Ljungdahl, S., Ogden, T., & Persson, R. S. (2010). School, Learning and Mental Health. A systematic review. Health committee, The Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences. http://www.kva.se/Documents/Vetenskap_samhallet/Halsa/Utskottet/kunskapsoversikt2_halsa_eng_2010.pdf.
- Habibah, E., Wong, S. P., & Maria, C. A. (2011). Stress and Academic Achievement among Undergraduate Students in University Putra, Malaysia. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 646 – 655.
- Hackett, G., & Betz, N. E. (1981). A self-efficacy approach to the career development of women. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 18(3), 326–339.
- Hajebi, A., Emami, H., Hosseinzadeh, M. & Khajeian, A. (2016) A study of the mental health and psychological hardiness of the staff at the pars special economic energy zone in Iran: A Cross-Sectional Study. *Health Scope*; 5(2):e27112.
- Hamill, S. K. (2003). Resilience and self-efficacy: The importance of efficacy beliefs and coping mechanisms in resilient adolescents. *Colgate University Journal of the Sciences*, 35, 115–146.

- Hasanvand, B., Arya, A. M. & Dogaheh, E. R. (2014) Prediction of Psychological Hardiness Based on Mental Health and Emotional Intelligence in Students. *Practice in Clinical Psychology*, 2(4).
- Hasanvand, B., Khaledian, M. & Merati, A. R. (2013) The relationship between psychological hardiness and attachment styles with the university student's creativity. *European Journal of Experimental Biology*; 3(3): 656-660.
- Hetherington, E. M. & Parke, R. D. (1986). Child psychology: A contemporary viewpoint(3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hirvonen, R., Yli-Kivistö, L., Putwain, D. W., Ahonen, T., & Kiuru, N. (2019). School-related stress among sixth-grade students—Associations with academic buoyancy and temperament. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 70, 100-108.
- Hiver, P., & Al-hoorie, A. H. (2018). Exploring Learners' everyday resilience in the Language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1–26. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263118000037>.
- Holliman, A. J., Sheriston, L., Martin, A. J., Collie, R. J. (2018). Adaptability : does students' adjustment to university predict their mid-course academic achievement and satisfaction? *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 1– 12. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2018.1491957>.
- Howard, P. (2008). Sexual uses of alcohol and drugs and the associated health risks: a Cross-sectional study of young people in nine European cities. *BMC Public Health*, 8(1), 155.
- Huang, N., Qiu, S., Alizadeh, A., & Wu, H. (2020). How incivility and academic stress influence psychological health among college students: the moderating role of gratitude. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(9), 3237.
- Huang, S., & Wan, Z. (2025). Parenting styles and school bullying among Chinese adolescents: The mediating effects of social support and cognitive reappraisal. *BMC Psychology*, 13, 409. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-025-02726-9>

- Hudson, W.E.Jr. (2007). The Relationship between Academic Self-Efficacy and Resilienceto Grades of Students Admitted Under Special Criteria.
- Hussain, A., Kumar, A., & Husain, A. (2008). Academic stress and adjustment among high school students. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 34, 7073.
- Hystad, S. W., Eid, J., Laberg, J. C., Johnsen, B. H., & Bartone, P. T. (2009). Academic stress and health: Exploring the moderating role of personality hardiness. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 53(5), 421-429.
- Ingoldsby, B., Schvaneveldt, P., Supple, A., & Bush, K. (2004). The relationship betweenparenting behaviours and adolescent achievement and self-efficacy in Chile and Ecuador. *Marriage & Family Review*, 35(3-4), 139159.
- Ishak, Z., Low, S. F., & Lau, P. L. (2012). Parenting style as a moderator for students academic achievement. *Journal of Science Education and Technology*, 21(4), 487-493.
- Ishak, Z., Low, SF & Lau, P.L. Parenting Style as a Moderator for Students' Academic Achievement. *J Sci Educ Technol*, 21, 487–493 (2012).
- Jacob, K. S. (2008). The prevention of suicide in India and the developing world. Crisis: *TheJournal of Crisis Intervention and Suicide Prevention*, 29(2), 102-106.
- Jafar, H. M., Salabifard, S., Mousavi, S. M. & Sobhani, Z. (2016) The effectiveness of group training of CBT-based stress management on anxiety, psychological hardiness and general self-efficacy among university students. *Global Journal of Health Science*, 8(6).
- Jain, S., & Dowson, M. (2009). Mathematics anxiety as a function of multidimensional self-regulation and self-efficacy. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 34(3), 240-249.
- Jamal, Y. & Farooqi, Y. N. (2015) Hardiness and coping as predictors of professional life stress among house-job doctors. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*;13(1), 55-58.
- Jassar, A. K. (2014). A study of parental influences on the self-confidence of urban adolescents. *Educationia Confab*, 3, 98–108.

- Jeynes, W. H. (2007). The Relationship between Parental Involvement and Urban Secondary School Student Academic Achievement.
- Kabini Moghadam, S., Entesare Foumani, G., Hejazi, M., Asadzadeh, H. (2019). The Effectiveness of Instruction of Self-regulated Learning Strategies to Increase Educational Buoyancy and Educational Conscience of Procrastinating Students. *Educational Psychology*, 14(50), 171-193. doi: 10.22054/jep.2019.37913.2510.
- Karamipour, M., Hejazi, M. & Yekta, Z. B. (2015) The role of resilience and hardiness in the mental health of athletes and non-athletes. *Bulletin of Environment, Pharmacology and Life Sciences: Life Sci.*, 4(2), 37-43.
- Kavitha, K. (2014). Academic Achievement in Relation to Academic Stress, Self-Efficacy and School Environment among Secondary School Pupils. (Doctoral thesis).
- Keye, M. D., & Pidgeon, A. M. (2013). An Investigation of the Relationship between Resilience, Mindfulness, and Academic Self-Efficacy. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 1(6), 1–4.
- Khan, K. U. D., Gulzar, S., & Yahya, F. (2013) Crucial Factors Affecting Stress: A Study Among Undergraduates In Pakistan. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, 3(2), 428-442.
- Khan, M.J., Altaf, S. & Kausar, H. (2013). Effect of Perceived Academic Stress on Students' Performance. *FWU Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(2), 146151.
- Khoshab, S., Towhidi, A., & Tashk, A. The Effectiveness of Training Self-Regulation Learning Strategies on Academic Buoyancy and Academic Achievement of Students with Academic Problems. *Middle Eastern Journal of Disability Studies*.
- Kim, S., & Park, J. (2023). Psychological hardiness and academic resilience: A study of South Korean high school students. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 24(2), 301–315. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-022-09789-4>
- Kobasa, S. C. (1979). Stressful life events, personality, and health: an inquiry into hardiness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37(1), 1.

- Kobasa, S. C., Maddi, S. R., & Courington, S. (1981). Personality and constitution as mediators in the stress-illness relationship. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 368-378.
- Komarraju, M., & Nadler, D. (2013). Self-efficacy and academic achievement : Why do implicit beliefs, goals, and effort regulation matter ? *Learning and Individual Differences*, 25, 67–72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2013.01.005>.
- Kritzas, N., & Grobler, A. A. (2005). The relationship between perceived parenting styles and resilience during adolescence. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Mental Health*, 17(1), 1–12.
- Kumar, P. J. (2013) Mental health analysis of intermediate students in relation to their hardiness and academic achievement. Shodhganga. <http://hdl.handle.net/10603/8082>.
- Kumar, V. & Sharma, K. (2020). Verification of Academic Buoyancy Scale for Adolescents in Indian Context. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation*. 24(6). 229-234.
- Kumari, R. & Garita, R. (2012). Relationship between stress and academic achievement in senior secondary school students. *Asian J Multidimensional Research*. 1(3):76-82.
- Kurane, M.B. (2014). A Study of Parental Involvement and Parental Style on Academic Achievement of High School Students. (Doctoral thesis).
- Lane, J., Lane, A. M., & Kyprianou, A. (2004). Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem and their Impact on Academic Performance. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 32(3), 247–256.
- Latha, KS & Reddy, H. (2006). Patterns of stress, coping styles and social support among adolescents. *J. Indian Association Child Adolescents Mental Health*. 3(1):5-10.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. Springer publishing company.

- Li, C., Zhang, X., & Cheng, X. (2022). Associations among academic stress, anxiety, extracurricular participation, and aggression: An examination of the general strain theory in a sample of Chinese adolescents. *Current Psychology*, 1-12.
- Li, H., & Chen, Q. (2023). Academic self-efficacy and online learning: The role of teacher support in Chinese secondary schools. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 71(3), 987–1003. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-023-10234-5>
- Liem, G. A. D., Ginns, P., Martin, A. J., Stone, B., & Herrett, M. (2012). Personal best goals and academic and social functioning: A longitudinal perspective. *Learning and Instruction*, 22(3), 222-230. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2011.11.003>.
- Lin, T. E., & Lian, T. C. (2011). Relationship between perceived parenting styles and coping capability among Malaysian secondary school students. In *International Conference on Social Science and Humanity* (pp. 20-24). Singapore: IACSIT Press.
- Lin, X. F., Tang, D., Shen, W., Liang, Z. M., Tang, Y., & Tsai, C. C. (2020). Exploring the relationship between perceived technology-assisted teacher support and technology-embedded scientific inquiry: the mediation effect of hardiness. *International Journal of Science Education*, 1-28.
- Lumley, M. A., & Provenzano, K. M. (2003). Stress management through emotional disclosure improves academic performance among college students with physical symptoms. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95, 641-649.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Martin, J. (1983). Socialisation in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. In P. H. Mussen (series ed.) & E. Hetherington (vol. ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Socialisation, Personality and Social Development*, 4, 1-101.
- Maccoby, E. E., Martin, J. A., Mussen, P. H., & Hetherington, E. (1983). *Handbook of Child Psychology*.
- MacGeorge, E. L., Samter, W., & Gillihan, S. J. (2005). Academic stress, supportive communication, and health. *Communication Education*, 54(4), 365-372.

- Maddi, S. R. (2006). Hardiness: The courage to grow from stresses. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 1(3), 160-168.
- Maddi, S. R., Matthews, M. D., Kelly, D. R., Villarreal, B. J., Gundersen, K. K., & Savino, S.C.(2017). The continuing role of hardiness and grit on performance and retention in West Point cadets. *Military Psychology*, 29(5), 355-358.
- Mak, M. C. K., Yin, L., Li, M., Cheung, R. Y. H., & Oon, P. T. (2020). The Relation between Parenting Stress and Child Behavior Problems: Negative Parenting Styles as Mediator. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 1-11.
- Malmberg, L. E., Hall, J., & Martin, A. J. (2013). Academic buoyancy in secondary school: Exploring patterns of convergence in English, mathematics, science, and physical education. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 23, 262-266.
- Mani, V. (2010). Students' perception of the impact of coursework on exam stress. *International Journal of Arts and Sciences*, 3, 104-110.
- Martin, A. J. (2013). Academic buoyancy and academic resilience: Exploring 'everyday' and 'classic' resilience in the face of academic adversity. *School Psychology International*, 34(5), 488-500.
- Martin, A. J., & Marsh, H. W. (2006). Academic resilience and its psychological and educational correlates: A construct validity approach. *Psychology in the Schools*, 43(3), 267-281. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20149>.
- Martin, A. J., & Marsh, H. W. (2008). Academic buoyancy: Towards an understanding of students' everyday academic resilience. *Journal of School Psychology*, 46(1), 53-83.
- Martin, A. J., & Marsh, H. W. (2008). Workplace and academic buoyancy: Psychometric assessment and construct validity amongst school personnel and students. *Journal of Psycho Educational Assessment*, 26(2), 168-184.
- Martin, A. J., & Marsh, H. W. (2009). Academic resilience and academic buoyancy: Multidimensional and hierarchical conceptual framing of causes, correlates and cognate constructs. *Oxford Review of Education*, 35(3), 353-370.
- Martin, A. J., Colmar, S. H., Davey, L. A., & Marsh, H. W. (2010). Longitudinal modelling of academic buoyancy and motivation: Do the 5Cs hold up over time?. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(3), 473-496.

- Mawarni, A., Sugandhi, N. M., Budiman, N., & Thahir, A. (2019, November). Academic Buoyancy of science student in senior high school: analysis and Implications for academic outcomes. In *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*, 1280(3), 032046). IOP Publishing. doi:10.1088/1742-6596/1280/3/032046.
- McGrath, J. E. (1976). Stress and behaviour in organisations. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organisational psychology*. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Mehrotra, S., & Kumari, A. (2009). Development and field trial of a hassles measure for Indian adolescents. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 35(1), 121-130.
- Milevsky, A., Schlechter, M., Netter, S., Keehn, D. (2007). Maternal and paternal parenting styles in adolescents: associations with self – esteem, depression and life – satisfaction. *Journal of Child Family Study*, 1, 39-47.
- Miller, S., Connolly, P., & Maguire, L. K. (2013). Well-being, academic buoyancy and educational achievement in primary school students. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 62, 239-248.
- Misra, R., McKean, M., West, S., & Russo, T. (2000). Academic stress of college students: comparison of student and faculty perceptions. *College Student Journal*, 34, 236-245.
- Moly Kuruvilla. (2008): Scholastic Achievement of College Students: Fostering Factors, *Journal of Pedagogics*, 7(1), 84-86.
- Multon, K. D., Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (1991). Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 38(1), 30.
- Munsterteiger, A. M. (2015) Hardiness: The key to a well-adjusted college experience. An Honors Thesis (Published). Submitted to College of Saint Benedict/Saint John's University.
- Nazareth, B.D. (2010). Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy of B.Ed. Trainees on their Academic Achievement. (Doctoral thesis). Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10603/54343>.

- Needham, F. J., Crosnoe, R., & Muller, C. (2004). Academic failure in secondary school: The inter-related role of health problems and educational context. *Social Problems*, 51, 569-586. New York: Harper, 1959.
- Nickerson, C. (2021). The Yerkes-Dodson Law and Performance. *Simply Psychology*.
- Niazov, Z., Hen, M., & Ferrari, J. R. (2022). Online and academic procrastination in students with learning disabilities: the impact of academic stress and self-efficacy. *Psychological Reports*, 125(2), 890-912.
- Noruzi, M. R., Rahimi, G. R., & Hajipour, E. (2012). A comparative study of the relationships between multiple intelligences and general self-efficacy among public and private organisations in Maragheh, Iran. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(25), 7577-7582.
- Noruzi, M. R., Rahimi, G. R., & Hajipour, E. (2012). A comparative study of the Relationship between multiple intelligences and general self-efficacy among public and private organisations in Maragheh, Iran. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6(25), 7577-7582.
- Nurafifah, F., Hartana, G., & Primana, L. (2010). Self Efficacy Sebagai Mediator Pada Angan Gaya Identitas Dengan Academic Buoyancy. *Psychathic, Journal Ilmiah Psikologi*, V(I), 452–461. <https://doi.org/DOI:>
- Pagana, K. D. (1990). The relationship of hardiness and social support to student appraisal of stress in an initial clinical nursing situation. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 29(6), 255-261.
- Pascoe, M. C., Hetrick, S. E., & Parker, A. G. (2020). The impact of stress on students in secondary school and higher education. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 25(1), 104-112.
- Patel, V., & Nair, S. (2025). Academic buoyancy in Indian secondary schools: The role of school climate and parental expectations. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 128, 102456. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2024.102456>
- Pennebaker, J. W. (1991). Self-expressive writing: Implications for health, education, and welfare. *Nothing Begins with N: New Investigations of Freewriting*, 157-170.

- Pollock, V. E., & Schneider, L. S. (1989). Topographic electroencephalographic alpha inrecovered depressed elderly. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 98(3), 268.
- Pong, S. L., Hao, L., & Gardner, E. (2005). The Roles of Parenting Styles and social capitalin the school performance of Immigrant Asian and Hispanic Adolescents. *Social Science Quarterly*, 86(4), 928–950.
- Pozos-Radillo, B. E., Serranoa, M. L., Fernández, M. A., Ángeles, M., Velascoa, A., & Garcíab, D. D. (2014). Academic stress as a predictor of chronic stress in universitystudents. *Psicología Educativa*, 20, 47-52.
- Putwain, D. W., & Daly, A. L. (2013). Do clusters of test anxiety and academic buoyancy differentially predict academic performance?. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 27, 157-162.
- Putwain, D. W., Connors, L., Symes, W., & Douglas-Osborn, E. (2012). Is academic buoyancy anything more than adaptive coping?. *Anxiety, Stress & Coping*, 25(3), 349-358.
- Putwain, D. W., Daly, A. L., Chamberlain, S., & Sadreddini, S. (2015). Academically buoyant students are less anxious about and perform better in high-stakes examinations. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 85(3), 247-263.
- Qadir, B., Abid, S., & Muzammil, N. (2011). A study of learning stress and stress management strategies of the students of postgraduate level: A Case Study of IslamiaUniversity of Bahawalpur, Pakistan. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 30, 182 – 186.
- Rachmayanti, D., & Suharso, P. L. (2018). Relationship between Academic Buoyancy and Career Adaptability in 9th Grade Students. *Advance in Social Science, Education andHumanities Research*, 139(64), 124–129.
- Rahimi, M., & Zarei, E. (2016). The Role of Adult Attachment Dimensions in Academic Buoyancy with the Mediation of Coping Self-Efficacy and Perfectionism Dimensions. *Quarterly Journal of Research in School and Virtual Learning*, 3(12),59–70. Retrieved from <https://www.sid.ir/en/journal/ViewPaper.aspx?id=608953>.

- Rahmani A, Askaripoor T, Aghaei H, Ghafari M E, Mohammadian Mastanabad M, Jalilvand M A, et al. (2020) Prediction of the Academic Buoyancy and Academic Performance of Health Students at Semnan University of Medical Sciences Based on Their Perception of the Learning Environment. *J Health Res.* 5 (4):1122.
- Rai, R. N., Pandey, R. C., & Kumar, K. (2009). Perceived parental rearing style and personality among Khasi adolescents. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 35, 57-60.
- Rajamanikham, M. & Vasanthal, R. (2008). Adjustment Problems and Academic Stress of Adolescent Students in Relation to their Achievement, *Journal of Community Guidance and Research*, 10(2), 153-183.
- Ramasubramanian, S. (2017). Mindfulness, stress coping and everyday resilience among emerging youth in a university setting: a mixed methods approach. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 3843, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02673843.2016.1175361>.
- Reisy, J., Dehghani, M., Javanmard, A., Shojaei, M., & Naeimian, P. M. (2014). Analysis of the Mediating Effect of Academic Buoyancy on the Relationship between Family Communication Pattern and Academic Buoyancy. *Journal of Educational and Management Students*, 4(1), 64–70.
- Rodriguez, S., & Martinez, J. (2025). Self-efficacy and academic stress: A cross-cultural study of secondary school students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 117(1), 45–60. <https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000893>
- Rohinsa, M., Cahyadi, S., Djunaidi, A., & Iskandar, Z. T. (2019). The Role of Personality Traits in Predicting Senior High School Students' Academic Buoyancy. *The Journal of Social Sciences Research*, 5(9), 1336–1340. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.32861/jssr.59.1336.1340>.
- Ryan, A. (2000). Peer groups as a context for the socialisation of adolescents' motivation, engagement, and achievement in school, *Educational Psychologist*, 35(101), -1 1.

- Sadat, S., & Setayeshiazhari, M. (2019). The Mediation Roles of Academic Buoyancy and Humor in the Relationship between Academic Emotions and Academic Engagement. *Education Strategies in Medical Sciences*, 12(4), 26-40.
- Salimi, O., Asadzadeh, H., Ghotibian, N., Nazemi-Moghadam, M., & Azizi, Z. (2016). Effectiveness of Cooperative Learning Method on Academic Buoyancy of Male Students of Second Period Elementary School in the City of Shahriar. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies*, 833–841.
- Sapru, S. (2006). Parenting and adolescent identity: a study of Indian families in New Delhi and Geneva. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 21(5), 484-513.
- Sarani, A., Azhari, S., Mazlom, S. R. & Sherbaf, H. A. (2015) The relationship between psychological hardiness and coping strategies during pregnancy. *Journal of Midwifery and Reproductive Health*, 3(3): 408-417.
- Sawhney, N. & Rani, V. (2017) Personality hardiness among prospective teachers in relation to the stream of study and residential background. *International Journal of Creative Research Thoughts (IJCRT)*; 5(4).
- Schellenberg, D. E. (2005) Coping and psychological hardiness and their relationship to depression in older adults. Ph.D Thesis (Published). Submitted to Philadelphia College of Osteopathic Medicine; Department of Psychology.
- Schunk, D. H., & Miller, S. D. (2002). Self-efficacy and adolescents' motivation. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Academic motivation of' adolescen* (pp. 29-52). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Shafi, A., Hatley, J., Middleton, T., Millican, R., & Templeton, S. (2018). The role of assessment feedback in developing Academic Buoyancy. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 43(3), 415-427.
- Shaikhholeslami, R. & Taheri, Z. (2017). Causal explanation of Academic Buoyancy based on parental and peer attachment, and cognitive emotion regulation, 8(29), 1-22.
- Sharma, P., George, L. S., Rai, S., & Jose, T. T. (2024). Harnessing the power of psychological hardiness among adolescents: A concept paper. *Manipal Journal of Nursing and Health Sciences*, 10(1), 45–53.

- Sheivandi Cholicheh, K., Nafar, Z., Hasanvand, F., & Musavi, A. (2021). The Effectiveness of Life Skills Training (Problem Solving and Decision Making) on Teacher-Student Relationships, Academic Buoyancy, and Academic Optimism in Elementary Sixth Grade Male Students. *Journal of Applied Psychological Research*, 11(4), 47-67.
- Shkullaku, R. (2013). The Relationship between Self – efficacy and Academic Performance in the Context of Gender among Albanian Students. *European Academic Research*, 1(4), 467–478.
- Shonali, S. (2010). Academic self-efficacy of college students in Shimla: A preliminary study. *Journal of Research: The Bede Athenaeum*, 1(1), 1-5.
- Silva, R. M., Goulart, C. T., Lopes, L. F. D., Serrano, P. M., Costa, A. L. S. & Guido, L.A. (2014) Hardy personality and burnout syndrome among nursing students in three Brazilian universities - An analytic study. *BMC Nursing*, 13(9).
- Singh, A.K. and Narain, S. (2014). Self-Efficacy Scale. Agra: National Psychological Corporation.
- Singh, R. (2012). A comparative study of rural and urban senior secondary school students in relation to emotional maturity. *International Indexed & Referred Research Journal*, 3(32), 34-35.
- Singh, R. (2013). A Study of self-efficacy, self-esteem, thinking and decision making styles of prospective teachers in relation to their gender and academic achievement. (Doctoral thesis) Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10603/8338>.
- Singh, S. & Kumar, S. (2020). A review of a sample population, sample size and region elected for research on Academic Buoyancy. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation*. 24(6), 221-228 DOI:10.37200/IJPR/V24I6/PR260020.
- Singh, S. T., Kumar, S., & Singh, V. (2025). Parenting style and emotional intelligence as the predictors of academic buoyancy among senior secondary students. *[Journal Name, if known]*.

- Skinner, E. A., Graham, J. P., Brule, H., Rickert, N., & Kindermann, T. A. (2020). "I get knocked down, but I get up again": Integrative frameworks for studying the development of motivational resilience in school. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 44(4), 290-300.
- Smith, M. (2020). *Becoming Buoyant: Helping Teachers and Students Cope with the Day to Day*. Routledge.
- Social support, academic adversity and Academic Buoyancy: a person-centred analysis and implications for academic outcomes. *Educational Psychology*, 37(5), 550-564. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2015.1127330>.
- Spiridon, K. & Karagiannopoulou, E. (2015) Exploring relationships between academic hardiness, academic stressors and achievement in university undergraduates. *JAEPR*;1(1): pp. 53-73.
- Stuart, B. M. (2013). *The relation of fear of failure, procrastination, and self-efficacy to academic success in college for first and non-first-generation students in a privatenon-selective institution* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Alabama Libraries).
- Subramanian, S. & Vinothkumar, M. (2009) Hardiness personality, self-esteem and occupational stress among it professionals. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 35, 48-56.
- Susheela. (2017). *Academic Achievement and Psychological Well-Being of Secondary School Students in Relation to their Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy*. (Doctoral thesis).
- Symes, W., Putwain, D. W., & Remedios, R. (2015). The enabling and protective role of academic buoyancy in the appraisal of fear appeals used prior to high-stakes examinations. *School Psychology International*, 36(6), 605-619.
- Tan, C. L., & Lee, M. (2023). Academic buoyancy and peer support: A longitudinal study of Malaysian secondary school students. *Journal of School Psychology*, 96, 78–92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2022.11.004>

- Thergaonkar, N. R., & Wadkar, A. J. (2007). Relationship between Test Anxiety and Parenting Style. *Journal of Indian Association for Child and Adolescent Mental Health*, 3(1), 10-12.
- Tiwari, A. & Balani, S. (2013). The Effect of Intervention Program to Reduction Stress. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 9, 27-30.
- Turner, E. A., Chandler, M., Heffer, R. W., Turner, E. A., Chandler, M., & Heffer, R. W. (2009). The Influence of Parenting Styles, Achievement Motivation, and Self-Efficacy on Academic Performance in College Students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 50(3), 337–346.
- Ursin, P., Järvinen, T., & Pihlaja, P. (2020). The Role of Academic Buoyancy and Social Support in Mediating Associations between Academic Stress and School Engagement in Finnish Primary School Children. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00313831.2020.1739135>.
- Vamadevappa, H. (1999). Correlates of Academic Stress and Achievement of High School Students, *The Educational Review*, 53(2), 21-25.
- Van Campen, K. S., & Russell, S. T. (2010). Cultural differences in parenting practices: What Asian American families can teach us. *Frances McClelland Institute for children, Youth, and Families Research Link*, 2(1), 1-4.
- Vashishtha and Kriti (2014) A study of relationship between attachment styles, hardiness, adjustment, academic performance and psychological well-being of college students. Shodhganga. <http://hdl.handle.net/10603/141866>.
- Verma, S, Sharma, D, & Larson, R.W. (2002). School stress in India: Effect on time and daily emotions. *International Journal of Behaviour Development*, 26(6), 500-508.
- Verrier, D., Johnson, S., & Reidy, L. (2018). The Teacher Academic Buoyancy Scale : Is it possible to keep TABS on students' Academic Buoyancy ? *International Journal of Assessment Tools in Education*, 5(4), 659–667.
- Victoriano, J. R. (2016). An Investigation of the Generalizability of Buoyancy from Academics to Athletics. Louisiana State University.

- Vinter, K. (2019). Examining academic burnout: profiles and coping patterns among Estonian middle school students. *Educational Studies*, 1–18. doi:10.1080/03055698.2019.1702510.
- Wang, L., & Heppner, P. P. (2002). Assessing the impact of parental expectations and psychological distress on Taiwanese college students. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 30, 582-608.
- Wang, W & Miao, D (2009) The relationship among coping styles, personality traits and mental health of Chinese medical students. *Social Behaviour and Personality: An International Journal*; 37(2): 163-172.
- Wegner, D. M. (1989). *White bears and other unwanted thoughts: Suppression, obsession, and the psychology of mental control*. Penguin Press.
- Wolfradt, U., Hempel, S., & Miles, J. N. V. (2003). Perceived parenting styles, depersonalisation, anxiety and coping behaviour in adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 34, 521–532.
- Yahav, R. (2007). The relationship between children's and adolescents' perceptions of parenting style and internal and external symptoms. *Child: Care, Health and Development*, 33(4), 460-471.
- Yu, Y., & Ho, H. Z. (2020). The Influence of Taiwanese Parenting Style on Adolescent Mental Health and Academic Performance. *International Journal about Parents in Education*, 12(1).
- Yuda, A. K., Resita, C., Nurwansyah, R., Gani, R. A., Németh, Z., & Setiawan, E. (2022). Confidence, Academic Stress, Coping Strategies as Predictors of Student Academic Achievement in Physical Education Classes during Covid-19. *Physical Education Theory and Methodology*, 22(2), 180-187.
- Zakeri, H., Jowkar, B., & Razmjooe, M. (2010). Parenting styles and resilience. *Procedia -Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 5, 1067–1070.
- Zientek, L. R., Fong, C. J., & Phelps, J. M. (2019). Sources of self-efficacy of community college students enrolled in developmental mathematics. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 43(2), 183-200.

APPENDIX

I. Participant Information Sheet

Title of the Study

The Role of Parenting Style, Self-Efficacy, Hardiness, and Academic Buoyancy in Academic Stress Among Secondary School Students

Purpose of the Study:

This study aims to explore how different parenting styles, levels of self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy influence academic stress in secondary school students. The findings will provide insights into strategies for managing academic stress and fostering student well-being.

Aims of the Research:

- Examine the impact of parenting styles on students' academic stress.
- Assess how self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy contribute to managing academic stress.
- Provide recommendations for parents, educators, and policymakers to support students effectively.

Methods of Research

Participants (students aged 13–16 years) will be asked to complete questionnaires on their experiences, perceptions of parenting styles, and personal traits like self-efficacy, hardiness, and academic buoyancy. Participation is voluntary and requires approximately 30–45 minutes.

Expected Duration of the Study

Participation involves a single session, lasting about 30–45 minutes, to complete the survey.

Benefits

- Gain insights into the factors affecting academic stress.
- Contribute to research that may lead to improved educational and parental strategies for stress management.
- Help create a supportive academic environment for future students.

Discomforts

Some questions may involve reflecting on personal challenges. If you feel uncomfortable, support will be available, and you can skip questions or withdraw at any time.

Confidentiality

All responses will be anonymous and stored securely. No identifying information will be disclosed in the published results.

Voluntary Participation and Withdrawal

Participation is entirely voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Your decision will not affect your academic record or standing.

Contact Information

If you have any questions about the study, please contact:

Kabeer A

Contact no: 9447828763

Lovely Professional University

Informed Consent Form

Study Title: The Role of Parenting Style, Self-Efficacy, Hardiness, and Academic Buoyancy in Academic Stress Among Secondary School Students

Subject's Name: _____ **Date of Birth/Age:** _____ By signing below, I confirm that:

- I have read and understood the provided information.
- I had the opportunity to ask questions, and all my queries were answered satisfactorily.
- I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

Signature of Participant: _____

Date: _____

Signature of Witness: _____

Date: _____

II. Scale of Parenting Style

1. Does whatever I tell.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

2. Spends free time with me.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

3. Points out my mistakes in the manner that I understand.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

4. Gives money for my needs.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

5. Discusses the benefits and detriments of my learning topics.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

6. Considers my likes in food.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

7. Controls my game when in excess. Game

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

8. Shows love to me

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

9. Enquires the reason for my failure.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

10. Helps me in studying

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

11. Confers responsibilities in accordance with my growth

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

12. Has faith in me.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

13. Enquires the reasons for reaching home late.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

14. Accepts my privacy.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

15. Takes care of my dressing

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

16. Fulfills my desires with available means

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

17. Makes me aware that the responsibility of what I do is mine itself.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

18. Accepts when I say no to what I dislike.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

19. Tells how I should behave with their friends.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

20. Talks to me praising about their friends.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

21. Tries to frame my likes and dislikes

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

22. Appreciates when I try to become independent.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

23. Punishes for my mistakes

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

24. Shows love when I do any mistake.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

25. Enquires who my friends are.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

26. Has given me freedom to select the subject for study.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

27. Organizes time for my play.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

28. Gives priorities to my preferences in studies.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

29. Demands me to be systematic in studies.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

30. Emphasizes my successes.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

31. Advices me

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

32. Celebrates in my successes with me.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

33. Discourages unhealthy foods.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

34. Gets anxious when I am late to reach home.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

35. Inquires how I spend money.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

36. Buy dresses for me according to the latest trends

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

37. Enquires how I spend my free time.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

38. Gives me timely advices.

Father	Mother
Very right	Very right
Mostly right	Mostly right
Sometimes right, sometimes wrong	Sometimes right, sometimes wrong
Mostly wrong	Mostly wrong
Very wrong	Very wrong

III. Self-Efficacy Scale (SES)

1. I like to grow house plants.
 - Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
2. When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.
 - Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
3. One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should.
 - Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
4. If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.
 - Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly

5. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Agree moderately
- ☐ Agree strongly

6. It is difficult for me to make new friends.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Agree moderately
- ☐ Agree strongly

7. When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Agree moderately
- ☐ Agree strongly

8. I give up on things before completing them.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Agree moderately
- ☐ Agree strongly

9. I like to cook.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately

- Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
10. If I see someone I would like to meet, I go to that person instead of waiting for him or her to come to me.
- Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
11. I avoid facing difficulties.
- Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
12. If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.
- Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
13. There is some good in everybody.
- Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly

14. If I meet someone interesting who is very hard to make friends with, I'll soon stop trying to make friends with that person.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Agree moderately
- ☐ Agree strongly

15. When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Agree moderately
- ☐ Agree strongly

16. When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Agree moderately
- ☐ Agree strongly

17. I like science.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Agree moderately
- ☐ Agree strongly

18. When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.

- ☐ Disagree strongly
- ☐ Disagree moderately

- Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
19. When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up very easily.
- Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
20. When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them well.
- Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
21. If I were an artist, I would like to draw children.
- Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly
22. I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult for me.
- Disagree strongly
 - Disagree moderately
 - Neither agree nor disagree
 - Agree moderately
 - Agree strongly

23. Failure just makes me try harder.

- Disagree strongly
- Disagree moderately
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree moderately
- Agree strongly

24. I do not handle myself well in social gatherings.

- Disagree strongly
- Disagree moderately
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree moderately
- Agree strongly

25. I very much like to ride horses.

- Disagree strongly
- Disagree moderately
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree moderately
- Agree strongly

26. I feel insecure about my ability to do things.

- Disagree strongly
- Disagree moderately
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree moderately
- Agree strongly

27. I am a self-reliant person.

- Disagree strongly
- Disagree moderately

- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree moderately
- Agree strongly

28. I have acquired my friends through my personal abilities at making friends.

- Disagree strongly
- Disagree moderately
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree moderately
- Agree strongly

29. I give up easily.

- Disagree strongly
- Disagree moderately
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree moderately
- Agree strongly

30. I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my life.

- Disagree strongly
- Disagree moderately
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree moderately
- Agree strongly

IV. Hardiness Scale (HS)

1. Most of my life gets spent doing things that are worthwhile.
 - Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
2. Planning ahead can help avoid most future problems.
 - Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
3. Trying hard doesn't pay, since things still don't turn outright.
 - Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
4. No matter how hard I try, my efforts usually accomplish nothing.
 - Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
5. I don't like to make changes in my everyday schedule.
 - Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true

6. The “tried and true” ways are always best.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
7. Working hard doesn’t matter, since only the bosses profit by it.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
8. By working hard you can always achieve your goals.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
9. Most working people are simply manipulated by their bosses.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
10. Most of what happens in life is just meant to be.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
11. It’s usually impossible for me to change things at work.
- Not at all true
 - A little true

- Quite true
 - Completely true
12. New laws should never hurt a person's paycheck.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
13. When I make plans, I'm certain I can make them work.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
14. It's very hard for me to change a friend's mind about something.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
15. It's exciting to learn something about myself.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
16. People who never change their minds usually have good judgement.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true

17. I really look forward to my work.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

18. Politicians run our lives.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

19. If I'm working on a difficult task, I know when to seek help.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

20. I won't answer a question until I'm really sure I understand it.

- ☐ I like Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

21. I see a lot of variety in my work.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

22. Most of the time, people listen carefully to what I say.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true

- Quite true
 - Completely true
23. Daydreams are more exciting than reality for me.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
24. Thinking of yourself as a free person just leads to frustration.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
25. Trying your best at work really pays off in the end.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
26. My mistakes are usually very difficult to correct.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
27. It bothers me when my daily routine gets interrupted.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true

28. It's best to handle most problems by just not thinking of them.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

29. Most good athletes and leaders are born, not made.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

30. I often wake up eager to take up my life wherever it left off.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

31. Lots of times, I don't really know my own mind.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

32. I respect rules because they guide me.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

33. I like it when things are uncertain or unpredictable.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true

- Quite true
 - Completely true
34. I can't do much to prevent it if someone wants to harm me.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
35. People who do their best should get full support from society.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
36. Changes in routine are interesting to me.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
37. People who believe in individuality are only kidding themselves.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true
38. I have no use for theories that are not closely tied to facts.
- Not at all true
 - A little true
 - Quite true
 - Completely true

39. Most days, life is really interesting and exciting for me.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

40. I want to be sure someone will take care of me when I'm old.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

41. It's hard to imagine anyone getting excited about working.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

42. What happens to me tomorrow depends on what I do today.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

43. If someone gets angry at me, it's usually no fault of mine.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true
- ☐ Quite true
- ☐ Completely true

44. It's hard to believe people who say their work helps society.

- ☐ Not at all true
- ☐ A little true

- Quite true
- Completely true

45. Ordinary work is just too boring to be worth doing.

- Not at all true
- A little true
- Quite true
- Completely true

V. Academic Buoyancy Scale

1. I usually complete my homework on time

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

2. I plan what I do

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

3. I am encouraged for doing academic tasks.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

4. I doubt myself in dealing with schoolwork pressure.
- Strongly disagree
 - Disagree
 - Neutral
 - Agree
 - Strongly agree
5. I feel mentally tensed when exams are nearby.
- Strongly disagree
 - Disagree
 - Neutral
 - Agree
 - Strongly agree
6. I produce my best work even under examination pressure also.
- Strongly disagree
 - Disagree
 - Neutral
 - Agree
 - Strongly agree
7. I set realistic goals for my education.
- Strongly disagree
 - Disagree
 - Neutral
 - Agree
 - Strongly agree
8. I get bad dreams related with examination.
- Strongly disagree
 - Disagree

- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

9. I cannot give presentations in classroom when asked.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

10. I discuss all my educational related issues to my family members.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

11. i get panic if my teacher asks me question during class.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

12. I plan appropriate revision schedule for studies.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

13. I don't attend classes regularly.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

14. I feel irritated when my classmates ask me for help in studies.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

15. I feel hesitation in the doing academic activities.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

16. I don't have my place/corner at home where I study.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

17. I am sufficiently aware of what I know and what I don't during class lecture.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree

- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

18. I create an effective plan for studies.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

19. I do what I plan.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

20. The teachers here make me feel that I can do the work successfully.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

21. My family is a great supporter for my Academic success.

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

22. At times I speak lie at my school.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

23. I am unable to clarify my doubts from my teacher while in class.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

24. While studying, I feel I am preoccupied with personal troubles.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

25. Studies are the most important part of my life.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

26. I set higher goals for academics.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree

- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

27. I believe I am good in reading and writing.

- ☐ Strongly disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Strongly agree

VI. Academic Stress Scale

Answer all the questions.

1. Teachers make too many extra demands on students.

- ☐ No stress
- ☐ Slight Stress
- ☐ Moderate stress
- ☐ High stress
- ☐ Extreme stress

2. Poor interest in some subjects.

- ☐ No stress
- ☐ Slight Stress
- ☐ Moderate stress
- ☐ High stress
- ☐ Extreme stress

3. Progress reports to parents

- ☐ No stress
- ☐ Slight Stress
- ☐ Moderate stress

- High stress
 - Extreme stress
4. The teacher is not humours towards us.
- No stress
 - Slight Stress
 - Moderate stress
 - High stress
 - Extreme stress
5. Lack of concentration during study hours.
- No stress
 - Slight Stress
 - Moderate stress
 - High stress
 - Extreme stress
6. Difficulty in remembering all that is studied.
- No stress
 - Slight Stress
 - Moderate stress
 - High stress
 - Extreme stress
7. Worrying about the examinations.
- No stress
 - Slight Stress
 - Moderate stress
 - High stress
 - Extreme stress

8. Lack of self-confidence.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

9. The teachers do not listen to our ideas.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

10. Conflict with friends/college authorities.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

11. Teachers give more punishment in the class.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

12. Worry about results after examinations.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

13. Hesitate to ask the teacher for detailed explanation.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

14. Biased attitude of the teacher.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

15. Inadequate space or room for study at home.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

16. Not knowing how to prepare for the examinations.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

17. Lack of assertiveness (confidence) in the class.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

19. Teacher shows socio-economic status on students.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

20. Slow in getting along with the curriculum.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

21. Exam papers are tough and not valued well.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

22. Unable to complete the assignment in time.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

23. Lack of communication between teachers and students.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

24. Monotonous (boring or tedious) teaching style by the teacher.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

25. Not enough discussion in the class.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

26. Lack of mutual help among classmates.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

27. Lack of fluency while speaking the language other than the mother tongue.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

28. Difficulty in public speaking.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

29. The teacher is fast and does not use blackboard legibly.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

30. Teachers lacking interest in students.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

31. Examination syllabus is too heavy in some subjects.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

32. Feeling of inferiority.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

33. Unable to discuss Academic failures with parents.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

34. Not able to grasp the subject matter.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

35. Incomplete and confusing study material.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

36. Eleventh hour preparation for the examinations.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

37. Importance of the subject matter.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

38. Difficulty in adjusting with opposite gender.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

39. Inadequate subject knowledge of the teacher.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

40. Inadequate lab and library facilities.

- No stress
- Slight Stress
- Moderate stress
- High stress
- Extreme stress

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

Sl. No.	Title of paper with author names	Name of the journal	Published date	ISSN No., Vol No. & Issue No.	Indexing in Scopus/ Web of Science/UGCC ARE list & Web Link
1	Effect of Academic Buoyancy in Adapting to online learning among High School Students during Covid 19 Lockdown Authors Kabeer. A (First) Shaveta Tewari (Co-author)	Neuro Quantology	December 2022	eISSN1303-5150	Scopus
2	Self-efficacy and academic stress among Adolescents Authors Kabeer A (First)	Shodh sanchar bulletin	12/11/2020	ISSN 2229-3620	UGC Care listed
3	Effect of Academic Buoyancy on Academic stress Authors Kabeer A (First)	Journal of Emerging Technologies and Innovative Research	12/10/2021	ISSN: 2349-5162	UGC Care listed

4	Influence of Self-efficacy on Academic stress among Secondary school students Authors Name: Kabeer A (First) Dr. Sanjay Ghosh,	Rabindra Bharati Journal of Philosophy	2022	ISSN No:09730 087	UGC Care listed
5	Gender disparities in Academic buoyancy: A Comparative analysis Authors Kabeer A (First) Tewari (Co-author)	Madhya Bharti Humanities and Social Sciences	January 2024	ISSN 0974-0066	UGC Care listed

LIST OF CONFERENCES

Sl No.	Conference Presented	Title	Date	Institution
1	National E-conference on Education and Development: PostCovid19	Academic stress of Students and Teachers in Post Covid 19 world	26 September 2020	Lovely Professional University, Phagwara
2	International Conference on Equality, Diversity and inclusivity: Issues and Concerns	Effect of Academic buoyancy On Academic Stress	25 September 2021	Lovely Professional University, Phagwara
3	International Symposium on World Order Under Strain: Emerging Political and Economic Challenges	Effect of Academic Buoyancy in Adapting to Online Learning among High School Students	10 June,2022	Lovely Professional University, Phagwara