

A correlation study: Parental Bonding, Self-Esteem and Academic Motivation among adolescents

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ABSTRACT

Adolescence is a pivotal stage of development that shapes an individual's academic, emotional, and psychological trajectory. The present study aimed to explore the correlation between parental bonding, self-esteem, and academic motivation among adolescents. A total of 125 adolescents (62 male and 63 female), aged between 15 and 18 years, were selected from various schools for the study. Standardized tools including the Parental Bonding Instrument, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, and Academic Motivation Scale were used for data collection. Statistical techniques such as mean, standard deviation (SD), Pearson correlation coefficient, and t-tests were employed to analyze the data. The findings revealed a significant positive correlation between parental bonding and self-esteem, and between self-esteem and academic motivation, suggesting that strong parental support is linked to greater self-worth and, subsequently, higher academic motivation. Gender-based differences were also noted in specific domains of academic behavior and emotional response. These results underscore the crucial role of healthy parental relationships in fostering positive self-perception and motivating adolescents to engage meaningfully with their academic pursuits.

Keywords: Parental bonding, self-esteem, academic motivation, adolescents, gender differences, correlation.

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INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is a transformative stage where personal identity, emotional development, and academic goals begin to take shape. Parental bonding plays a foundational role in shaping a young person's emotional security and sense of support. Self-esteem reflects how adolescents view themselves, which can strongly affect their confidence in academic settings. A strong emotional bond with parents provides a secure base, encouraging confidence and resilience. Self-esteem, or how adolescents perceive their worth and abilities, can directly impact their motivation to achieve and persevere in school. Academic motivation, in turn, is critical for goal-setting, effort, and performance.

PARENTAL BONDING

Parental bonding is conceptually defined as the core emotional attachment and psychological investment directed toward an infant or child during the formative transitions of early caregiving. This foundational bond often endures across an individual's lifespan, encompassing multi-dimensional affective, behavioral, social, and physiological links that distinctly separate it from a child's simple reliance on an available caretaker. Early scholars like Klaus and Kennell characterized parental bonding primarily as a manifestation of parental interest, warmth, and explicit affection rather than a purely transactional or reciprocal dynamic. Secure bonding frameworks operate in a complementary

relationship with infant attachment systems; an absence or structural disruption within either network can severely impede the organic development of voluntary, adaptive parent-child relationships across subsequent stages of human growth.

Empirical literature consistently underscores that high-quality parent-child bonding acts as a crucial catalyst for a child's cognitive neurodevelopment, social competence, and long-term psychological well-being. While a vast majority of primary caretakers experience an organic inclination toward providing love and physical care, structural or emotional deficits can occasionally obstruct these natural maternal and paternal affective systems. Such barriers may inadvertently foster underlying feelings of hostility, emotional detachment, or overt behavioral rejection within the domestic unit, as documented by foundational clinical studies compiled by Kumar and Brockington. These complex anomalies emphasize that parental bonding functions not merely as an automatic biological reflex, but rather as an evolving psychological climate requiring consistent systemic and relational support.

From an explicit theoretical lens, parental bonding is mirrored by the child's internal attachment patterns. Mainstream attachment theories suggest that profound individual variations exist in how developing infants establish early emotional ties with primary caretakers, and that these qualitative variations shape subsequent cognitive, social, and emotional architecture (Bowlby,

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1969, 1977). According to Bowlby's framework, attachment security remains heavily influenced by a caretaker's baseline accessibility, structural attitudes, and situational responsiveness to an infant's distress calls and emotional demands. Consistent, sensitive caregiving establishes secure attachment styles, whereas neglectful, unpredictable, or actively rejecting behavioral patterns frequently precipitate avoidant or anxious insecure attachment dynamics. Contemporary researchers look at interactional synchronization to observe these dyadic traits across early infancy and toddlerhood (Isabella, Belsky, & von Eye, 1989).

To further capture these nuanced, interactive characteristics, Kochanska (1997) introduced the structural model of Mutually Responsive Orientation (MRO), which consists of two main pillars: mutual responsiveness and a shared positive affectivity during joint activities. These behaviors are easily tracked during naturalistic observations spanning infancy, toddlerhood, and the preschool periods. Recognizing the complex nature of MRO, Aksan, Kochanska, and Ortmann (2006) expanded the framework into the Mutually Responsive Orientation Scales (MROS), which comprehensively isolate four foundational axes: coordinated behavioral procedures, harmonic communicative exchanges, mutual behavioral cooperation, and a positive overall emotional ambience within the home.

FACTORS INFLUENCING PARENTAL BONDING

The transactional paradigm of parenting highlights that the caregiving environment is deeply bidirectional, characterized by an ongoing exchange of stimulus and response. While primary caretakers structurally shape their children's baseline environments, children simultaneously exercise an active, continuous influence over parental behavior, self-efficacy, and emotional states. Specific child characteristics, including biological sex, birth order, baseline temperament, and physiological health status, significantly dictate how child-rearing strategies manifest within the domestic sphere. For example, an infant displaying an easy, predictable temperament naturally validates a caretaker's perceived efficacy, encouraging positive feedback loops such as smiling and vocalizing. Conversely, an irritable or highly distressed infant may draw out fewer spontaneous positive expressions, occasionally causing parents to experience self-doubt or elevated caregiving strain.

Beyond baseline temperament, explicit sociodemographic and gender expectations shape domestic dynamics. Historically, some parental units distribute domestic tasks based on binary gender lines; empirical studies suggest that young females are more frequently assigned internal domestic chores and sibling care, whereas young males are tasked with external maintenance responsibilities. This differential socialization extends directly into verbal communication styles. Research indicates that caretakers frequently utilize more analytical and technical explanations when speaking to their sons, while incorporating a higher density of affective, emotional terms when

communicating with their daughters. Thus, the developing child's environment is filtered through structural gender identities alongside baseline relational traits.

Consequently, the final configuration of parenting behavior is dictated by an intersection of the caregiver's own gender identity, personality architecture, institutional constraints, and the child's evolving age and temperament. Longitudinal analyses confirm that parenting styles serve as stable, reliable predictors of holistic youth well-being across diverse cultural and socio-economic demographics. Caretakers who consistently balance high levels of emotional responsiveness with appropriate structural demandingness universally secure more positive developmental outcomes for their children. As families encounter novel developmental hurdles, parents must continuously recalibrate their operational goals, adapt their structural practices, and unlock new dimensions of their own personalities to align with their children's evolving needs.

To cultivate positive emotional health and mitigate internalizing behaviors like anxiety and depression, children require an environment that actively reinforces a stable sense of security, adaptive coping mechanisms, and emotional regulation (Osofsky & Fitzgerald, 2000). Caretakers fulfill this imperative through positive affirmations, consistent warmth, and the structural reduction of environmental stressors. When primary care remains inadequate or emotionally sterile, young children exhibit higher rates of helplessness, extreme fearfulness, structural apathy, and social withdrawal (Osofsky & Fitzgerald, 2000). Thus, three core pillars—parenting knowledge, parenting attitudes, and real-world parenting practices—remain deeply interwoven, operating bidirectionally to dictate the primary developmental climate of the home environment.

According to established behavior modification frameworks (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein et al., 2001), an individual's subjective attitude directly dictates whether theoretical knowledge is successfully translated into concrete practice. If a caregiver does not internally value a specific developmental concept, they are statistically less likely to implement it. Conversely, real-world parenting practices generate lived experiences that feed back into and reshape the parent's overall knowledge base and structural attitudes. This triad is further bounded by macro-level contextual factors, including the caregiver's personal history of being parented, cultural value systems, socioeconomic resources, peer networks, and the presence or absence of supportive social institutions and community wellness policies.

Parenting knowledge must be multifaceted to address the full spectrum of a child's biological and socio-emotional needs. This requires a robust comprehension of developmental milestones, physical safety protocols, and health guidelines, alongside a functional understanding of external social systems, such as educational, medical, and legal frameworks. Interestingly, while the direct empirical data mapping parental knowledge to specific child outcomes remains

smaller than the vast literature linking parenting behaviors to youth adjustment, it remains a critical target for community-level interventions (Winter et al., 2012). Similarly, parenting attitudes are heavily reflective of broader cultural and societal paradigms. In many Western legal structures, there is a clear consensus regarding baseline boundaries—such as the explicit rejection of physical abuse, sexual exploitation, and severe nutritional or supervisory neglect. However, structural biases and systemic discrimination can color how external institutional agencies view a family, which sometimes drives vulnerable parents to distrust public health or educational programs, ultimately reducing intervention participation rates.

SELF ESTEEM

Self-esteem represents an individual's subjective evaluation of their overall personal worth, competence, and moral value. It encompasses deep-seated cognitions (e.g., "I am lovable," "I am valuable") alongside immediate emotional states such as pride, triumph, shame, and despair. Social psychologists distinguish self-concept as the cognitive representation of the self, whereas self-esteem operates as the positive or negative evaluative judgment of that specific representation. Within empirical psychology, robust self-esteem is recognized as a vital pillar of psychological resilience; it is consistently linked to elevated academic performance, high relationship satisfaction, subjective happiness, and significantly lower baseline rates of criminal activity or maladaptive substance abuse. Conversely, chronic low self-esteem serves as a major vulnerability factor for clinical anxiety, profound loneliness, and systemic social alienation.

The institutional recognition of self-esteem gained immense momentum during the mid-1970s and 1980s, sparking a widespread "self-esteem movement" that directly translated psychological theory into public policy. For example, in 1986, California Assemblyman John Vasconcellos championed the creation of the Task Force on Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility. Vasconcellos hypothesized that systematically boosting self-esteem could act as a social vaccine, effectively insulating individuals from major societal challenges like adolescent pregnancy, academic failure, violent crime, and environmental neglect. While early cross-cultural critiques argued that self-esteem was predominantly an individualistic Western construct absent in collectivist environments, contemporary psychological models highlight its universal value, prompting modern practitioners to transition toward community-wide, systemic mental health frameworks rather than limiting treatment to isolated, one-on-one therapies.

In essence, self-esteem represents an internal, subjective barometer of personal worth. Healthy self-esteem heavily influences an individual's intrinsic motivation, mental health trajectories, and overall quality of life. The psychological architecture of self-esteem relies upon five distinct, interconnected components:

- **Self-confidence:** belief in one's personal judgment and capability.

- **Feelings of security:** the emotional foundation of safety within relationships and environments.

- **Identity:** a clear acceptance of personal values and roles.

- **Sense of belonging:** the perception of connection and acceptance within a social group.

- **Feeling of competence:** the subjective awareness of one's ability to successfully master tasks.

Self-esteem follows a distinct developmental trajectory, often hitting its lowest point during childhood and steadily rising across adolescence and adulthood before settling into a highly stable, long-lasting pattern akin to a core personality trait.

Maintaining a balanced, realistic, and healthy level of self-esteem empowers individuals to confront adverse situations with courage, establish deep interpersonal relationships, and chase ambitious goals with perseverance. This psychological resilience stems from a history of constructive life experiences, positive social feedback, and adaptive personal reflection. Those with a strong sense of self-worth view their abilities with objective positivity, allowing them to absorb constructive feedback without descending into self-doubt. Conversely, low self-esteem triggers persistent insecurity, fear of failure, and cognitive distortions, often tracking back to early experiences of bullying, chronic criticism, or a lack of emotional validation from primary caretakers. Cultivating self-esteem is a lifelong process anchored in self-compassion, realistic goal-setting, and supportive social environments.

IMPORTANCE OF SELF ESTEEM

Self-esteem actively governs human decision-making, interpersonal relationship dynamics, emotional health, and holistic personal well-being. It serves as a prime engine of human motivation; individuals with a positive self-image recognize their inherent potential and are organically inspired to embrace novel challenges. Healthy self-esteem is characterized by four primary traits: a clear, objective understanding of one's personal skills; a positive relationship with oneself that facilitates healthy boundaries with others; the maintenance of realistic personal expectations; and the capacity to articulate personal needs clearly. In stark contrast, individuals suffering from low self-esteem operate with reduced confidence, frequently second-guessing their choices and avoiding growth opportunities due to a paralyzing fear of failure. They often feel fundamentally unlovable or undeserving of success, which cripples their interpersonal communication and coping capacity. Conversely, excessively high or narcissistic self-esteem can be equally dysfunctional. Individuals on this end of the spectrum often overestimate their actual capabilities, harbor fragile feelings of entitlement, and actively resist self-improvement because they are preoccupied with maintaining an illusion of perfection. During the critical transition of adolescence, self-esteem operates as a highly fluid psychological construct that is incredibly sensitive to biological changes, academic stressors, peer feedback, and media beauty standards. Because teenagers possess heightened self-awareness, their

perceived physical attractiveness and social status heavily color their self-worth. Gender variations also play a visible role during this phase, heavily dictated by how localized cultural norms interpret gender roles and behavioral expectations.

When adolescents receive targeted support from educators and caretakers, experiencing small successes can gradually reconstruct a fractured self-image. This empowers them to face major stressors—such as high-stakes public speaking or complex examinations—with adaptive confidence, stepping forward despite normal performance anxiety. A robust foundation of self-esteem reduces overall stress, grounds personal decision-making, and encourages individuals to pursue goal-directed behaviors without constantly demanding outside approval. Furthermore, self-esteem fosters true resilience, enabling individuals to view severe life setbacks—such as unexpected job loss or academic probation—not as fixed personal flaws, but as localized, instructive learning experiences that can be overcome with strategic effort and adaptive self-care.

TYPES OF SELF ESTEEM

According to Thomas F. Scotton, MD: Self-esteem is an important part of our identity and is necessary for our mental and emotional health. It is the cornerstone of our confidence and how we see ourselves in the world. However, not all self-esteem is equal. There are various sorts of self-esteem, each with its own qualities and impact on our life.

1. High self-esteem.

This entails maintaining a secure, positive attitude toward one's character and abilities. Individuals within this category are naturally resilient, confident, and independent, viewing failures with optimism and moving forward without allowing criticism to disrupt their core sense of worth. They accept their flaws without engaging in harsh self-punishment, which minimizes their risk for clinical anxiety or depression. In social relationships, they communicate boundaries transparently and expect reciprocal respect, allowing them to exit toxic or exploitative environments with confidence.

2. Low self-esteem.

This functions as the direct antithesis, marked by an overarching negative evaluation of one's capabilities and worth. This typology traps individuals in chronic self-doubt, hyper-sensitivity to criticism, and continuous social comparison. Because they focus exclusively on their weaknesses, they struggle to accept genuine praise, often feeling like impostors even when achieving high academic or professional marks. This mindset increases vulnerability to dependent relationship dynamics, where individuals tolerate poor treatment due to a deep-seated belief that they do not deserve better. While low self-esteem is typically rooted in childhood adversity or emotional neglect, targeted therapeutic interventions and conscious cognitive restructuring can help rebuild a more secure self-image over time.

3. Defensive self-esteem

This represents a highly fragile, unstable form of self-worth that outwardly mimics true confidence but

remains intensely vulnerable to external disruption. Individuals with defensive self-esteem project an arrogant, hyper-confident persona to shield deep-seated feelings of inadequacy. Because their self-worth is not grounded in genuine self-acceptance, any negative feedback or perceived failure is met with intense anger, blame projection, or aggressive defensiveness. They often boast about achievements and put others down to artificially inflate their status, avoiding any challenge where their absolute proficiency might be called into question.

4. Fragile self-esteem.

This shares structural vulnerabilities with defensive types, relying exclusively on continuous outside approval and situational validation to maintain equilibrium. When an individual with fragile self-esteem experiences a minor disappointment or receives constructive criticism, their confidence collapses, transforming their emotional state into defensiveness or social withdrawal. This instability creates an intense, constant need for reassurance and an avoidant behavioral pattern, as any error feels like a catastrophic personal indictment. Strengthening fragile self-esteem requires shifting the individual's focus away from external validation and toward internal values, self-kindness, and the mindful acceptance of human imperfection.

5. Healthy self-esteem.

This achieves a functional equilibrium between self-confidence and genuine humility. Individuals possessing healthy self-esteem maintain an objective, positive view of their strengths while remaining consciously aware of their personal boundaries and areas requiring improvement. They accept constructive criticism with grace and manage setbacks with resilience, demonstrating confidence without descending into arrogance. Understanding where an individual sits on this self-esteem spectrum is essential for tailoring effective psychological interventions and fostering long-term emotional maturity and life satisfaction.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Within educational psychology, achievement represents the successful mastery and fulfillment of significant, goal-directed tasks, typically operationalized through formal learning environments. It reflects the knowledge, skills, and competencies acquired through an individual's dedicated efforts and underlying cognitive abilities. Achievement serves as a critical axis of human motivation, directly shaping an individual's self-concept, self-efficacy, and global emotional well-being. Common empirical examples include academic achievement (e.g., graduating with honors or maximizing standardized test outcomes) and career achievement (e.g., earning professional advancements, raises, or mastering complex clinical and technical skills). Additionally, relationship success represents an important social achievement, manifest in the deliberate cultivation of rewarding family bonds and deep interpersonal networks.

Achievement motivation constitutes the internal psychological drive that compels individuals to pursue,

persist, and excel at challenging, meaningful benchmarks. Driven by a deep-seated desire for personal growth and excellence, individuals with high achievement motivation systematically establish ambitious yet realistic goals, demonstrating immense pride in the work required to succeed. They approach obstacles with a proactive mindset, viewing failures as educational experiences rather than reasons for disengagement. This drive heavily influences group problem-solving dynamics, professional adaptation, and workplace productivity. Ultimately, achievement is governed by a highly complex, interactive matrix of baseline ability, intrinsic drive, strategic goal-setting, self-regulation, stable personality traits, and the surrounding socio-environmental climate.

Broadly speaking, motivation explains the underlying rationale behind human behavior, serving as the biological, emotional, social, and cognitive engine that initiates and sustains goal-directed actions. Because human motives are rarely directly observable, behavioral scientists must systematically infer them by evaluating visible behavioral patterns. Motivation is fundamentally bifurcated into two primary dimensions: extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is triggered by external incentives, such as material rewards, financial compensation, social status, trophies, or praise. Intrinsic motivation, conversely, arises entirely from within the individual, sparked by the inherent joy, curiosity, and personal satisfaction of mastering an activity for its own sake, independent of external pressure.

TYPES OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Employees can experience various sorts of motivation, including:

• Extrinsic Motivation

This delivers outward satisfaction derived from completing an activity to secure an explicit reward or avoid a negative consequence. This framework operates heavily via external rewards such as salary increases, grades, bonuses, public recognition, or institutional awards. While extrinsic motivation is highly effective for driving short-term performance, ensuring adherence to strict deadlines, and maintaining basic discipline across routine tasks, it rarely cultivates deep, long-term personal engagement. Over-reliance on external incentives can occasionally undermine an individual's natural curiosity, though it remains a powerful tool when structured thoughtfully within competitive arenas.

• Intrinsic motivation

This represents the direct internal drive to engage in an activity because it is personally fulfilling, enjoyable, or conceptually stimulating. Driven by curiosity and a genuine sense of purpose, an intrinsically motivated student or researcher explores a topic deeply for the pure joy of understanding, completely independent of grades or financial rewards. This typology yields higher rates of creativity, deeper cognitive processing, and sustainable involvement over time, as it satisfies the core human psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Nurturing intrinsic motivation within

educational and corporate systems remains essential for fostering meaningful, long-term human development and professional innovation.

• Incentive motivation

This operates specifically when an individual is energized by an anticipated external reward, causing them to focus intensely on the final outcome rather than the underlying process. For example, during intensive study blocks or demanding professional projects, individuals utilize the anticipation of a scholarship or a higher salary tier to maximize their immediate learning and operational capacity. This mechanism relies on the subjective value and perceived desirability of the external stimulus. While highly effective for shaping targeted behavioral changes and boosting performance in therapeutic or educational settings, an over-reliance on incentive structures can erode internal interest, turning a potentially meaningful activity into a purely transactional task.

• Motivating affiliations

This stems from a person's desire for meaningful interpersonal connection and group alignment. In collaborative workspaces, individuals become self-motivated to maximize their output when they feel a deep sense of belonging to a purpose-driven community. Aligning with an ambitious peer group, athletic team, or professional network immerses the individual in a shared culture of progress and collective resilience. This supportive framework bolsters personal confidence, enhances self-efficacy, and instills a deep sense of mutual accountability. Belonging to such a purpose-oriented circle transforms success from a solitary pursuit into a shared, collective triumph, dramatically boosting long-term satisfaction and resilience.

• Expectancy Motivation

A core component of Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory, this explains that human effort is determined by the subjective consequences an individual anticipates following an action. This cognitive model relies on three variables: expectancy (the belief that increased effort will directly yield better performance), instrumentality (the belief that successful performance will be fairly recognized and rewarded), and valence (the subjective value or desirability of the reward). Motivation is maximized only when all three elements are high. Leaders and educators leverage this framework by designing transparent reward structures that explicitly link personal dedication to fair institutional rewards, thereby minimizing frustration and maximizing organizational commitment.

• Competence Motivation

This reflects an individual's intrinsic drive to master their environment, develop absolute proficiency, and successfully navigate complex tasks. This fundamental psychological need fuels deep learning and long-term skill acquisition. Competence-motivated professionals, such as neurosurgeons or aerospace engineers, dedicate themselves to continuous skill refinement to achieve expertise in their fields, deriving profound internal satisfaction from mastering intricate problems. This mindset fosters high self-efficacy, resilience, and a

proactive approach to challenges. Conversely, environments that stifle competence through excessive criticism, lack of constructive feedback, or unrealistic tasks undermine this drive, resulting in anxiety and disengagement.

FACTORS INFLUENCING ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Psychological research demonstrates that academic and professional success is dictated by an interplay of cognitive capabilities and non-cognitive behavioral traits. While standardized intelligence metrics (IQ) remain strong predictors of performance, meta-analyses confirm that student motivation and integrity (effort, dedication, and intellectual curiosity) play an equally critical role in long-term outcomes. The transition from an unorganized home learning environment to structured primary education marks a major developmental milestone; early academic adjustment heavily dictates subsequent achievement trajectories. Furthermore, academic socialization represents the critical pathway through which parents shape their children's attitudes toward education, heavily leveraging home conversations, reading habits, and structural resource environments.

Because the initial years of life are critical for language development and foundational social skills, early childhood intervention directly dictates school readiness and subsequent adaptation. Additionally, regular physical activity has been shown to increase neuronal activity, particularly enhancing executive functions such as selective attention, working memory, and cognitive flexibility across both elementary and higher education students. Beyond these cognitive baselines, a cluster of non-cognitive factors—including academic self-efficacy, self-control, emotional intelligence, determination, and grit—exerts a massive influence on success. Coined by sociologist Samuel Bowles in the 1970s, the term "non-cognitive" draws vital attention to behavioral strategies, mindsets, and habits that escape traditional standardized testing but heavily dictate real-world outcomes.

Academic self-efficacy, a concept rooted in Albert Bandura's pioneering work, represents an individual's deep-seated belief in their ability to successfully execute specific tasks and realize ambitious goals. High self-efficacy empowers learners to view severe difficulties as opportunities for growth, driving them to invest greater effort, apply adaptive learning strategies, and persist through setbacks. Conversely, low self-efficacy breeds crippling self-doubt and avoidant behaviors, causing individuals to postpone or completely evade challenging assignments due to a fear of failure. Self-efficacy is organically constructed through four sources: mastery experiences (past successes), vicarious experiences (observing similar peers succeed), social persuasion (constructive encouragement), and the adaptive regulation of physiological stress states.

Ultimately, self-efficacy cultivates a profound sense of personal agency and life control, which is essential for fostering psychological resilience and long-term career advancement. Finally, achievement motivation operates

not as an isolated trait, but as a dynamic configuration of an individual's self-concept of ability, perceived task value, and structural goal orientation. Modern studies show that a student's self-concept of ability serves as an incredibly powerful predictor of final grades, often outperforming traditional intelligence metrics. Furthermore, high self-control enables individuals to align their immediate thoughts, emotions, and behaviors with long-term goals when confronted with highly attractive, short-term alternatives, bridging the gap between potential and real-world achievement.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Cn and Kour (2025) investigated the relationship between parental bonding, emotional intelligence, self-esteem, and academic performance among college students. The findings show substantial links between emotional intelligence, self-esteem, and academic success, with parental attachment serving as a critical foundational factor in establishing emotional and self-conceptual traits. Regression research shows that emotional intelligence and self-esteem are the most important predictors of academic performance. These findings highlight the critical role of family dynamics and emotional factors in boosting academic attainment in young adults. Future research should investigate causal links and the impact of cultural and socioeconomic factors on academic success.

Jain et.al (2024) conducted the study of Transitioning from childhood to adulthood presents problems for parent-child relationships and child self-esteem. This study investigates the link between parental involvement and self-esteem in teenagers. We assessed the constructs using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Student-Rated Parental School Involvement with 120 participants aged 12-18. Results show a negative association between parental involvement and self-esteem. These findings have implications for interventions and support methods to improve teenage outcomes.

Kiluta et.al (2024) examined the study of how parental attachment, self-esteem, and academic performance affect pupils in mixed-day secondary schools in Masinga Sub-County, Machakos County, Kenya. The study sampled 356 students from a target group of 4,796 using simple random selection. Data was collected using the Parental Attachment Questionnaire, Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale, and demographic questionnaires. The data was analyzed using SPSS version 25 software, descriptive statistics. It identified three types of parental attachment: anxious, avoidance, and secure and indicated that of individuals had low self-esteem, had good self-esteem, had average academic achievement, had poor academic performance, and had excellent academic performance. It found a negative but significant correlation between avoidance of parental attachment and self-esteem.

Atuhaire & Ssenyonga (2024) aimed to academic success encompasses a range of elements, including

memory, aptitude, motivation, temperament, and emotions. This study looked at the correlation between bonding and academic performance among secondary school students in Mbarara Municipality, Uganda and utilized both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. It employed a cross-sectional survey design to gather data from several schools. The study involved ten randomly selected schools. Data was acquired via surveys and focus groups. The study found that participants with negligent parenting styles did badly during mother-father bonding.

Mayra et.al (2023) explored parent-adolescent relationships vary in intimacy, communication, conflict, and autonomy. This study aims to investigate how parent-adolescent conflict affects teenagers' self-esteem, success motivation, risk-taking attitude, and behavior, as well as identify major gender differences. A descriptive survey research design was adopted, using random sampling and included 400 teenagers (200 male and 200 female) between the ages of 14 and 18. Data were gathered through a study of urban high schools in Purulia and Bankura districts, West Bengal, India. This study included four tools: Conflict Behavior Questionnaire (Adolescent version), State Self-Esteem Scale (SSES), and Adolescent Motivation for Educational Attainment Questionnaire (AMEAQ), and Adolescent Risk-taking Questionnaire (ARQ). Research shows that parental-adolescent conflict negatively impacts teenagers' self-esteem, academic achievement, and risk-taking behavior.

Fute et.al (2023) explained that parental trust and support are key drivers of children's cognitive development and later-life actions. Although their impact on student learning engagement has been reported, the underlying mechanisms remain unclear. This study evaluated two key hypotheses: (1) that general self-esteem (GSE) mediates the causal association between parents' trust and support (PTS) and learning engagement. (2) College grade level influences the mediation effect. Data was acquired from 1139 Tanzanian college students who completed an online questionnaire. Data analysis was conducted using SPSS, PROCESS, and JASP. The study found that GSE mediated the causative connection between PTS and LE and PTS had a smaller direct effect on LE compared to its total effect following mediation.

Prehanto et.al (2023) investigated that education is still essential for developing human resources in today's world. Schools are typically viewed as essential for developing children's competencies. This study examines how families give comprehensive and holistic education in orphanages. This study used a mixed-method methodology, namely a sequential explanatory design, with 34 respondents from orphanages and caregivers obtained through purposive sampling. Data collection methods included reviewing relevant papers and administering parental bonding questionnaires. According to the report, family education involves more than just aiding children at home and enrolling them in

higher education. It also includes advising, creating trust, and providing positive role models.

Mistry et.al (2023) evaluated the study by using a descriptive survey with a correlational design to examine how self-concept and academic life satisfaction affect achievement motivation among adolescents in school. The study included 1027 Bengali-speaking adolescents aged 14-16 from classes IX and X in the South 24 Parganas District, West Bengal. The Self-Concept Inventory, Multidimensional Student's Life Satisfaction Scale, and Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation Scale were used. A correlation analysis found a significant positive relationship between self-concept, academic life satisfaction, and achievement motivation in adolescents. The study found substantial links between academic accomplishment motivation, academic life satisfaction, and self-concept.

Ding et.al (2023) identified to investigate how self-esteem affects the relationship between parental attachment and social initiative among adolescents in mainland China. This study endeavour included self-report data from 589 Hangzhou secondary school students who participated in the Cross-National Study of Adolescence. Structural equation modeling found that teenagers' self-esteem influenced the relationship between father, not maternal, connection and social initiative. There was no direct correlation between maternal connection and adolescents' social initiative.

Rebalde (2022) illustrated that parental bonding plays a critical influence in shaping teenagers' personality, behaviour, emotions, and disposition. Emotional intelligence, autonomy, and self-esteem. Two hundred eighty-three senior high school students

from a college in Iligan City, Philippines, were assessed on parental attachment, emotional intelligence, self-determination, and state self-esteem scales. The statistical tests utilized were Pearson correlation and regression. Results show that paternal care positively impacts adaptability. Paternal overprotection decreased self-awareness and perceived choice. Adolescent students' self-awareness, perceived choice, and social self-esteem were all negatively impacted by mother overprotection. These studies emphasize the impact of parental bonding on young people's emotional intelligence, self-determination, and self-esteem.

Verma and Wagani (2022) aimed to explore a child's growth which is significantly influenced by the parent-child interaction. A strong parent-child relationship is crucial for fostering self-esteem and self-concept development. The current study aimed to determine if a parent-child relationship predicts academic achievement through self-esteem and self-concept. The sample comprised of 150 students aged 18 to 21 years. The factors were measured using the Parent-adult Relationship Questionnaire, Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale, and Robson's Self-Concept Scale. Academic attainment was judged based on 12th standard scores.

Academic achievement was found to be strongly positively connected with self-esteem, self-concept, and parent-child relationships. Parent-child relationships did not predict academic achievement, with self-esteem and self-concept as modifiers.

Mahajabeen et.al (2022) aimed to create a research on the impact of parental influence on children's life outcomes continues to yield innovative and significant insights. This study examines how family support influences children's occupational educational choices. The study analyzes how family and parental support affects adolescents' self-esteem. A systematic evaluation of 15 publications examined the impact of various family and parental characteristics, including expectations, money, and support, as well as personal interests.

Yau et.al (2021) explained that the previous study has examined parental behavior and student motivation as independent factors of academic achievement in adolescents. This study investigated the relationship between parental behavior, teenage motivation, and academic accomplishment. They analyzed data from 220 youth program participants to see if academic goal engagement and disengagement have a role in mediating the relationship between academic accomplishment and parental relationships. Additional research suggests that mother warmth may have a positive impact on teenagers' academic success, while maternal devaluation may be negative. Perceived father psychological control was linked to decreased academic achievement but not to adolescents' goal disengagement.

Kim and Kim (2021) discovered the impact of positive parenting styles on academic achievement in middle school adolescents, with a focus on self-esteem and academic engagement as mediators. Data from the South Korea Children and Youth Panel Survey 2018 were analyzed using SPSS21.0, AMOS22.0, and PROCESS. Positive parenting styles and academic engagement were found to have a significant positive impact on self-esteem and academic achievement. Furthermore, self-esteem and academic engagement played a mediation role in the relationship between positive parenting methods and academic attainment. Educators should create initiatives to promote healthy parenting practices and encourage academic engagement among middle school pupils.

Batool (2020) created a research which demonstrates that parenting affects children's behavior, personality, well-being, performance, attitudes, and academic accomplishment. The study sought to analyze the direct and indirect effects of a compassionate and supportive parenting style on academic attainment. The sample consisted of 210 male and 292 female undergraduate university students. Participants' ages ranged from 22 to 24 years. The Perceived Dimensions of Parenting Scale Rosenberg Measures employed included the Self-Esteem Scale, Procrastination Assessment Scale for Students, Cumulative Grade Point Average, and other

demographic data. Self-esteem also serves as a mediator between positive parenting, academic procrastination, and academic achievement.

Chimizie et.al (2019) explored the study which examined self-esteem, parenting style, and gender as predictors of success motivation in adolescents. The study included 215 teenagers (97 men and 118 females) aged 10-18 years. A cross-sectional survey design was used for this investigation. Three measures were utilized to collect data: the Index of Self-esteem, Parenting Care Scale, and Achievement Motivation Scale. The hierarchical multiple regression statistic was used for data analysis. The study proposed and tested five null hypotheses. The study's limitations were discussed, along with recommendations for future research.

Suvidha and Gera (2019) conducted a study that sought to determine the level of parental encouragement and achievement motivation. The study included 200 secondary and higher secondary students (100 girls and 100 boys) from both private and government institutions in Delhi. The study aimed to identify gender differences in parental encouragement and achievement motivation among students in government and private schools, as well as the correlation between the two. Data was collected using standardized techniques, including Dr. R.R. Sharma's Parental Encouragement Scale and Prof. Pratibha Deo and Dr. Asha Mohan's Achievement Motivation Scale. The study found that most teenagers have an average degree of parental encouragement and achievement drive, with some reporting high or low levels. The study found a significant correlation between the two. Research suggests that adolescents who get parental encouragement are more motivated to attain their goals.

Mehan and Sharma (2018) explored the study which aimed to investigate the relationship between teenage self-esteem and academic accomplishment, as well as how sexual orientation affects these factors. The study found no significant factors influencing adolescents' self-esteem. Adolescents' scholastic achievement varied significantly. Research shows that teenagers with high self-esteem had greater health, adaptability, and fewer depressive symptoms. It examines the effects of parent-adolescent communication and measures of parent-adolescent interaction to predict parental self-esteem. Research suggests that adolescents and their parents have unique perspectives on their relationships, and that self-perceptions, particularly communication judgments, play a crucial role in predicting self-esteem for both parties.

Mehan (2018) suggested the study that examines the impact of parent-child relationships on teenagers' self-esteem, achievement, and motivation levels. The inquiry sample consists of 50 adolescents from both urban and rural settings.

Hussain et.al (2017) aimed to investigate the impact of parental connection on children's self-esteem and self-

efficacy, across genders. The study included 100 boys and 100 girls from various schools selected through convenience sampling. The study used the Parental Bonding Scale, Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale, and General Self Efficacy Scale. These findings highlight the need of taking into account multiple components of parental bonding and perspectives when analyzing the impact on children's self-efficacy and self-esteem.

Wairimu et.al (2016) suggested the study which examined how parental participation affects self-esteem among secondary school students in Kieni West District, Nyeri County. The study was guided by Self Determination Theory (SDT) by James William and the Baumrind Theory of Parenting Styles by Diana Blumberg Baumrind. The study focused on the link between parental participation in autonomy, competence, and relatedness and the development of self-esteem in teenagers and used a mixed methods research approach, combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies. The instruments included questionnaires and unstructured interviews. They collected quantitative data from 200 participants from 8 schools using a chance sampling strategy. Purpose sampling was used to gather qualitative data from 8 participants across 8 schools.

Gadallah et.al (2016) aimed to investigate parent-adolescent conflict encompasses all types of disagreements, both positive and negative, between parents and their children. The study attempted to discover parent-adolescent conflicts and their impact on academic achievement and self-esteem. A descriptive correlational study design was utilized. This study recruited 1018 adolescents. The study was done in eight governmental preparatory schools in Assiut Governorate, Upper Egypt, with four in urban and four in rural locations. This study utilized four tools: a demographic questionnaire for teenagers and their parents, a checklist of parent-adolescent difficulties, an adolescent self-esteem measure, and an assessment of adolescents' academic achievement. In conclusion, most adolescents experienced frequent but not serious conflict with their parents. Parent-adolescent conflict positively impacts adolescent academic attainment.

Ruholt et.al (2015) investigated the impact of parental involvement on teenage academic well-being. They expected that parental support and involvement would predict distinct variances in self-esteem and academic self-efficacy. There were 250 participants (99 males and 151 females) from various counties in Kentucky, ranging from 6th to 12th grade. Students received a packet containing surveys and questionnaires related to the study. A regression study found that parental support and involvement correlated positively with academic self-efficacy and self-esteem. These findings indicate that parental support and involvement are equally crucial for a student's academic well-being.

Kumar and Lal (2014) explored the relationship between academic achievement and family environment.

The study included 200 adolescents aged 15-18 years. The researchers utilized the aggregate percentage of grades from the previous two classes to measure academic achievement. Moos' (1974) Family Environment Scale (FES) was used to examine how family influences adolescent academic success females' outperformed boys in academics, but boys outperformed females in family environment scores.

Rosli (2014) examined the relationship between parenting style and emotional and behavioral difficulties in Muslim American children. There were no significant variations in emotional or behavioral difficulties across parenting groups. Consistent parenting did not correlate with emotional or behavioral difficulties. The study sample revealed that fathers preferred authoritative parenting, whereas mothers preferred authoritarian parenting.

Buoy (2013) explored the study which aims to investigate how parental participation affects college students' academic motivation and accomplishment. Approximately 115 college students took the Perceptions of Parental Autonomy-Support and Control Scale (Robbins, 1994) and Academic Motivation Scale (Vallerand, 1992). Students' cumulative grade point averages (GP As) were utilized to assess academic achievement. Independent samples t tests revealed that students with poor parental support scored lower on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, while students with great parental control scored significantly higher.

H Shin et.al (2012) examined how parental bonding styles impact academic burnout in Korean adolescents. Participants included 447 middle school kids who completed the Parental Bonding Instrument and the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Student Survey. Adolescents who report the ideal bonding parental style for both mother and father have lower ratings on three subscales of academic burnout (Exhaustion, Cynicism, and Inefficacy) compared to those who describe the affectionless control parental style.

Acharya and Joshi (2011) suggested that parental support has the greatest direct impact on the development of achievement motivation. This study sheds light on how achievement motivation and parental support interact. The study aimed to explore the link between achievement motivation and parental support, as well as gender disparities in parental support. The survey included 500 adolescents aged 16-18 from Varanasi city, enrolled in 11th and 12th grade Deo. The study's findings are positive and have significant implications for both educators and parents.

Minj (1999) aimed to examine parental participation and their perceived impact on children's achievement. This study focused on parents with children enrolled in a suburban Catholic primary school. The inquiry involved surveys, interviews, and a review of school papers and found that most respondents were actively involved in their children's learning activities. Almost

65% of parents who responded to the poll did not attend any meetings that year and all respondents saw parental participation as critical for their children's success.

Luzum (1996) argued that self-esteem is the most fundamental indicator of human safety and survival. The author argued that self-love and acceptance are crucial for human behavior. According to Faust (1980), self-esteem influences all aspect of a person's life, from thoughts to actions. However, the composition and definition of self-esteem are still being debated. Going through the above relevant reviews of literature or studies examined by several researchers, it has been found that while some research has explored the relationships among these variables, many of these studies have focused on international populations or adult groups. Therefore, the relationship between parental bonding, self-esteem, and academic motivation among adolescents in the Indian context has not received adequate attention from local researchers. For this reason, there was a need to explore this area further. Hence, this study aims to contribute to a deeper understanding of how parental bonding influences the development of self-esteem and academic motivation during adolescence—a critical developmental stage. This study will also highlight how adolescents form their self-worth and drive for achievement in connection to their familial relationships. The results of the study will be beneficial for educators, parents, and mental health professionals and will also assist future researchers in refining and expanding studies related to parental bonding, self-esteem, and academic motivation in adolescents.

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this present study was to examine the relationship between parental bonding, self-esteem and achievement motivation among adolescents.

Operational Definitions

Parental Bonding: - Parental bonding is the profound emotional connection that develops between a parent and their kid, beginning in infancy and lasting throughout adulthood. This link is formed by constant nurturing activities such as physical love, comforting, feeding, and meeting the child's needs. Positive interactions, such as playing, conversing, and making eye contact, help to deepen the relationship. Parental bonding is essential for a child's emotional and psychological development because it fosters a sense of safety and trust. Children who have strong parental attachments tend to acquire stronger social skills, more self-esteem, and healthier relationships later in life. In contrast, a lack of bonding can lead to feelings of insecurity or trouble building attachments with people.

Self-Esteem: - Self-esteem is a person's sense of worth and confidence in themselves and their talents. It shapes people's perceptions of their worth and influences their thoughts, feelings, and actions. Healthy self-esteem enables people to handle problems with fortitude, establish strong relationships, and pursue goals with

tenacity. On the other hand, poor self-esteem can cause self-doubt, fear of failure, and trouble trusting others. Positive reinforcement, supportive situations, and personal accomplishments all contribute to people's self-esteem.

Achievement Motivation: - Achievement motivation is the inner drive that propels people to set and pursue objectives, aiming for success and greatness, particularly in difficult situations. It represents an individual's drive to complete tasks, improve their talents, and be recognized for their accomplishments. Personal variables like ambition, confidence, and perseverance can all have an impact on motivation, as can external influences like rewards, feedback, and competition. People with strong achievement motivation are more likely to establish demanding but attainable objectives, persevere through adversity, and constantly seek methods to improve. They frequently measure success by own progress and accomplishments rather than relying primarily on external approval.

Objectives

1. To find out the intercorrelation among factors of parental bonding as well as factors of achievement motivation on the basis gender.
2. To find out the intercorrelation among factors of parental bonding as well as factors of achievement motivation on the basis occupation.
3. To find out the intercorrelation among factors of parental bonding as well as factors of achievement motivation on the basis age.
4. To find out the intercorrelation among factors of parental bonding, self-esteem as well as factors of achievement motivation on the basis demographic variables.
5. To find out the difference among factors of parental bonding on the basis gender.
6. To find out the difference among factors of achievement motivation on the basis gender.
7. To find out the difference among factors of parental bonding, self-esteem as well as achievement motivation on the basis gender.

Hypotheses

- H1:** There is a significant intercorrelation among factors of parental bonding as well as factors of achievement motivation on the basis gender.
- H2:** There is a significant intercorrelation among factors of parental bonding as well as factors of achievement motivation on the basis occupation.
- H3:** There is a significant intercorrelation among factors of parental bonding as well as factors of achievement motivation on the basis age.
- H4:** There is a significant intercorrelation among factors of parental bonding, self-esteem as well as factors of achievement motivation on the basis demographic variables.
- H5:** There is a significant difference among factors of parental bonding on the basis gender.
- H6:** There is a significant difference among factors of achievement motivation on the basis gender.

H7: There is a significant difference among factors of parental bonding, self-esteem as well as achievement motivation on the basis gender.

Sample

A sample is a small group or fraction of a larger population selected to represent the entire. It is frequently used in research or studies to collect data and draw conclusions about a larger group without having to examine everyone. A well-chosen sample ensures that the findings are accurate and representative of the greater population, making the study more practical and efficient.

Study Area: - This study was conducted on the adolescent students aged 15-19 years from three different high schools.

Sampling Technique

Sampling techniques are the methods used to pick a subset of individuals or items from a broader population for study or analysis. These strategies serve to ensure that the sample accurately represents the population, making the findings more credible and generalizable. Common sampling strategies include random sampling, in which every member has an equal chance of being chosen, stratified sampling, in which the population is divided into subgroups to assure representation, and convenience sampling, in which participants are chosen based on their ease of access. Choosing the appropriate

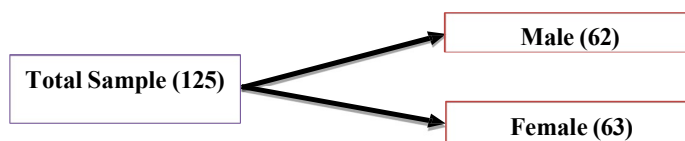
sample procedure is critical for reducing bias and increasing the study's validity.

In this present study, “**Purposive Sampling**” method was used.

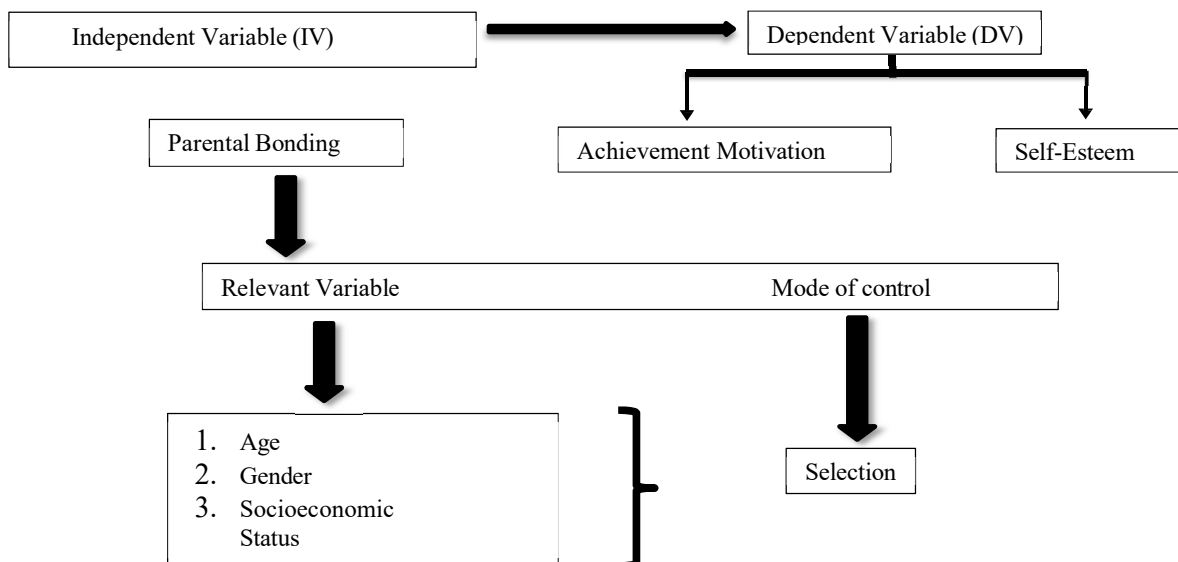
Purposive Sampling: - Purposive sampling is a strategy in which researchers choose persons or data that meet specified criteria or qualities relevant to their study. Instead of choosing at random, they utilize their discretion to select those who can supply the most relevant or insightful information. This strategy is frequently employed in qualitative research, where gaining deeper insights, experiences, or unique viewpoints is more significant than generalizing data to a broader group. Purposive sampling enables researchers to focus on specific cases that are rich in information, making the study more targeted and useful.

Purposive sampling's key advantage is its capacity to give rich, thorough, and targeted data by intentionally selecting individuals with certain characteristics or experiences relevant to the study. This strategy enables researchers to target individuals who are most likely to contribute significant insights, increasing the study's relevance and efficiency. It is especially beneficial in qualitative research, which seeks to understand unique views or investigate complex occurrences. Furthermore, purposive sampling ensures that the sample is well aligned with the study aims, resulting in deeper analysis and more accurate conclusions within the specified context.

Sample Size: - In the present study, the total sample consisted of 125.



Research Design



● **Inclusion Criteria :** There are some characteristics which were followed at the time of the sample:-

1. All the adolescents are in between 13 to 19 years of age.
2. Adolescents must be enrolled in a school or educational institution.
3. Adolescents must be able to read and understand the language in which the survey or assessment tools are administered.
4. Students must be day-schooler.

● **Exclusion Criteria_:** On the basis of following characteristics, participants were excluded during selection procedure :-

1. Adolescents with severe cognitive or emotional impairment that may affect their ability to complete the survey or assessment tools.
2. Adolescents who have experienced trauma or significant stress that may impact their ability to participate in the study.
3. Adolescents who are not willing to provide informed consent or assent.

Tools Used

General Information:

In addition to the primary psychological assessment tools, a General Information Schedule was utilized to gather key demographic data from the participants. This part of the questionnaire included questions related to age, gender (male or female), level of education (ranging from completion of Class 10 and 12 to undergraduate and postgraduate degrees), and occupational status (categorized as employed, unemployed, or student). Collecting this demographic information allowed for a deeper analysis of group differences and offered insights into how factors such as family environment and personal background influence parent-child bonding and academic outcomes. These details also supported the statistical analysis, including subgroup comparisons through t-tests and correlation methods.

Parental Bonding Instrument

The Parental Bonding Instrument is made up of two scales: 'care' and 'overprotection' or 'control', which assess core parental styles as experienced by the kid. The measure is 'retrospective', meaning that adults (over 16 years) complete the measure for how they remember their parents during their first 16 years. The measure is to be completed for both mothers and fathers separately. There are 25 item questions, including 12 'care' items and 13 'overprotection' items.

Reliability and Validity: In the initial study, the PBI had strong internal consistency and retest reliability. We have examined the PBI's test-retest dependability over extended durations and will soon publish data for a 20-year interval, providing additional assurance. The PBI exhibits satisfactory construct and convergent validity, and is independent of mood effects.

Scoring

Unlike the Intimate Bond Measure (IBM), not all items are scored in the same direction.

1. **Care Items:** 1, 5, 6, 11, 12, 17: Very like= 3, Moderately like= 2, Moderately unlike = 1, Very unlike= 0. Items: 2, 4, 14, 16, 18, 24 Very unlike= 3, Moderately unlike= 2, Moderately like= 1, Very like= 0

2. **Overprotection:** Items: 8, 9, 10, 13, 19, 20, 23 Very like = 3 Moderately like = 2 Moderately unlike = 1 Very unlike = 0 Items: 3, 7, 15, 21, 22, 25 Very unlike = 3 Moderately unlike = 2 Moderately like = 1 Very like = 0

The Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) assesses parental care and overprotection during the first 16 years of life, with scores calculated from a 4-point Likert scale (0-3) for each of the 25 items, summed for each domain (care and overprotection).

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) is a 10-item Likert scale self-report measure designed to assess teenage perceptions of self-esteem and self-worth.⁹⁷ It has subsequently become one of the most commonly used self-esteem assessments among adults.⁹⁸ Johnson and Wardle⁵², for example, discovered that self-esteem, stress, and melancholy were linked to body dissatisfaction and dietary constraint. The RSES was demonstrated to have strong convergent validity across genders, races, and ages.⁹⁸ Furthermore, the RSES was demonstrated to be highly reliable and valid across investigations.

Reliability: The RSE demonstrates a Guttman scale coefficient of reproducibility of .92, indicating excellent internal consistency. Test-retest reliability over a period of 2 weeks reveals correlations of .85 and .88, indicating excellent stability.

Validity: Demonstrates concurrent, predictive and construct validity using known groups. The RSE correlates significantly with other measures of self-esteem, including the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. In addition, the RSE correlates in the predicted direction with measures of depression and anxiety.

Scoring

As the RSE is a Guttman scale, scoring can be a little complicated. Scoring involves a method of combined ratings. Low self-esteem responses are "disagree" or "strongly disagree" on items 1, 3, 4, 7, 10, and "strongly agree" or "agree" on items 2, 5, 6, 8, 9. Two or three out of three correct responses to items 3, 7, and 9 are scored as one item. One or two out of two correct responses for items 4 and 5 are considered as a single item; items 1, 8, and 10 are scored as individual items; and combined correct responses (one or two out of two) to items 2 and 6 are considered to be a single item.

Achievement Motivation Scale

The Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation Scale (n-Ach) is a 50-item instrument used to measure various aspects of achievement motivation. It was developed by Dr. Pratibha Deo and Asha Mohan in 1985. The scale consists of 15 factors or dimensions, grouped into three main areas: academic factors, general field of interest factors (like co-curricular activities), and social interest

factors.

Reliability: Reliability refers to the consistency and stability of a measurement tool over time and across different samples. In the case of the Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation Scale, reliability was assessed

using the test-retest method. This method involves administering the scale to the same group of participants on multiple occasions and measuring the correlation between their scores. The obtained reliability coefficients are as follows:

Results of Reliability Assessment of Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation

Sample	N	Interval	R	Level of Significance
Mixed Group	51	4 weeks	0.69	0.01
Male	33	5-6 weeks	0.67	0.01
Female	50	5-6 weeks	0.78	0.01

The higher the coefficient, the more reliable the scale is considered. In this case, the coefficients range from 0.67 to 0.78, which are generally considered to be acceptable levels of reliability.

Validity: Validity refers to the extent to which a measurement tool accurately measures the construct it is intended to measure. The manual of the Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation Scale discusses the validity of the scale using several approaches: i) Item Validity: The high-low discrimination method was used to establish item validity, indicating that items on the scale effectively discriminate between individuals with different levels of achievement motivation. ii) Projective Test Validation: The scale was used to validate a projective test of achievement motivation. The correlation coefficient between the scale and the projective test was observed to be 0.54. This indicates a concurrent validity, suggesting that the scale’s scores are related to scores obtained from the projective test.

Scoring

The DEO-MOHAN Achievement Motivation Scale (1-Ach), also known as DMAMSI, is designed to assess an individual’s level of achievement motivation. It typically consists of a series of statements—often ranging from 20 to 40 items—to which respondents indicate their level of agreement using a Likert-type scale, commonly ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). Some items may be reverse-coded to minimize response bias, in which case their scores are inverted during the scoring process. To score the scale, the values for all items are summed to produce a total raw score, with higher scores indicating a stronger drive for achievement. In some cases, the raw score may be interpreted using normative data or percentiles, if provided in the manual. Generally, a high score reflects strong achievement motivation, while a lower score suggests a lesser drive to excel or accomplish tasks. It is important to consult the specific scale manual for accurate scoring procedures, interpretation guidelines, and any available norms.

Statistical Analysis

After the scoring the total frequency were calculated. The mean and standard deviation (S.D) of the scores of Parental Bonding, Self-Esteem and Achievement Motivation were computed. Further, to find out the relationship between Parental Bonding, Self-Esteem and

Achievement Motivation score the correlation were calculated. To find out the significance difference between Parental Bonding, Self-Esteem and Achievement Motivation scores t-test were calculated.

PROCEDURE

The target population included high school students aged 16 to 19 years, currently enrolled in high school programmes. Students from various high schools were approached for participation. Participants were informed about the purpose of the research, their rights and the confidentiality of their responses. Informed consent was obtained from the participants. Purposive sampling was used to select participants. Recruitment was conducted through social media platforms.

Participants were asked to fill out the Parental Bonding Instrument Questionnaire, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Questionnaire and Achievement Motivation by DEO-MOHAN Questionnaire. The questionnaires were designed to capture how parental bonding affects self-esteem and academic motivation, and how self-esteem mediates the relationship between parental bonding and achievement motivation, eventually informing interventions to promote healthy development and academic achievement in adolescents. Responses were collected and recorded through a Google Form, making the process efficient and convenient.

Three questionnaires were used to collect data of the study:

1. Parental Bonding Instrument Questionnaire: This questionnaire assessed two dimensions of Parental Bonding- Care and Overprotection. Some items were revers-scored to ensure accurate measurement.
2. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Questionnaire
3. Achievement Motivation by DEO-MOHAN Questionnaire: This Questionnaire measured fifteen subscales of Achievement Motivation: Academic Motivation, Need for Achievement, Achievement Anxiety, Academic Challenge, Importance Grades, Meaningfulness of Tasks, Relevance of Schools to Future Goals, Attitude towards Education, Work Methods, Attitude towards Teachers, Interpersonal Relations, Individual Concerns, General Interests, Dramatics and Sports. Some items were revers-scored to ensure accurate measurement.

Descriptive statistics were calculated to provide an overview of the main characteristics of the dataset, including: Mean Age, Gender Distribution, Education

Qualification Distribution and Occupation level Distribution. Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to measure the strength and direction of the linear relationships between different domains of Parental Bonding and

Achievement Motivation. Significant Correlations were observed at 0.05 level (2-tailed), indicating relationships between parental bonding, self-esteem, and academic motivation among adolescents and by identifying significant correlations, development of targeted interventions to promote healthy parental bonding, self-

esteem, and academic motivation, ultimately improving adolescent outcomes such as academic achievement and well-being. Independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare the means of different groups, particularly between males and females.

The statistical analyses for this research were thoroughly conducted with the aid of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software on a computer. The software enabled a systematic and detailed exploration of the data, contributing to the accuracy and rigor of the study's findings.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Table 1: Distributions of the Respondents according to Gender

Gender	(N=125)
Male	62
Female	63

Table 1 displays the gender breakdown of the sample, which includes 125 participants. Of these, 62 are male and 63 are female, showing a nearly even split between the two groups. This balanced representation supports more reliable comparisons and analyses related to gender within the study.

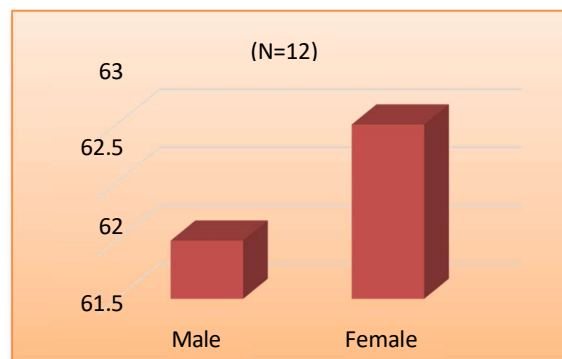


Table 2: Distributions of the Respondents according to Education Level and Gender

Variables	Male	Female
Class 10	13	13
Class 12	46	46
Graduate	4	3

Table 2 shows it can be said that the highest number of participants have completed Class 12, with 46 males and 46 females falling into this category. Both genders have an equal count of 13 individuals who have completed Class 10. A smaller portion, including 4 males and 3 females, have attained a graduate degree.

Overall, the majority of people in the group have studied up to Class 12, while only a few have pursued higher education beyond that.

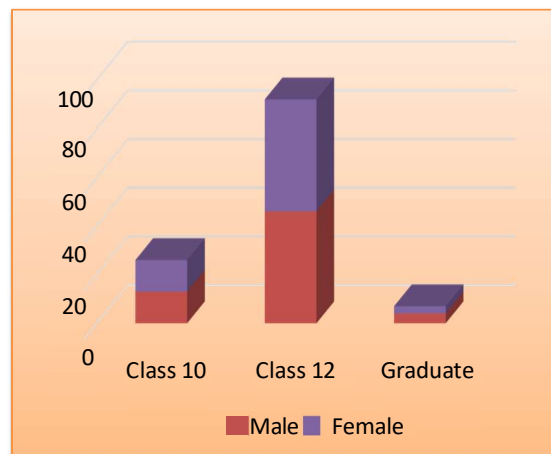


Table 3: Distributions of the Respondents according to Occupation and Gender

Variables	Male	Female
Employed	1	3
Unemployed	19	20
Student	29	54

Table 3 indicates that that most of the individuals are students, including 29 males and 54 females. A smaller segment is unemployed, with 19 males and 20 females. Only a few people are employed—1 male and 3 females.

Overall, it can be said that the majority of the group is not employed, with student status being the most common.

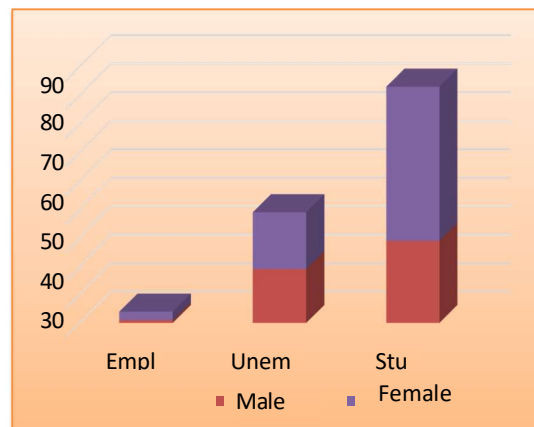


Table 4: Distributions of Mean and Standard Deviation (S.D) of Respondents

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	125	12	19	18.06	1.285
Education Qualification	125	1	4	1.91	.622
Occupation	125	1	4	3.66	.814
Gender	125	1	2	1.50	.502

Table 4 exhibits that the mean and SD of Age are 18.06 and 1.285 respectively; the mean and SD of Education Level are 1.91 and .622 respectively; the mean and SD of occupation are 3.66 and .814 and mean and SD of Gender are 1.50 and .502 respectively.

So according to this table it can be revealed that mean and SD of age is higher than the mean and SD of education qualification (EQ), Occupation (OCC) and Gender (Gen).

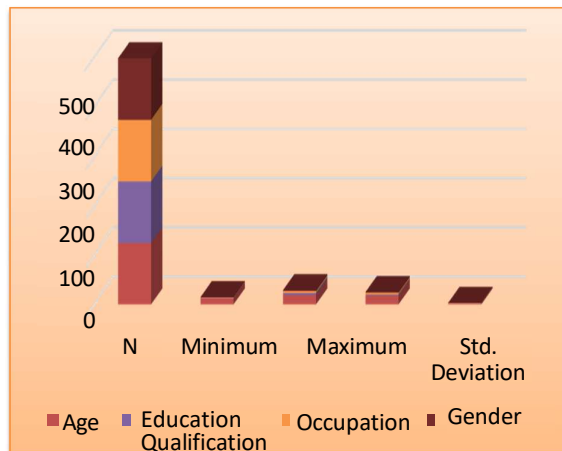


Table 5: Distributions of Mean and Standard Deviation (S.D) of Respondents on the basis of Parental Bonding Instrument, Rosenberg Self-Esteem and Achievement Motivation by DEO-MOHAN

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Parental Bonding Scale	125	25	50	37.20	5.448
Self-Esteem	125	16	31	23.77	3.155
Achievement Motivation	125	95	157	115.98	14.154

Table 5 displays that the mean and SD of parental Bonding Scale (PBS) are 37.20 and 5.448 respectively; the mean and SD of Self-Esteem (SE) are 23.77 and 3.155 respectively; and mean and SD of Achievement Motivation Scale (AMS) are 115.98 and 14.154 respectively. So according to this table it can be revealed that the mean and SD of Achievement Motivation is higher than the mean and SD of Parental Bonding Scale (PBS) and Achievement Motivation Scale (AMS).

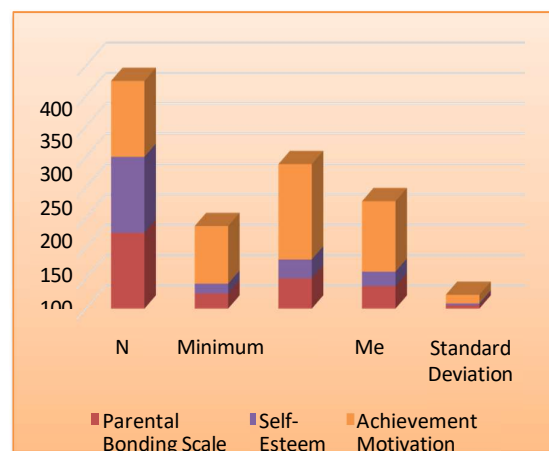


Table 6: Distributions of Mean and Standard Deviation (S.D) of Respondents on the basis of various domains of Parental Bonding Instrument and Achievement Motivation by DEO-MOHAN

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Care	125	12	27	19.74	3.455
Over Protection	125	12	27	17.46	4.215
Academic Motivation	125	5	14	9.56	2.026
Need for Achievement	125	5	16	9.82	2.061
Academic Challenges	125	1	4	2.43	.962
Academic Anxiety	125	5	16	9.78	1.759
Importance Grades	125	2	8	4.34	1.307
Meaningfulness Tasks	125	5	16	9.69	2.046
Relevance of schools to Future Goals	125	2	8	5.37	1.417
Attitude towards Education	125	4	15	9.30	2.251
Work Methods	125	7	20	11.86	2.677
Attitude towards Teachers	125	4	37	23.12	7.628
Interpersonal Relations	125	5	14	9.55	2.050
Individuals Concerns	125	2	8	4.90	1.275

General Interests	125	4	14	9.35	1.872
Dramatics	125	2	7	4.58	1.258
Sports	125	5	14	9.56	2.026

Table 6 reveals that the mean and SD of CARE are 19.74 and 3.455 respectively; the mean and SD of Over Protection (OP) are 17.46 and 4.215 respectively; the mean and SD of Academic Motivation are 9.56 and 2.026 respectively; the mean and SD Need for Achievement (NA) are 9.82 and 2.026 respectively; the mean and SD of Academic Challenge are 2.43 and .962 respectively; the mean and SD of Achievement Anxiety (AA) are 9.78 and 1.759 respectively; the mean and SD of Importance Grades (IG) are 4.34 and 1.307 respectively; the mean and SD of Meaningfulness of Tasks (MT) respectively; the mean and SD of Relevance of Schools to Future Goals (RFG) are 5.37 and 1.417 respectively; the mean and SD of Attitude Towards Education (AE) are 9.30 and 2.251 respectively; the mean and SD of Work Method (WM) are 11.86 and 2.677 respectively; the mean and SD of

Attitude Towards Teachers are 23.12 and 2.050 respectively; the mean and SD of Interpersonal Relations (IR) are 9.55 and 2.05 respectively; the mean and SD of Individual Concerns (IC) are 4.90 and 1.275 respectively; the mean and SD of General Interests (GI) are 9.35 and 1.872 respectively; the mean and SD of Dramatics (D) are 4.58 and 1.248 respectively; and the mean and SD of Sports (S) are 9.56 and 2.026 respectively.

So according to this table it is revealed that the mean and SD of Attitude Towards Teachers is higher than the mean and SD of Academic Motivation, Need for Achievement Anxiety, Academic Challenge, Importance Grades, Relevance of Schools to Future Goals, Attitude Towards Education, Work Methods, Interpersonal Relations, Individual Concerns, General Interests, dramatics and Sports.

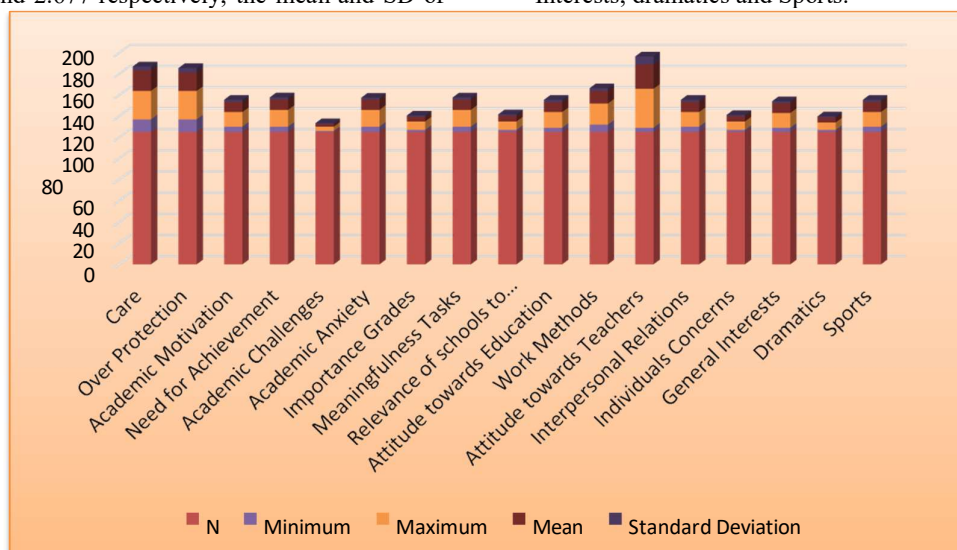


Table 7: Correlation Coefficient between the dimensions of Parental Bonding on the basis of Gender

Variables	Gender	Care	Overprotection
Gender	1	.119	.052
Care	.119	1	-.001
Overprotection	.052	-.001	1

Table 7 indicates that there is a weak positive correlation of **0.119** between Gender and Care, as well as a very slight positive correlation of **0.052** between Gender and Overprotection. The correlation between Care and Overprotection is almost non-existent, at **-0.001**.

Therefore these results indicate that there is little to no significant relationship among the three variables.

Table: 8: Correlation Coefficient between the dimensions of Parental Bonding on the basis of Occupation

Variables	Occupation	Care	Overprotection
Occupation	1	.045	-.021
Care	.045	1	-.001
Overprotection	-.021	-.001	1

Table 8 shows that there is a very slight positive link between Occupation and Care (0.045) and a very weak negative

correlation between Occupation and Overprotection (-0.021). The correlation between Care and Overprotection is nearly zero (-0.001), indicating virtually no association.

Overall, the values suggest that there is little to no significant relationship between any of the three variables

Table 9: Correlation Coefficient between the dimensions of Achievement Motivation on the basis of Gender

Variables	Gen	AM	NA	AC	AA	IG	MT	RFG	AE	WM	AT	IR	IC	GI	D	S
Gen	1	-.343**	-.097	-.070	-.145	-.088	.333*	-.104	-.087	-.129	.363*	-.218*	-.056	-.053	-.112	-.343*
AM	-.343**	1	.187*	.140	.187*	-.002	.440*	.256*	.113	.309*	.243*	.222*	.091	.094	.105	1.000**
NA	-.097	.187*	1	.146	.353*	.149	.172	.098	.191*	.244*	-.063	.435*	.054	.195*	.154	.187*
AC	-.070	.140	.146	1	.139	.095	.266*	.019	.073	.170	-.147	.177*	.083	.049	.010	.140
AA	-.145	.187*	.353*	.139	1	.047	.319*	.182*	.219*	.321*	-.063	.310*	.223*	.127	.253*	.187*
IG	-.088	-.002	.149	.095	.047	1	.214*	.002	.061	.145	-.102	.180*	.065	.162	-.071	-.002
MT	-.333**	.440*	.172	.266*	.319*	.214*	1	.071	.208*	.303*	-.220*	.297*	.127	.269*	.275*	.440*
RFG	-.104	.256*	.098	.019	.182*	.002	.071	1	.162	.253*	.179*	.185*	.195*	.030	.068	.256*
AE	-.087	.113	.191*	.073	.219*	.061	.208*	.162	1	.067	.340*	.075	.081	.286*	.128	.113
WM	-.129	.309*	.244*	.170	.321*	.145	.303*	.253*	.067	1	-.205*	.221*	.301*	.101	.251*	.309*
AT	.363**	-.243**	-.063	-.147	-.063	-.102	-.220*	.179*	.340*	-.205*	1	-.145	-.062	.137	-.054	-.243*
IR	-.218*	.222*	.435*	.177*	.310*	.180*	.297*	.185*	.075	.221*	-.145	1	.115	.107	.165	.222*
IC	-.056	.091	.054	.083	.223*	.065	.127	.195*	.081	.301*	-.062	.115	1	.181*	.199*	.091
GI	-.053	.094	.195*	.049	.127	.162	.269*	.030	.286*	.101	.137	.107	.181*	1	.035	.094
D	-.112	.105	.154	.010	.253*	-.071	.275*	.068	.128	.251*	-.054	.165	.199*	.035	1	.105
S	-.343**	1.000**	.187*	.140	.187*	-.002	.440*	.256*	.113	.309*	.243*	.222*	.091	.094	.105	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 9 reveals that gender is negatively correlated with academic motivation, meaningfulness of tasks, and participation in sports—indicating that females tend to score higher in these areas. Academic motivation is strongly linked with both sports involvement and finding tasks meaningful, suggesting that more motivated students are also more active and engaged. The need for achievement is positively associated with both academic anxiety and interpersonal relationships, meaning high achievers may feel more anxious but also maintain

strong social connections. Effective work methods are connected to greater academic anxiety and personal concerns. Additionally, students who have a positive attitude toward teachers also tend to value education more, but they may be slightly less motivated academically.

In summary, the table outlines how gender and different psychological and academic factors are related to one another in this group.

Table 10: Correlation Coefficient between the dimensions of Achievement Motivation on the basis of Occupation

Variable	OCC	AM	NA	AC	AA	IG	MT	RFG	AE	WM	AT	IR	IC	GI	D	S
OCC	1	-.293**	-.125	-.169	-.223*	-.254*	-.428**	-.288**	-.136	-.377**	.090	-.277*	-.182*	-.147	-.109	-.293**
AM	-.293**	1	.187*	.140	.187*	-.002	.440**	.256**	.113	.309**	-.243*	.222*	.091	.094	.105	1.000**
NA	-.125	.187*	1	.146	.353*	.149	.172	.098	.191*	.244**	-.063	.435*	.054	.195*	.154	.187*
AC	-.169	.140	.146	1	.139	.095	.266**	.019	.073	.170	-.147	.177*	.083	.049	.010	.140
AA	-.223*	.187*	.353*	.139	1	.047	.319**	.182*	.219*	.321**	-.063	.310*	.223*	.127	.253**	.187*
IG	-.254**	-.002	.149	.095	.047	1	.214*	.002	.061	.145	-.102	.180*	.065	.162	-.071	-.002
MT	-.428**	.440**	.172	.266*	.319*	.214*	1	.071	.208*	.303**	-.220*	.297*	.127	.269*	.275**	.440**
RFG	-.288**	.256**	.098	.019	.182*	.002	.071	1	.162	.253**	.179*	.185*	.195*	.030	.068	.256**
AE	-.136	.113	.191*	.073	.219*	.061	.208*	.162	1	.067	.340*	.075	.081	.286*	.128	.113
WM	-.377**	.309**	.244*	.170	.321*	.145	.303**	.253**	.067	1	-.205*	.221*	.301*	.101	.251**	.309**
AT	.090	-.243**	-.063	-.147	-.063	-.102	-.220*	.179*	.340**	-.205*	1	-.145	-.062	.137	-.054	-.243**
IR	-.277**	.222*	.435*	.177*	.310*	.180*	.297**	.185*	.075	.221*	-.145	1	.115	.107	.165	.222*
IC	-.182*	.091	.054	.083	.223*	.065	.127	.195*	.081	.301**	-.062	.115	1	.181*	.199*	.091
GI	-.147	.094	.195*	.049	.127	.162	.269**	.030	.286**	.101	.137	.107	.181*	1	.035	.094
D	-.109	.105	.154	.010	.253*	-.071	.275**	.068	.128	.251**	-.054	.165	.199*	.035	1	.105
S	-.293**	1.000**	.187*	.140	.187*	-.002	.440**	.256**	.113	.309**	-.243*	.222*	.091	.094	.105	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 10 indicates that participants who spend more time working tend to have lower motivation, less effective study habits, and find their school tasks less meaningful. In contrast, students with higher academic motivation are more likely to see their work as meaningful, use better study strategies, and view their

education as important for their future. A strong desire to achieve is linked to increased academic anxiety but also better social connections. Positive feelings about education correspond with good attitudes toward teachers, and strong interpersonal relationships go hand in hand with effective learning methods.

Overall, the table highlights the interconnectedness of motivation, attitudes, and personal factors in shaping students' academic experiences.

Table 11: Correlation Coefficient between the dimensions of Achievement Motivation on the basis of Age

Variable	Age	AM	NA	AC	AA	IG	MT	RFG	AE	WM	AT	IR	IC	GI	D	S
Age	1	.089	.077	-.019	-.019	-.209*	-.132	.237*	.104	.115	.016	-.047	.016	.022	-.024	.089
AM	.089	1	.187*	.140	.187*	-.002	.440*	.256*	.113	.309*	-.243*	.222*	.091	.094	.105	1.000*
NA	.077	.187*	1	.146	.353**	.149	.172	.098	.191*	.244*	-.063	.435**	.054	.195*	.154	.187*
AC	-.019	.140	.146	1	.139	.095	.266*	.019	.073	.170	-.147	.177*	.083	.049	.010	.140
AA	-.019	.187*	.353*	.139	1	.047	.319*	.182*	.219*	.321*	-.063	.310**	.223*	.127	.253*	.187*
IG	-.209*	-.002	.149	.095	.047	1	.214*	.002	.061	.145	-.102	.180*	.065	.162	-.071	-.002
MT	-.132	.440*	.172	.266**	.319**	.214*	1	.071	.208*	.303*	-.220*	.297**	.127	.269*	.275*	.440**
RFG	.237*	.256*	.098	.019	.182*	.002	.071	1	.162	.253*	.179*	.185*	.195*	.030	.068	.256**
AE	.104	.113	.191*	.073	.219*	.061	.208*	.162	1	.067	.340*	.075	.081	.286*	.128	.113
WM	.115	.309*	.244*	.170	.321**	.145	.303*	.253*	.067	1	-.205*	.221*	.301*	.101	.251*	.309**
AT	.016	-.243*	-.063	-.147	-.063	-.102	-.220*	.179*	.340*	-.205*	1	-.145	-.062	.137	-.054	-.243**
IR	-.047	.222*	.435*	.177*	.310**	.180*	.297*	.185*	.075	.221*	-.145	1	.115	.107	.165	.222*
IC	.016	.091	.054	.083	.223*	.065	.127	.195*	.081	.301*	-.062	.115	1	.181*	.199*	.091
GI	.022	.094	.195*	.049	.127	.162	.269*	.030	.286*	.101	.137	.107	.181*	1	.035	.094
D	-.024	.105	.154	.010	.253**	-.071	.275*	.068	.128	.251*	-.054	.165	.199*	.035	1	.105
S	.089	1.000**	.187*	.140	.187*	-.002	.440*	.256*	.113	.309*	-.243*	.222*	.091	.094	.105	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 11 displays that age is significantly and positively related to perceiving school as relevant to future goals, while it has a significant negative relationship with the importance placed on grades. Other variables, such as

academic motivation, work methods, and need for achievement, show small positive associations with age, whereas factors like meaningfulness of tasks and interpersonal relations have slight negative correlations. Overall, the table highlights how age is linked to changes in students' academic priorities and attitudes.

Table 12: Correlation Coefficient between the factors of Respondents on the basis of Parental Bonding Instrument, Rosenberg Self-Esteem and Achievement Motivation by DEO-MOHAN

Variables	Age	EQ	OCC	Gen	PBS	SE	AMS
Age	1	.083	.070	.199*	-.043	.012	.056
EducationQualification	.083	1	-.458**	-.167	.143	-.060	.286**
Occupation	.070	-.458**	1	.388**	.012	.408**	-.483**
Gender	.199*	-.167	.388**	1	.116	.354**	-.259**
Parental Bonding Scale	-.043	.143	.012	.116	1	.013	.089
Self-Esteem	.012	-.060	.408**	.354**	.013	1	-.278**

Achievement Motivation Scale	.056	.286**	-.483**	-.259**	.089	-.278**	1
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** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 12 presents a correlation matrix illustrating the relationships between several variables: Age, Education Qualification (EQ), Occupation (OCC), Gender (Gen), Parental Bonding Scale (PBS), Self-Esteem (SE), and Achievement Motivation Scale (AMS). The values above the diagonal represent the Pearson correlation coefficients, while the values directly beneath them show

the corresponding significance levels (p-values). Sample sizes (N = 125) are consistent across all comparisons. From the table, significant positive and negative correlations are highlighted with asterisks, where a single asterisk (*) indicates significance at the $p < 0.05$ level, and double asterisks (**) denote significance at the $p < 0.01$ level.

Table 13: Distributions of the t-test factors of Respondents of Parental Bonding on the basis of Gender

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Standard deviation	t-value
Care	Male	62	-.820	3.665	- 1.331
	Female	63			
Overprotection	Male	62	-.441	3.661	-.583
	Female	63			

Table 13 shows, on the basis of gender the t-value for care is -1.331 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Overprotection is -.583, which is non-significant at 0.05 level.

Table 14: Distributions of the t-test factors of Respondents of Achievement Motivation on the basis of Gender

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Standard deviation	t-value
AM	Male	62	1.385	1.872	4.053
	Female	63			
NA	Male	62	.397	2.192	1.078
	Female	63			
AC	Male	62	.135	.988	.783
	Female	63			
AA	Male	62	.508	.313	1.626
	Female	63			
IG	Male	62	.229	1.456	.981
	Female	63			
MT	Male	62	1.355	2.256	3.911
	Female	63			
RFG	Male	62	.294	1.198	1.161
	Female	63			
AE	Male	62	.389	2.201	.965
	Female	63			
WM	Male	62	.686	3.111	1.438
	Female	63			
AT	Male	62	-5.518	9.374	-4.323
	Female	63			
IR	Male	62	.889	1.967	2.474
	Female	63			
IC	Male	62	.142	1.201	.622
	Female	63			
GI	Male	62	.198	2.014	.589
	Female	63			
D	Male	62	.281	1.320	1.253
	Female	63			
S	Male	62	1.385	1.872	4.053
	Female	63			

Table 14 reveals that, on the basis of gender the t-value for Academic Motivation is 4.053, which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-

value for Need for Achievement is 1.078, which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Academic Challenge is .783 which is non-significant

at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Academic Anxiety is 1.626 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Importance Grades is .981 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Meaningfulness of Tasks is 3.911 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Relevance of schools to Future Goals is 1.161 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Attitude towards Education is .965 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Work Methods is 1.438 which is

non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Attitude towards Teachers is -4.323; on the basis of gender the t-value for Interpersonal Relations is 2.474 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Individual Concerns is .622 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for General Interests is .589 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Dramatics is 1.253 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value for Sports is 4.053 which is non-significant at 0.05 level.

Table 15: Distributions of the t-test factors of Respondents of Parental Bonding, Self-Esteem and Achievement Motivation on the basis of Gender

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Standard deviation	t-value
Parental Bonding	Male	62	- 1.261	5.470	- 1.297
	Female	63			
Self-Esteem	Male	62	- 2.228	2.915	- 4.204
	Female	63			
Achievement Motivation	Male	62	7.296	17.389	2.971
	Female	63			

Table 15 displays that on the basis of gender the t-value for Parental Bonding is -1.297 which is non-significant at 0.05 level; on the basis of gender the t-value of Self-Esteem is -4.204; on the basis of gender the t-value for Achievement Motivation is 2.971 which is non-significant at 0.05 level.

DISCUSSION

The present research aims to look into the relationships between parental bonding, self-esteem, and academic motivation among adolescents, with a focus on understanding how parental bonding influences self-esteem and academic motivation, as well as how self-esteem mediates the relationship between parental bonding and academic motivation, with the goal of informing interventions to promote healthy development and academic success among adolescents. Each variable is represented through standard descriptive statistics, including minimum and maximum values, the mean (average), and standard deviation, which are essential for understanding the central tendencies and variability within the dataset. Such detailed demographic profiling plays a vital role in dissertation research, as it provides context for the sample and ensures transparency regarding the characteristics of the respondents, which may influence the interpretation and generalizability of the study’s findings.

The analysis of the data reveals that the group of participants primarily consists of individuals in their teenage years, specifically those approaching adulthood. This suggests that the sample is made up mostly of students who are either completing high school or beginning their college education. The similarity in their ages points to a relatively homogenous group in terms of life stage, which is likely to influence their perspectives and experiences in a consistent manner. Their educational background further supports this, as most of them appear to be at an intermediate stage of their

academic journey, such as higher secondary education or just entering the undergraduate level. This implies a focus on academic development, with most individuals still engaged in formal learning environments. In regard to occupational status, the majority of participants do not seem to be involved in any form of full-time or part-time employment. This aligns with their youth and educational priorities, as it is common for students at this stage of life to concentrate on their studies rather than on building careers. Nevertheless, there is some degree of variation, which suggests that a small portion of the group may be participating in part-time jobs, internships, or assisting with family-run businesses, indicating a range of experiences within the sample. The gender composition of the sample is evenly distributed, reflecting a balanced participation of both male and female respondents. This equal representation enhances the inclusiveness and credibility of the dataset, as it ensures that insights drawn from the data are not skewed or biased toward one gender. Overall, the demographic characteristics of this sample reflect a youthful and academically engaged population with minimal work experience and balanced gender representation. These attributes make the group particularly suitable for studies exploring topics related to education, youth development, career aspirations, and gender-based perspectives among adolescents and young adults.

Another finding reveal that most individuals appear to feel understood and nurtured by their parents, which points to a stable and encouraging home life. Although there are some individual differences in how this bonding is perceived, the overall pattern suggests that the participants enjoy a secure attachment to their parental figures, which is crucial during the formative years of adolescence and young adulthood. When it comes to self-esteem, the findings reveal that the participants generally hold a consistent and moderately positive self-image. They seem to view themselves in a

balanced and constructive light, with a sense of personal value and self-assurance. This reflects a healthy psychological state where individuals are likely to approach challenges with confidence and maintain a sense of identity and self-worth. The responses are relatively uniform, which indicates that most participants share similar feelings about themselves. Such emotional steadiness can be influenced by various factors, including supportive relationships, positive reinforcement, and experiences of success or accomplishment. The levels of achievement motivation among the participants show more noticeable variability. While a number of individuals display strong ambition and a clear drive to succeed, others exhibit lower levels of motivation. This variation suggests that the desire to achieve is more individualized and can be shaped by a combination of internal goals, personality traits, academic interests, peer influence, and environmental factors such as family expectations or societal pressures. Unlike parental bonding and self-esteem, which are more consistent across the group, achievement motivation appears to be more complex and dependent on each participant's unique circumstances and mindset, therefore this illustrates a group of individuals who are largely grounded in emotionally supportive family relationships and possess a stable sense of self-worth. However, their motivation to achieve varies significantly from person to person, indicating that while emotional and familial foundations are well established, the personal drive to reach goals is shaped by diverse factors. This highlights the importance of recognizing and nurturing individual differences in motivation, even within groups that otherwise show commonalities in emotional and relational well-being.

Results reveal that the participants generally experience a warm and supportive relationship with their parents. Most of them seem to feel emotionally cared for, indicating that they are growing up in environments where affection and support are readily available. However, this emotional closeness is accompanied by a noticeable degree of overprotection, implying that while parents are attentive and nurturing, they may also impose certain restrictions or excessive supervision. This pattern of parenting, though well-intentioned, could potentially hinder the development of independence and decision-making skills in the students. Within the academic sphere, students show a moderate level of enthusiasm and determination when it comes to their studies. They seem to have a fair amount of internal drive to achieve academic goals, although this motivation is not uniformly strong across the board. The participants also report encountering academic difficulties, but these challenges are not overwhelming, indicating that they are capable of managing their school-related responsibilities. Additionally, the presence of some academic anxiety suggests that students are aware of the pressures associated with academic success, although this stress appears to be within a manageable range for most of them. Students' views on the broader educational experience reflect a sense of practicality. They recognize the value of good grades and understand that what they are learning holds

meaning and can contribute to their long-term aspirations. However, this recognition seems to be more practical than deeply passionate. Their general attitude toward education is positive, but not particularly enthusiastic, revealing that while students accept the importance of schooling, they may not always be fully engaged on a personal or emotional level. Regarding learning behaviors, participants show an awareness of the importance of using effective strategies and maintaining some level of structure in their work habits. Their views on teachers are largely positive, though there is variation, suggesting that student-teacher relationships are generally respectful and constructive, but not universally strong. This variation could be influenced by individual experiences with different teaching styles or levels of classroom support.

On a personal and social level, students seem to maintain healthy relationships with their peers and show a balanced awareness of their own thoughts, concerns, and interests. Their involvement in extracurricular activities, such as dramatics and sports, varies, indicating that while some students are quite active and engaged in such areas, others may show less interest or participation. This reflects the natural diversity in hobbies and social engagement commonly seen among adolescents. Altogether, the findings paint a picture of a student group that is largely well-supported at home, moderately engaged with academics, and reasonably involved in social and personal development. While they exhibit signs of emotional stability and practical academic engagement, differences in motivation levels, anxiety, and personal interests suggest that individualized guidance and encouragement could help further support their growth, both academically and personally.

On the basis of the table gender differences in perceptions of parental care are quite minimal, with one gender showing a slightly higher tendency to feel cared for by their parents, but this variation is not substantial. Likewise, the degree of parental overprotection experienced by participants shows only a weak connection with gender, indicating that while there might be a small tendency for one gender to encounter more protective behaviors from parents, the overall influence of gender on this aspect is limited. Notably, the analysis highlights that parental care and overprotection are essentially unrelated constructs within this group. This means that feeling emotionally supported and nurtured by parents does not necessarily mean that the same individuals feel controlled or restricted, and vice versa. The two parenting behaviors operate independently, suggesting that a warm and caring parental relationship can coexist with varying levels of control or monitoring. Taken together, these findings suggest that gender does not play a significant role in shaping perceptions of either care or overprotection, and that these parenting dimensions are separate and distinct aspects of the parent-child relationship rather than simply opposite ends of a single spectrum.

On the basis of the above result table, it is observed that an individual's occupation has little to no meaningful influence on how they perceive their parents' behavior in terms of emotional care or overprotectiveness. There

appears to be only a negligible association between occupational background and the sense of being cared for by

parents, suggesting that regardless of what profession someone is engaged in, their perception of parental warmth and support remains relatively consistent. Likewise, the connection between occupation and overprotective parenting is virtually absent, implying that occupational differences do not significantly shape how much control or restriction individuals felt from their parents while growing up. This suggests that parental behaviors related to emotional support and control are not heavily shaped by a person's career path or job role. Instead, these perceptions may stem from more personal or familial factors that remain stable regardless of occupational status. Additionally, the findings underscore the independence of the two parenting dimensions—care and overprotection. The absence of a strong relationship between them indicates that a person can feel deeply cared for by their parents without necessarily feeling smothered or overly controlled, and conversely, one may feel a lack of control without a corresponding lack of affection. Altogether, these findings point to the conclusion that parental care and overprotection are relatively stable traits that are not significantly influenced by the occupational roles of individuals. Parenting styles, in this context, appear to operate independently of professional or career-related variables, emphasizing that the foundations of emotional support and parental control are likely rooted in other social, cultural, or psychological factors rather than in occupational circumstances.

Further the finding reveals the correlation analysis illustrate a complex web of relationships between gender and various academic, emotional, and behavioral factors. One gender in particular tends to show lower levels of academic engagement across several dimensions. This group appears to have diminished motivation in their studies, finds academic tasks less meaningful, and displays less effective work habits. Their reduced enthusiasm for sports and weaker interpersonal relations further suggest that they may be less involved both academically and socially within the school environment. However, in contrast to these patterns, the same gender demonstrates a notably more positive attitude toward teachers, which may indicate a sense of trust or comfort in student-teacher relationships, even if other aspects of academic life are experienced with less enthusiasm or investment.

Beyond gender, the data reveal that academic motivation is closely tied to a number of positive educational and emotional factors. Students who exhibit strong motivation tend to find their school tasks more purposeful, recognize a clearer connection between their education and future goals, and hold more favourable attitudes toward learning overall. These individuals are also more likely to adopt productive study habits and cultivate supportive social connections. Interestingly, high motivation also seems to be accompanied by increased academic anxiety, indicating that the drive to succeed may come with heightened emotional stress.

This stress is reflected in students' concern for academic performance, their emphasis on grades, and their sense of pressure regarding schoolwork. The presence of anxiety in highly motivated students suggests a dual reality in which ambition and emotional strain coexist. The analysis also highlights the significance of interpersonal dynamics. Students who are both achievement-driven and anxious tend to maintain stronger relationships with peers, which may serve as a buffer or source of emotional support. Moreover, students who show high involvement in academic and extracurricular activities, such as dramatics and general interests, often demonstrate greater investment in their studies and better organizational skills. This implies that broader engagement in school life contributes positively to academic responsibility and discipline. Overall, these findings suggest that while gender plays a role in shaping certain educational attitudes and behaviors, the strongest patterns emerge in the interplay of motivation, stress, social engagement, and academic habits. Students who are highly motivated often carry emotional burdens such as anxiety and self-pressure, yet they also tend to possess the tools—such as positive attitudes, structured work methods, and supportive relationships—that help them manage these demands. The results emphasize the importance of understanding students' academic experiences not in isolation, but as a network of connected influences, where emotional well-being, social relationships, and personal values all contribute significantly to academic outcomes.

Another finding reveals the correlation analysis highlighting a complex relationship between students' occupational involvement and various academic, psychological, and behavioral aspects. It becomes evident that students who are more affected by occupational factors tend to experience lower engagement across several academic domains. Their level of academic motivation appears to be reduced, and they are less likely to view academic tasks as significant or connected to their future aspirations. This group also tends to show weaker academic habits, such as inefficient work methods, and a lower level of interpersonal engagement, pointing toward a broader detachment from academic and co-curricular life. Moreover, occupational influences seem to correspond with higher levels of academic stress and more frequent challenges, suggesting that these students may find it harder to strike a balance between work obligations and academic responsibilities. In contrast, those students who display high academic motivation demonstrate a strong sense of purpose in their educational pursuits. They tend to view learning tasks as meaningful, maintain a clearer vision of how their current education aligns with future goals, and are generally more consistent in applying effective study habits. These individuals are also better integrated socially, with stronger interpersonal relationships and a more positive outlook toward education. Likewise, a heightened need for achievement is associated with increased academic anxiety, implying that students with high aspirations may be more prone to internal pressure. However, this ambition also tends to foster more constructive behavior,

such as enhanced organization and better peer relationships. Students who perceive their educational experiences as meaningful are more likely to be future-focused, methodical in their approach to work, and emotionally invested in their academic journey. These students also show a greater interest in extracurricular activities, such as the performing arts and sports, which reflects a more balanced and engaged approach to school life. Overall, the findings suggest that occupational responsibilities can detract from students' academic and personal development, while intrinsic motivation and a sense of purpose in education can significantly improve both academic outcomes and overall well-being. These insights underscore the importance of creating supportive educational environments that help students manage external pressures while nurturing their academic engagement and future-oriented thinking.

The results table further suggest that age has a modest impact on how students value their grades, with older students generally placing somewhat less importance on grades than their younger counterparts. As students mature, they tend to view their education as more relevant to their future goals, indicating a heightened awareness of the connection between schooling and long-term career or life plans. Despite these shifts, age does not appear to significantly influence academic motivation or the desire to achieve, implying that these traits remain relatively steady regardless of age. Likewise, aspects such as facing academic challenges, experiencing academic anxiety, and attitudes toward education do not show notable changes with age, suggesting that these experiences are fairly constant throughout students' academic development.

Moreover, there are strong positive associations among academic motivation, the meaningfulness of academic tasks, and the relevance of school to future aspirations, demonstrating that students who find their learning activities valuable tend to be more motivated and better understand how their education contributes to their goals. Effective study habits and positive social interactions with peers also accompany higher motivation levels, highlighting the importance of engagement and interpersonal support for academic success. Conversely, students with lower academic motivation often hold less favourable views of their teachers. The link between academic anxiety and the need for achievement points to the possibility that highly motivated students might face increased stress related to their performance expectations. Overall, these findings underline that while age plays a subtle role in shaping students' educational priorities and perspectives, core elements such as motivation, emotional responses to academics, and attitudes toward learning tend to remain consistent. The results also emphasize the critical role that meaningful educational experiences and a clear sense of future purpose have in fostering motivation and effective learning strategies.

Another finding exhibits that there is a slight connection between age and gender, indicating some differences in age distribution between males and females in the sample. Educational qualification has a significant negative correlation with occupation, suggesting that

higher levels of education might be linked with certain types of jobs or that some professions are more commonly associated with lower educational attainment. Additionally, those with higher education tend to show increased levels of achievement motivation, emphasizing the role that education plays in cultivating a strong desire to succeed. Occupation is positively associated with both parental bonding and self-esteem, indicating that certain occupations may be connected with more supportive family environments and greater confidence in oneself. Conversely, occupation also has a negative correlation with achievement motivation, implying that not all career paths equally encourage or demand a high level of motivation to achieve goals. Gender shows positive relationships with self-esteem and parental bonding, suggesting differences between males and females regarding their sense of self-worth and family relationships, while also showing a negative link with achievement motivation, which may reflect gender-related variations in motivational tendencies. The parental bonding scale shows only minimal associations with other factors, with a slight positive link to occupation, indicating its more limited but focused role. Moreover, self-esteem is negatively related to achievement motivation, pointing to a complex interplay where a higher sense of self-worth does not necessarily translate into stronger motivation for achievement. Overall, these findings highlight the intricate and interconnected nature of how demographic factors and psychological traits influence individuals' confidence and motivational levels in diverse and sometimes surprising ways.

On the basis of the above result table, females appear to have a more favourable attitude towards their teachers, which suggests that males might hold less positive views about their educators. Moreover, males seem to experience more positive social interactions, as evidenced by their better interpersonal relations in academic environments. However, when it comes to other factors such as the desire to achieve, facing academic difficulties, valuing grades, seeing school as relevant to future goals, general attitude toward education, approaches to studying, personal concerns, broader interests, and involvement in dramatics, no meaningful differences are found between genders. This indicates that both males and females share largely similar perspectives and experiences in these dimensions. Taken together, these findings highlight important gender-based trends in motivation, engagement, attitudes, and social dynamics, which could be instrumental in designing educational strategies and interventions tailored to the unique needs of male and female students.

The above results of the study reveal a range of gender-based differences in students' academic attitudes and personal development traits. Male students demonstrated a stronger sense of academic motivation, suggesting they may be more driven and enthusiastic about their studies than female students. This motivation is further supported by their perception of academic tasks as more meaningful, indicating that they may find

greater personal relevance or value in what they are learning. Males also showed significantly higher participation in sports, which implies that they are more physically active and perhaps more engaged in school life outside of the classroom, contributing to a broader sense of involvement and possibly higher self-esteem. In terms of their orientation toward success, male students appeared to score higher on achievement motivation. This means they are more likely to set high goals and put effort into attaining them, suggesting a stronger internal desire to succeed academically and personally. Additionally, they seemed to utilize more efficient work methods, hinting at better study habits, time management, or organizational skills, all of which are critical to academic success. Males also showed a higher appreciation of the connection between school and their future aspirations, indicating they may have a clearer understanding of how their current education fits into their long-term goals. Socially, male students reported stronger interpersonal relations, which might reflect more robust peer connections or greater ease in navigating social interactions within the school environment. However, a significant contrast was noted in their attitudes toward teachers. Female students had a more favourable view of teachers, which could suggest that they are more respectful of or receptive to authority figures, or possibly that they have better communication and rapport with educators. Conversely, no significant differences were identified between males and females in areas such as academic anxiety, the challenges they face in their studies, the importance they place on grades, their general personal concerns, or their level of interest in general topics. This indicates that both genders experience comparable academic pressures and share similar attitudes in several key areas of their educational and emotional development. These findings underscore the need for educational strategies that recognize the unique strengths and challenges associated with each gender, ensuring that both male and female students are supported in ways that promote their individual academic success and personal growth. Therefore, the study revealed a meaningful interplay between parental bonding, self-esteem, and academic motivation in adolescents. It was observed that adolescents who reported stronger emotional bonds with their parents generally showed healthier self-esteem and greater motivation towards academic pursuits. This suggests that a supportive family environment plays a foundational role in nurturing a positive self-concept and a driven academic mind-set. Furthermore, self-esteem emerged as a key psychological asset, influencing not only how students perceived their capabilities but also how they approached challenges, valued educational tasks, and sustained effort in school-related activities. Gender differences were also notable across several academic variables. Males exhibited higher scores in areas such as academic motivation, meaningfulness of school tasks, and engagement in sports and dramatics, while females generally demonstrated more balanced emotional responses and a more positive attitude toward teachers. These gender-based distinctions underline the importance of tailored educational strategies that

consider individual strengths and motivations. While the relationship between age and the main variables was relatively modest, certain trends suggested that as adolescents grow older, their sense of the relevance of school to their future and their academic attitudes tend to solidify. Interestingly, while self-esteem showed a strong positive link with motivation, it was negatively associated with over-dependence or overly idealized parental bonding, indicating that too much parental control or enmeshment might hinder the development of autonomy and self-driven ambition. Academic motivation itself was found to be significantly shaped by both internal psychological factors (like self-esteem and perceived meaningfulness of tasks) and external influences (such as parental support and school engagement). These findings collectively emphasize that the academic success and emotional well-being of adolescents are deeply rooted in both their home environment and their internal self-beliefs. Creating nurturing, balanced support systems—both at home and in school—can therefore be instrumental in helping adolescents thrive academically and personally.

The findings of this study logically support the theory that adolescents' academic behaviors and attitudes are closely shaped by their psychological and relational environments, particularly in the domains of parental bonding and self-esteem. It is well-established in developmental psychology that adolescence is a critical period where identity formation, autonomy, and motivation intersect (Erikson, 1968). The positive association observed between supportive parental bonding and academic motivation reflects the notion that adolescents who feel emotionally connected and securely attached to their parents are more likely to develop internalized values of discipline and persistence, aligning with Bowlby's attachment theory (Bowlby, 1988). When parental involvement is perceived as nurturing rather than controlling, adolescents tend to show higher levels of motivation and academic engagement, which was evident in this study. Moreover, self-esteem emerged as a crucial variable that not only influenced academic motivation but also played a role in mediating the relationship between family dynamics and academic behavior. This aligns with the findings of Rosenberg (1979), who posited that adolescents with higher self-worth are more capable of setting and striving toward meaningful goals.

The gender-based differences further reinforce the idea that motivational strategies and emotional support need to be individualized. For example, males in this study showed stronger performance in areas related to active engagement like sports and dramatics, which may be influenced by socialization patterns that promote assertiveness and competitiveness in boys (Eccles & Harold, 1991). On the other hand, female students displayed more consistent attitudes towards teachers and education, possibly indicating a higher tendency toward relational learning and interpersonal sensitivity (Wentzel, 1998). While these patterns were evident, it's important to interpret them within cultural and social contexts that shape gender roles and expectations. In addition, the relevance of academic tasks to future goals

emerged as a motivating factor, supporting expectancy-value theory, which states that students' beliefs about the utility of schoolwork significantly impact their motivation and performance (Eccles et al., 1983).

Furthermore, the inverse associations found between overly idealized or over-involved parenting and self-esteem suggest that autonomy-supportive environments foster healthier psychological development. Research by Deci and Ryan (2000) on Self-Determination Theory supports this interpretation, highlighting that environments that allow for psychological autonomy and competence enhance intrinsic motivation. Therefore, the findings of this study are not only statistically significant but also logically sound when contextualized within well-established psychological theories. These results highlight the multifaceted nature of adolescent development, where relational, emotional, and motivational dimensions converge, and underscore the importance of fostering balanced parental relationships and strengthening adolescents' self-concept to enhance educational outcomes.

CONCLUSION

The present study sought to explore the relationships between parental bonding, self-esteem, and academic motivation among adolescents. The findings offer meaningful insights into how these psychological and environmental variables interact within the adolescent developmental context.

The analysis revealed a significant connection between parental bonding and self-esteem, indicating that adolescents who experience nurturing, supportive relationships with their parents tend to have higher levels of self-worth. This aligns with previous psychological theories suggesting that the quality of early caregiving relationships forms the foundation for later emotional stability and self-evaluation.

Moreover, self-esteem was found to be significantly correlated with academic motivation, suggesting that adolescents who feel confident and valued are more likely to engage positively with their academic responsibilities. This implies that a strong sense of self can be a powerful internal driver of motivation in educational contexts.

However, the study also uncovered a nuanced gender difference; male students showed higher levels of academic motivation, perceived meaningfulness in tasks, and achievement orientation, while female students reported more positive attitudes toward teachers. These differences highlight the need for gender-sensitive educational interventions that cater to varying motivational styles and relational dynamics with authority figures.

Interestingly, while parental bonding did not show a direct and strong correlation with academic motivation, its indirect influence via self-esteem suggests a more complex interplay. It can be inferred that positive parental interactions foster self-esteem, which in turn boosts motivation. Therefore, interventions aiming to improve academic outcomes may benefit from involving parents and reinforcing the emotional climate at home.

Therefore, this study underscores the interconnected

nature of family dynamics, self-perception, and academic drive in adolescents. Promoting healthy parent-child relationships and fostering strong self-esteem should be integral parts of educational and psychological programs targeting adolescent development. Strengthening these foundational aspects could enhance not only academic performance but also the overall well-being of young individuals navigating a critical life stage.

Based on the data calculation, following hypothesis were made:-

- There is a significant positive correlation between parental bonding and academic motivation among adolescents.
- There is a significant positive correlation between self-esteem and academic motivation among adolescents.
- There is a significant positive relationship between parental bonding and self-esteem among adolescents.
- There are gender differences in levels of academic motivation, self-esteem, and parental bonding, with male and female adolescents exhibiting varying degrees of these constructs.

Adolescents with higher levels of self-esteem and stronger parental bonds are more likely to exhibit higher academic motivation compared to those with lower self-esteem and weaker parental bonds.

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