CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Social scientists viz; Sociologists, Anthropologists, Economists and Psychologists studied deprived or non-deprived groups. Psychologists, especially social psychologists have studied psychological aspects of the problem of the non-privileged groups.

The scope of the present study has been restricted to the variables of Self-concept, Self-confidence, Ego-strength and Emotional intelligence. The purpose of this research is to study the differences, if any, in respect of these variables between Privileged and Non-privileged youths. A review of the related literature pertinent to this study is presented in this chapter.

2.1 Self-Concept

Essentially, the self-concept is the overall image we have of ourselves. It includes all those perceptions of "I" and "me" together with the feelings, beliefs and values associated with them. The self-concept is an organized collection of beliefs and self-perceptions about oneself (Barron and Byrne, 2004). As such, the self-concept is actually a cluster of selves, even though we habitually refer to it in the singular. Self-concept exerts a powerful influence, affecting the way we perceive,
judge and behave. The self provides a framework that determines how we process information about ourselves, including our motives, emotional states, self-evaluations and abilities (Klein et al. 1989). We work very hard to protect our self-image from threatening information (Sedikides and Green, 2000); to maintain self-consistency (Tschanz and Rhodewalt, 2001), and to find excuses for any inconsistencies (Schlenker et al., 2001). Wood and Burns (1983) investigated differences in the self-concepts of 9-13 yr. old mentally handicapped students as a result of differing placements. 63 mentally handicapped Ss were drawn from special schools and 31 Ss from special classes. Global self-concept, academic self-concept and reading self-concept were assessed. Results indicate that Ss placed in special schools very early benefited in terms of the level of development of a specific reading self-concept but not for an over all or global self-concept.

Burwani (1991) studied self-concept in the area of competence and its impact on mental health and adjustment. He found that real and ideal self-concepts were highly correlated and the discrepancy between the two was associated with mental health.

Jain (1989) studied self-esteem in relation to family structure and parental behaviour. The outcome of his research was: joint family, parental
support, interaction of family, structure and parental behaviour contributed to self-esteem. Bhogayanta (1986) studied the relationship amongst creativity, self-concept and locus of control. His findings were:

1) Boys were more creative than girls but they did not differ in their self-concept and locus of control.

2) Urban students had higher self-concept than rural students. But urban and rural students did not differ in their locus of control.

3) The students with a higher self-concept were more fluent, original and creative than the students with a lower self-concept.

Kale, P. (1982) studied the development of self-concept with reference to some family and school factors. She reported that:

1) Perceived self did not show downward trend throughout the preadolescent period.

2) Boys and girls did not differ significantly in self-concept development.

3) Perception of family factors as well as school factors showed significant development in self-concept.
4) Perception of parent-child relationship, parent-parent relationship and teacher-student relationship were highly and significantly related to self-concept.

Sarswat (1982) conducted a study on self-concept and found that:

i) The boy's self-concept was positively and significantly related to social adjustment, while the girl's self-concept was positively and significantly related to home, health, social, emotional, school as well as total adjustment.

ii) The boy's self-concept was positively and significantly related to political and religious values, while girl's self-concept was unrelated to these values.

iii) Only intellectual self-concept was positively and significantly related to academic achievement in both the sexes.

iv) Boys and girls differed significantly on total self-concept and its physical, social and moral dimensions. Girls were found to be higher on these dimensions.

Ramiach (1990) reported that:

i) There was significant relationship between parental involvement and self-concept of the students. The more the parental involvement, the better the self-concept of the students.
ii) Female students had more parental involvement in the physical support dimension than male students.

Gupta (1984) found some relationship between self-concept, anxiety, dependency and adjustment. Self-concept and adjustment were positively correlated and they had negative correlation with anxiety. DeMello and Lesley (1999) studied self-esteem, locus of control, coping styles and their relationship to school attitudes of adolescents. Results showed significant correlations between self-esteem, locus of control and coping styles. Those with high self-esteem and internal LOC were high users of the productive “Problem solving” coping style; showed significantly more positive attitudes toward school and had positive perceptions of their academic performance.

Griffith (2002) examined a model of self-concept development to determine whether the self-concept of Belizean adolescents varied by gender, socio-economic status, ethnicity, ethnic identity and grade level. Results suggest that youth from Belize and the U.S. were similar in total self-concept. They, however, differed on all the sub-domains of the self-concept based on gender, socio-economic status, ethnicity, ethnic identity and grade level. None of these was significant for the total self-image.
Gerardi, S. (2005) studied self-concept as a predictor of academic success. He concluded that academic self-concept, rather than the traditional cognitive skills was a significant predictor of academic performance among minority and low income students in an urban technical college:

Huckleberry, T.M. (2004) examined the multidimensional self-concept of African-American college students to determine whether Black racial identity provides a valid means for predicting both global self-worth and domain-specific aspects of self-concept. The study had following key findings.

First, the set of Black racial identity attitudes significantly predicted most domains of self-concept. Secondly, the specific predictive ability of the Black racial identity subtypes contradicted hypothesized relations of a positive association between immersion and internalized attitudes and self-concept. Thirdly, the positive relation between internalized attitude and the self-concept domain of social acceptance emphasized the relation between social support and self-concept. Overall, the finding reinforced the need for multidimensional conceptualizations of both racial identity and self-concept.

Purdie and McCrindle (2004) assessed the equivalence of Australian Indigenous and non-Indigenous students on six dimensions of self-concept; Family,
Self-Acceptance, General School, Academic Achievement, Peer and Career. Results provide strong support for the factorial equivalence of the six dimensions of the self. Scores on all dimensions increased with age for the Indigenous students but decreased for the non-Indigenous students. Family self-concept contributed significantly more to the prediction of academic achievement for the non-Indigenous students than for the Indigenous students.

Choi, N (2005) studied Self-Efficacy and self-concept as predictors of college student’s academic performance. He concluded that both academic self-concept and specific self-concept were significant predictors of term grades.

Tafa, M. (2001) studied the relation of self-esteem, self-concept and family separation in 70 male and female children and adolescents from separated families and 70 male and female children and adolescents from intact families in Italy. Data on sociodemographic variables, psychological factors and family dynamics were obtained by questionnaires. Ss were presented with an adjective check list and asked to select those corresponding to their real and ideal selves. The results were evaluated according to age, gender, SES, family structure, real and ideal self-efficacy and relational openness. An ANOVA and other
statistical tests were used. The results suggest that Ss from separated families have reduced perception of openness to social relationships in both ideal and real situations compared to Ss from intact families.

Zhenhong, et al. (2004) examined the self-concept and coping style of junior high school students with different peer relationships. The results indicated that the students rejected by their peers were significantly lower in overall self-concept than ‘Popular’ students.

Zhonglin, et al. (2004) examined the self-concept of vocational and ordinary high school students. The results showed that:

i) Vocational high school students had significantly lower self-concept than ordinary high school students.

ii) The differential patterns of correlations between academic performance and academic self-concept in the two student groups were incongruent with the internal/external frame of reference model.

Yamaguchi, S. (2004) studied psychological distances between students and teachers from the viewpoint of self-concept. Results showed that students who had positive self-concept were significantly more intimate with teachers than those who had negative self-concept.
Brounstein and Holahan (1991) studied self-concept and attributional styles of academically gifted adolescents competent students differed from gifted students on both self-concept and attributional measures. However, differences observed initially were robust over time. Sharma and Rao (1983) studied the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement of high school girl-students and found that self-esteem was not significantly related to achievement or non-verbal index of intelligence.

2.2 Self-Concept and Non-Privileged Groups

A number of studies relate to the self-concept of the non-privileged or disadvantaged groups. One of the major characteristics of the disadvantaged, according to Gordon (1968), is a low self-concept. Several researchers (Ausubel and Ausubel, 1963., Clark, 1963., Kraraceus, 1965) have postulated a low self-concept for minority group members based on consideration of ethnic group membership and socio-economic status. Ramkumar (1971) investigated the self-concept of Forward and Backward community students, and reported that they differ significantly in their self-concept scores with the Forward community students having the higher scores. Ploasants (1974) showed that the mean self-concept score of Negro or Black subjects was lower than that of White or Non-
Black subjects. Dales and Keller (1972), Strang (1972) have shown evidence that the self-concepts of Negro subjects may surpass those of White subjects. Allen (1973) and Glenn (1976) showed no difference between the self-concepts of Negro and White samples.

Baumeister and Dewall (2005) reported that being excluded or rejected caused decrement in self-regulation. Though rejected people are capable of self-regulation, they are normally disinclined to make the efforts.

Thakur and Madnawat (1986) studied the self-esteem of children of socially disadvantaged caste. The findings of the study revealed that there was significant difference in self-esteem among Scheduled caste and Non-scheduled caste children. Overall results disclosed that self-esteem of Non-scheduled caste children was higher than Scheduled caste children.

Bharsakle and Srivastava (1991) studied the self-image in Scheduled caste and Non-scheduled caste college students belonging to different SES levels. Significant differences in self-image of Ss of different SES level have been found. Significant differences have also been found between SC and Non-SC subjects of different SES levels. However, no significant difference was observed between boys and girls in respect of self-image.
Jones, E. (1979) studied personality characteristics of Black youth. He examined the view that Black youth frequently manifest disordered personalities and negative self-concepts. The Adjective check list was administered to 48 Black American, 50 White American and 56 Black Jamaican females. While dissimilar from White Ss in many important respects, Black Ss scored high on indices of personal adjustment and did not describe themselves in negatively valued terms. In fact, Black girls from lower socio-economic backgrounds, who are generally portrayed as prone to pathology and negative self-evaluations, described themselves in more favourable terms than Black and White Ss from middle class backgrounds. Moreover, U.S. and Jamaican Black Ss described themselves surprisingly in similar fashion and differed in similar respects from White American Ss, there by providing some evidence for the impact of a common cultural heritage on Black personality cross-nationality.

There are few studies that investigated the self-concepts of the deprived and the non-deprived groups, keeping their socio-economic status under control. The major trend of the results of these studies show no significant differences in the self-concepts of the deprived and non-deprived samples. Samuels (1973) showed no significant difference
between Negro and White subjects when socio-economic status was controlled.

Clark (1955) summarized research findings on the effects of minority status—culturally disadvantaged, rejected, non-privileged, and stigmatized children on personality development. He states that like all human beings, minority groups children require a sense of personal dignity and social support for positive self-esteem. Almost nowhere in the larger society, however, do they find their own dignity as human beings respected or protected. Ausubal and Ausubal (1963) states, “Negro child inherits an inferior caste status and almost inevitably acquires the negative self-esteem that is a realistic ego reflection of such status”. Silberman (1964) stated that Negroes can not solve their problems with identity. He further stated that the Negro wanted to lose his identity because he did not know his identity. Because of diffuse image of self, the Black youth, he thought, had a problem in forming a positive self-concept. Strang (1972) reported that the experience of life for the Negro child has prevented him from developing a positive sense of himself or of his place in the world. Ramkumar (1975) stated that the characteristics that identified Ss with acute self-concept were backward community, low intelligence, low personal adjustment, low social adjustment, high withdrawing tendency and low social values.
Singh (1983) has shown that socially disadvantaged groups have low self-esteem. According to him the culture of socially disadvantaged inculcates the psychology of puppet, characterized by fatalism, pessimism, helplessness, self-pity and apathy.

Dutta and Das (1981) observed that children suffering from malnutrition had a less favourable self-concept compared to other children.

OLown (1986) reported that adolescents from middle class homes have more significantly positive self-concepts than those from lower class homes.

2.3 Self-concept and Gender

The gender differences in self-concept have been studied by investigators. The results of these studies do not show any conclusive trend of gender differences in self-concept. Many studies viz; Carpenter and Buss (1969), Strang (1972), Ramkumar (1973) and Marian (1977) showed that the self-concept of males is higher than that of females in both deprived and non-deprived groups Wylie (1963) found that White girls made more modest estimates of their ability than did White boys. Soares and Soares (1969) found that the disadvantaged boys showed a
higher self-concept than disadvantaged girls. Studies by Calvin (1976), Richardson (1977) showed no gender differences in self-concept.

Richman, Clark and Brown (1985) assessed the effects of gender, race and socio-economic status on the general and area-specific self-esteem. Data indicate that females, Whites, and lower SES Ss were consistently lower in their self-esteem scores than were males, Blacks and upper SES subjects respectively.

Kalanek (1997) investigated the relationship between self-esteem and gender. No significant difference was found between the self-esteem of males and females.

Muckleroy (2005) studied the self-concept, achievement scores and grades of gifted students for differences between females and males and to observe relationships between self-concept and achievement and / or grades. There were no significant gender differences in any of the six self-concept categories. However, there was a significant relationship between student’s self-concept and yearly grade averages.

Zuckerman (1985) conducted a research to assess sex differences in college student’s self-esteem and self-concepts, and the extent to which student’s self-perceptions predict their life goals. Results indicated that men and women did not differ significantly in their self-esteem and
interpersonal self-confidence, but the men rated themselves higher in Math / Science ability, leadership, public speaking ability and coping self-sufficiency. Women's global self-esteem scores and self-confidence did not predict their life goals, but women's greater self-confidence in masculine spheres predicted higher achievement goals and their ranking of future careers as more important priority in their lives.

Cunningham and Berberian (1987) studied sex differences in the relationships of self-concept to locus of control in children. High self-concept boys were found to demonstrate a higher total index of internal locus of control than low self-concept boys, while the converse was true for high and low self-concept girls. Although high self-concept boys were generally more internal than high self-concepts girls, they assumed more personal responsibility for successful outcomes than failures.

2.4 Self-confidence

It refers to a strong sense of one's self-worth and capabilities. It is the sine qua non of superior performance-without it, a person lacks the conviction that is essential for taking on tough challenges-self-confidence gives him/her the requisite self-assurance for plunging ahead or stepping in as a leader. For those who lack self-confidence, every failure confirms as sense of incompetence. The absence of self-
confidence can manifest itself in feelings of helplessness, powerlessness, and crippling self-doubt. Extreme self-confidence, on the other hand, can look like arrogance, especially if the person lacks social skills. And self-confidence is not to be confused with brashness; to have a positive impact, self-confidence must be aligned with reality. For this reason, a lack of self-awareness is an obstacle to realistic self-confidence.

Self-confidence can reveal itself in a strong self-presentation, a projection of “Presence” (Goleman, 1998). Highly self-confident people can seem to exude charisma, inspiring confidence in those around them. Indeed, among supervisors, managers and executives, higher levels of self-confidence set apart the best performers from average ones (Boyatzis, 1998). People with self-confidence typically see themselves as efficacious, able to take on challenges and to master new jobs or skills. They believe themselves to be catalysts, movers and initiators, and feel that their abilities stack up favourably in comparison to others. From such a position of inner strength, they are better able to justify their decisions or actions, staying unfazed by opposition.

Self-confidence gives the strength to make tough decisions or follow a course of action one believes in despite opposition, disagreement or even explicit disapproval from those in authority. People with high
self-confidence are decisive without being arrogant or defensive, and they stand by their decisions.

Closely related to self-confidence is what psychologists call ‘self-efficacy’, the positive judgement of one’s own capacity to perform. Bandura (1977, 1988) pioneered the study of self-efficacy and pointed out the contrast between those who doubt themselves and those who believe in their abilities when it comes to taking on a difficult task. Those with self-efficacy gladly setup to the challenge, those with self-doubt don’t even try, regardless of how well they might actually do. Self-confidence raises aspirations, while self-doubt lowers them.

There is a tight link between self-knowledge and self-confidence. We each have an inner map of our proclivities, abilities and deficiencies. Students who believe in their abilities do better because that belief motivates them to work harder and longer and to persist through difficulties. They typically avoid situations or fields in which they fear they might fail, even if they actually have the abilities take to succeed at a job. If one lacks the belief that he can handle challenges, he can start to act in way that doom him. The thought “I cannot do this” is crippling.

In a longitudinal study of managers, self-confidence early in a person’s career predicted promotions and success in higher management
years later (Howard and Douglas, 1988). In a study of more than a thousand high I.Q. men and women followed from childhood to retirement, those most self-confident in their early years were most successful as their careers unfolded (Holahan and Sears, 1995).

The attitude that the rules and standard procedures can be bent, and the courage to do so, are hallmarks of self-confidence. In a study of 209 nurses at a large university hospital, Parker (1993) found that nurses high in self-confidence would confront the physicians directly, those who had the strongest sense of self-efficacy were most likely to speak-out when confronting inadequate or medically risky situations.

Al-Anzi and Al-Kanadry (2004) examined the relationship between self-confidence and scholastic achievement among secondary school students. It was found that the scholastic achievement of females excels that of their male counterparts in the elective system. However, the aforementioned results did not apply to students in the general education system. The study revealed statistically significant differences between males and females in self-confidence in the two scholastic disciplines in which the males had the highest mean score. Furthermore, the study showed significant positive correlations between achievement and self-confidence in all groups except for females studying in the elective system.
Chen, X. (2002) assessed self-confidence and social support in female students during freshmen year of college. The results indicate that the female college students in freshmen year had high levels of self-confidence and social support, that the scores of social support significantly affected self-confidence and that the level of self-confidence could be predicted by the scores of application of social support.

Che, L. (2003) studied university student’s self-confidence: the development features, gender and school type differences. The results showed that 1) In terms of general confidence, school confidence, and physical confidence, male students had higher scores than female students. 2) A significant grade difference in general confidence, school confidence and physical confidence was found. Freshmen and seniors had higher scores than sophomores and juniors. However, juniors had the lowest scores on self-confidence 3) A significant interaction of the differences of grade, gender and school type existed in the dimensions of general confidence, physical confidence, school confidence and social confidence.

Johnson, W. and McCoy, N.(2000) explored the relationship between self-confidence and male and female sex role stereotyped characteristics of college students. Results show that there was no sex
difference in self-confidence. However, scores on masculinity portion of Bem’s Sex role Inventory were highly correlated with self-confidence for both men and women. Jasper, W.A.(1998) studied the relationships of self-confidence, actual work effort and the perceived importance of effort with mathematics achievement at the junior high school level. This study further investigated the interrelationships of these factors with gender on mathematics achievement. Males showed more self-confidence than females. On all other variables, there were no significant gender differences.

Tavani, C., & Losh, S. (2003) examined the relationships among student’s academic performance, expectations, motivations and self-confidence during a summer orientation at a large southeastern university. Significant positive correlations were found among all variables. These variables were also all significant predictors of student’s academic performance. Gender had statistically significant effects on student’s expectations and self-confidence level.

Wang, Y., & Li, Y. (2003) studied the effects of group counselling on improvement of self-confidence of college students. The study concludes that group counselling can help college students to improve
interpersonal relationships to raise self-confidence, and to encourage communication.

Xie, A. (2002) examined the effect of integrative training and the relationship between self-confidence and mental health in college students. The results show that after training, self-confidence and mental health status in the training group were significantly improved, and better than those in the non-training group. The results conclude that integrative training constituting multiple psychological training techniques and consulting, focusing on cognitive adjustment is an effective method for improving college student’s self-confidence, and that the mental health of college students is significantly influenced by self-confidence, especially social and psychological confidence.

Ziegler et al. (2000) examined predictors of self-confidence among girls and boys attending college preparatory schools prior to initial chemistry instructions. The results showed that girls had significantly lower level of self-confidence regarding chemistry than boys.

Jain, S. (1998) examined the relative status of social competence among tribal and non-tribal pupils by sex, locale and grade. It was hypothesized that there would be a significant difference between tribal and non-tribal pupils in scores of social competence. The findings indicate that
there were significant differences in various components and composite scores of social competence of tribal and non-tribal pupils. Specifically, non-tribal pupils score higher in every category except social tolerance, indicating the over all superiority of non-tribal pupils.

Verma (1990) studied the sex related differences in risk taking self-confidence among adolescent learners. He found that i) male adolescent learners showed significantly higher mean risk-taking than female adolescent learners and ii) male adolescent learners possessed significantly higher self-confidence than female adolescents.

Instone, D. et al.(1983) studied gender, self-confidence and social influence strategies. They reported that females displaced lower levels of self-confidence than did males. Further analysis revealed that sex-linked differences observed in the frequency with which influence attempts were made and the extent to which coercive strategies were employed.

2.5 Ego-strength

According to Freud, the propounder of psychoanalytical viewpoint, in the structure of personality, ego is that part of psychic structure which is primarily concerned with reality testing. However, in classical psychoanalysis, the position of ego is that of a mediator between id and super-ego.

Freud (1933) used the analogy of rider and his horse to explain the relationship between the two components of personality. Usually, the rider guides the horse but often the rider is obliged to guide the horse in the direction in which it wants to move.

With the rise of ego-psychology, the position of ego was elevated to that of such a controlling mechanism with in the personality as is capable of taking positive steps in the interest of the person as a whole. Fenichal (1945) is of the view that ego performs the following five functions:

1) Perception: Ego is responsible for making an individual aware of himself and his environment. The acquisition of distinction between self and non-self is mediated through the formation of body image.
2) Motality: Ego is responsible for the coordination of motor apparatus, thus enabling an individual to make appropriate responses to his environmental demands.

3) Binding Tension: Ego holds in check the instinctual striving from breaking through till the arrival of the most opportune moment. While holding in check the instinctual cravings for release, the ego may resort to defence mechanisms in order to meet the mounting tension.

4) Judgement: This function involves the weighing of pros and cons of different alternatives and making comparison between subjective and objective impressions of a situation.

5) Synthesizing: Instinctual and environmental demands compel the individual to move in divergent directions. The most important function of ego is to safeguard him from being dragged in different directions.

In the light of above discussion one is led to agree with Baughman et al. (1962) in considering ego as “a complex construct that subsumes a group of integrated constructions”.

Kundu and Maiti (1980) studied ego-strength and its impact on interpersonal attraction. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the
strength of the children and to determine its relationship with the respective sociometric status. The findings indicate that the ego-strength of a person has an effect on his social acceptance.

Lal (2004) studied the differences in personality characteristics of physically disabled and normal adolescents with the help of Somatic Inkblot Series (SIS). Analysis of data revealed that disabled adolescents have poor self-image, poor ego-strength, poor interpersonal relationship, show thought blockage and inability to think properly.

Freeman (2003) investigated the extent to which measures of ego-strength contribute to the prediction of academic achievement of high school students. A positive significant relationship was found between total ego-strength and academic achievement. Thus, total ego-strength was found to be a significant predictor of academic achievement.

Fukunishi (1996) examined the association of alexithymia with weakness of ego-strength. Scores on two alexithymia constructs (difficulty identifying feelings and difficulty describing feelings) were significantly and positively correlated with scores on college maladjustment. Partial correlation controlling for scores on ego-strength eliminated differences apparent in simple correlations. College maladjustment may be related to the alexithymia constructs with weakness of ego-strength.
Ali and Ahmad (1975) compared the performance of 20 high and 20 low ego-strength Ss on an auditory vigilance task. There were two watch periods of 16 minutes duration. The data showed that high ego-strength Ss detected more signals and made fewer errors, than the low ego-strength Ss.

In a study of over-under-achievement, Hasan and Kumari (1973) found a curviliner relationship between ego-strength and discrepancy between predicted and actual achievement.

Greenberg (1969) investigated three groups of 20 male adolescents each to estimate ego-strength in relation to period of separation from the mothers. Two foster home groups consisted of those who were separated later in life. The third group had been brought by the natural mothers. Ego-strength when compared to each of the foster home groups, no differences were found between the two foster home groups. Deprivation increases ego-strength especially in those psychiatric patients who were functioning least effectively (Cooper, 1963). In simulated conditions two correlations with ego structure and introversive tendencies were obtained (Knapp and Lapus, 1965).

Worden and Sobel (1978) investigated a patient’s ego-strength (ES) at the time of an initial cancer diagnosis and its relationship overtime, to
mood disturbance, vulnerability, self-reported physical symptom totals, current concerns, coping strategies, and effectiveness in the resolution of problems. Results showed that psycho-social adaptation to cancer was related to a patient's ego strength. ES correlated positively with a patient's use of effective coping strategies.

Khan, R; and Singh P. (1987) examined the impact of the socio-economically advantaged and disadvantaged status on the development of certain traits of personality in children. They reported the significant impact of the advantaged or disadvantaged status of the children on the development of such traits as ego-strength, emotional control, conscientiousness, extroversion, guilt proneness and ergic tension.

Verma, S. (1965) studied the discrepancy between future and past performances as a measure of Ego-strength. The findings of the present study lend support to the fact that the size of the discrepancy between future and past performances can be looked upon as a measure of ego-strength.

Markstrom et al. (2005) studied ego-strengths in relation to adolescent involvement in adult sponsored structured youth activities. 517 High school students completed measures on their involvement in structured activities on eight ego strengths. Gender, age, and SES were
controlled. It was found that extra-curricular activities of sports, student government, and belonging to an issue group, as well as engagement in volunteerism were related to several of the ego-strengths.

Murray, R.P., Barnes, G.E. and Ekuma, O. (2005) conducted a study to assess whether personality is a mediator in the relationship between drinking (Alcohol) and cardiovascular disease (CVD). Personality covariates as measured by Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) and Barron’s Ego Strength Scale make only a modest contribution to statistical models of the relation between drinking and cardiovascular health.

Hoegh, D.G., and Bourgeois, M.J. (2002) examined the relationship between Erikson’s notion of identity status and several current self-related variables hypothesized to be antecedents and consequences of achieved identity. 79 undergraduate students completed questionnaires. Degree of parental care and trust predicted identity achievement, which in turn predicted secure attachment and vitality. Identity achievement was also associated with measures of ego-strength and development, and with discrepancies between actual and ideal selves. Markstrom, Carol-A (1999) conducted a study to determine if religious involvement was associated with psycho-social maturity of adolescents
as understood in Erikson's (1965) psycho-social theory. Three forms of
religious involvement (attendance at religious services, participation in a
Bible study group, and Youth group involvement) were examined in
relation to ego-strengths, ideological and ethnic forms of identity, general
self-esteem, and school self-esteem. Ego-strengths of hope, will, purpose,
fidelity, love and care were associated with various forms of religious
involvement. General self-esteem was not significant in the analyses,
but school self-esteem was higher for each form of religious involvement.

2.6 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence (EI) involves the "abilities to perceive,
appraise and express emotion, to access and / or generate feelings when
they facilitate thought; to understand emotion and emotional knowledge;
and to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth”
(Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

Mayer et al.(2000) proposed two alternative conceptions of EI; an ability
model and a mixed model. Ability model places EI within the sphere of
an intelligence, in which emotion and thought interact in meaningful and
adaptive ways. An emotional intelligence is viewed much like verbal or
spatial intelligence, except that it operates on, and with, emotional
content. Mixed model blend various aspects of personality in a theoretical
manner. The resulting conglomerate of traits, dispositions, skills, competencies and abilities is labeled EI, even though the model predominantly involves neither emotion and nor intelligence. Evidence is accumulating that EI is a distinct mental ability that can be reliably measured (Brackett & Mayer, 2003), Ciarrochi, Chan, Caputi & Roberts, 2001); Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey, 1999); Mayer, Caruso, and Sitarenios, 2003. However, there is as of yet little clarity as to what EI predicts. Some preliminary findings suggest that lower EI is related to involvement in self-destructive behaviors such as deviant behavior and cigarette smoking (Brackett and Mayer, 2003; Rubin, 1999; Trinidad and Johnson, 2001), where as higher EI is related to positive outcomes such as pro-social behavior, parental warmth, and positive peer and family relations (Mayer et al. 1999; Rice, 1999, Salovey, Mayer, Caruso and Lopes, 2001).

Brackettt, Mayer and Warner (2004) examined relations between EI and every day life conditions. EI was measured as an ability by the MSCEIT (Mayer-Salover-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test); life conditions were measured by a scale of Life Space, the CSLSS (College Student Life Space Scale). Women scored significantly higher on EI than men. EI, however, was more predictive of Life space criteria for
men than for women. Lower EI in males, principally the inability to perceive emotions and to use emotion to facilitate thought was associated with negative outcomes, including illegal drugs and alcohol use, deviant behavior and poor relations with friends. Thus, EI was significantly associated with maladjustment and negative behaviors for college-aged males, but not for females.

Austin et al. (2005) conducted a preliminary study of emotional intelligence, empathy and exam. performance in first year medical students. Females scored significantly higher than males on EI. High EI students reported more positive feelings about the communication skills exercise. Findings of the study provide limited evidence for a link between EI and academic performance. Batastini (2001) studied the relationship among student’s emotional intelligence, creativity and leadership. There was a strong relationship found between EI and student leadership \( r=0.66, .01 \) level of significance, EI and creativity \( r=0.82, .01 \) level of significance) and creativity and leadership \( r=0.55, .05 \) level of significance). Boyce (2002) conducted a study to find out the correlation of emotional intelligence, academic success and cognitive ability in master’s level physical therapy students. The results of this study indicate that cognitive ability or general intelligence of master’s level physical
therapy students is “bright normal”, and their level of EI is above average. In addition, no correlation between cognitive ability and academic success was found and that a low correlation between EI and cognitive ability existed. Finally, a low correlation between EI and academic success was reported. Chan, D. (2005) assessed the self-perceptions of gifted students regarding their creativity, family hardiness and EI. The results of regression analysis indicate that family hardiness had separate and direct effects on self-perceived creativity, and their effects were additive, rather than multiplicative.

Drago, J. (2005) conducted a correctional study examining the relationship between EI and academic achievement in non-traditional college students. In this study, EI, achievement motivation, anxiety and cognitive ability were predictor variables. Results demonstrated that EI is significantly related to student’s GPA (Grade Point Average) scores and cognitive ability scores. Additionally, student anxiety was related to certain emotional intelligence abilities. No significant relationship, however, was found between EI and achievement motivation.

Fatt et al. (2003) studied EI of foreign and local university students in Singapore. This study showed that foreign undergraduates have a higher EI score than those with local education background. In addition,
by examining the relationships between gender and EI, it was found that males have higher EI scores than that of females. Liau, A. et al. (2003) studied the influence of EI on problem behaviours in Malaysian secondary school students. Results indicate that emotional literacy, measured in terms of EI, was linked to internalizing and externalizing problem behaviours. Emotional Literacy also served as a moderating factor between parental monitoring and externalizing problem behaviours.

Lewis, M.K. (2004) investigated the differences in EI and related constructs among academically resilient and academically non-resilient African-American undergraduate students. Academic resilience was operationally defined as the ability to thrive and achieve above average academic performance (3.0 or greater GPA), despite economic, socio-cultural, and/or environmental challenges. Related emotional intelligence constructs were emotional control, impulsiveness, optimism, and attitudes reflective of resilience. It was hypothesized that academically resilient participants would differ significantly from their academically nonresilient counterparts in terms of EI, emotional control, impulse control, optimism and attitudes reflective of resilience. Results indicated that there was a positive correlation between academic resilience and two Subscales on
the Resilient Attitude Scale, Independence and Morality. However, no other significant correlations were found.

Markham, T. (2005) studied the effects of positive emotional refocusing on EI and autonomic recovery from stress in high school students. Results indicated significant positive correlation between EI and coherence in Low Anxious participants. Low Anxious youth showed a significant negative correlation between trait anxiety and stress management skills, while High Anxious youth appeared to benefit significantly from life events.

Reiff et al. (2001) examined the relation of learning disabilities (LD) and gender with emotional intelligence in college students. EI was assessed using the Emotional Quotient Inventory developed by R.Baron; designed to measure interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, stress management adaptability, and general mood. Results indicated significant differences between men and women Ss on interpersonal skills and significant differences on the interaction of LD and gender on interpersonal skills.

Sonnenschein, M.F. (2002) investigated the effect of EI skills on the academic performance of Algebra I students. A pre-test, post-test control group design was used. Both groups were give an Algebra I
pretest and initial equivalence on the dependent variable of academic performance was verified. The Ss were also given the Baron Emotional Quotient Inventory. Initial equivalence of the independent variable of EI was established. Throughout the twelve-week study, the control group was taught the traditional Algebra I curriculum. The experimental group was taught the identical Algebra I curriculum combined with the EI skills of self-awareness, motivation, self-management, empathy and social adeptness. Ss in the experimental group participated in class discussions, activities, and role playing, completed worksheets and wrote journal entries. During the final week, the Ss were given an identical Algebra I exam. The mean score of the experimental group was 79.0., the mean score of the control group was 74.3, representing a difference of 4.7 percent. The increase in the experimental group’s academic performance was not statistically significant.

A similar conclusion was made regarding the growth of EI. While the experimental group showed an increase of 3.24 percent on the Emotional Quotient Inventory, it was not statistically significant.

Tehan, M. (2002) explored EI as a predictor of graduation for older (age 30 plus) non-traditional students in an alternative college degree completion program. The purpose of this study was to investigate the
role that EI plays in graduation from such a program. A t-test comparing the mean scores of the two independent sample groups tested but failed to support the hypothesis that EI was a critical factor in determining successful completion of an alternative college degree program.

Wang, C. (2002) explored the relationship between EI and anxiety, depression, and mood in college students. EI scores were negatively correlated with anxiety and depression, the college students EI scores were positively correlated with their positive affect scores of the PANAS. (Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale), where as, negatively correlated with their negative affect scores of the PANAS. The study concludes that EI plays an important role in college student’s mental health.

Wang, C, and He, Zhiwen (2002) studied the relationship between parental rearing style, self-efficacy and EI of high school students. The results show : 1) that there were significant gender differences in self-efficacy, i.e. female students level of self-efficacy was lower than that of male students; 2) that the students who were only children had higher scores in self-efficacy and EI, and 3) that the factors, parental emotional warm, understanding, protection and interference or severe discipline had weak positive correlations with the student’s self-efficacy and EI.
The study concludes that parental rearing style has certain effects on high school student's self-confidence and positive emotion.

Wood, J.S. (2001) investigated the relationship between EI and college student's Internet use. The results indicated that those students who spent more time on e-mail had a higher emotional intelligence scores.

Vela, R.H. (2004) examined the role of EI in the academic achievement of first year college students. The results of the study showed that there is a significant correlation between EI skills and the academic achievement of first year college students. Findings also suggest a significant relationship between EI skills and academic achievement according to gender and ethnicity. Furthermore, the results showed that SAT scores, when coupled with EI skills, can better predict academic achievement.

Yates, J.M. (2000) explored the relationship between EI and health habits of students. The findings suggested that there was a relationship between the health habits of college students and EI; however, this correlation revealed a weak relationship.

Kalra and Singh (2005) studied the relationship of family environment with emotional intelligence. The results revealed direct relation of control, cohesion, expressiveness, and moral religious emphasis
with emotional intelligence But it did not find to have any significant relation with independence, achievement orientation, and actual recreational orientation.

Kulshrestha and Sen (2006) conducted a study on 150 executives of different job strata of Hero Honda Motor Ltd. The results of the study reveal that emotional intelligence and locus of control have significant correlation with subjective well being. Ss with high EI and internal LOC scored significantly high on positive effect and low on negative effect. Similarly they scored significantly high on all the three dimensions of life satisfaction scale.

Bay, S.G. and Lim, K.M. (2006) examined the relationship between seven variables of Gardner’s (1993) theory of Multiple Intelligences and the four components of the Emotional Intelligence construct (Goleman, 1995; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Several interesting findings highlighted the correlates of Multiple Intelligences and Emotional Intelligence. A negative correlation was found between interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence; logical / mathematical intelligence is negatively correlated with interpersonal intelligence; and that no relationship was found between a student’s interpersonal intelligence and their total emotional intelligence quotient.
Menizie, T.A. (2005) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and social and academic competence in middle school youth. A positive correlation was reported between these two measures.

Harrod, N.R.; and Scheer, S.D. (2005) measured emotional intelligence in 200 youth. EI scores were compared to demographic characteristics of the individuals (age, sex, household income, parent’s level of education and location of residence). Findings indicate that EI levels were positively related to female, parent’s education, and household income. The study did not show significant relationship between adolescent EI and location of residence or age. EI scores were significantly different between females and males, with females reporting higher EI levels. A one-way ANOVA showed no significant differences between EI scores and age, location of residence and household income. Significant differences were found based upon EI scores for parent’s education; as they increased so did EI levels. In a liner regression model, with demographic as the independent variables and EI as the dependent variable, father’s education and sex were both predictors.

Caliper has assessed personality and cognitive traits that relate to one’s ability to perceive and manage emotions in oneself and others. These traits are:
i) Abstract Reasoning or problem solving: It involves the ability to understand and solve complex, multidimensional problems. Abstract Reasoning is positively related to emotional intelligence in the workplace, as issues related to emotions at work are often highly complex and thus, may rely on strategies, as opposed to simple solutions. Those higher in problem solving or intelligence, were more likely to advance with in an organization. (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000). Additionally, intelligence has been found to be highly correlated with an inventory designed to measure emotional intelligence, namely the MSCEIT (O’Connor and Little, 2003).

ii) Accommodation: It measures friendliness and openness in personal interactions. Those who possess moderate or average levels of this trait are likely to seek out situations in which they can demonstrate their helpfulness and compassions towards others.

iii) Assertiveness: It is the ability to express one’s thoughts consistently and in a direct manner. Those with average or above average level of this trait should also possess higher emotional intelligence, as they will be better able to express their thoughts, feelings and beliefs in a direct, yet constructive way. Assertiveness has been positively related to career
satisfaction in individuals from various occupational groups (Lounsbury et al., 2003).

iv) Ego-strength / confidence: It is the ability to handle rejection and accept criticism in a manner that is constructive and growth-oriented. In general, individual with moderate to high levels of Ego-Strength / Confidence tends to have healthy, intact ego and positive self-esteem. These characteristics increase self-awareness which is considered to be important for the expression of emotional intelligence. Adults with higher self-esteem have also been found to display higher levels of EI. (Schutte et al. 2002).

v) Empathy: It is an important component of EI because it is a measure of one’s ability to sense the reactions of another person and to adjust one’s position appropriately in order to deal effectively with others. Those higher in empathy are more inclined to listen well and to try to understand others. Thus, individuals higher in empathy have been found to be more emotionally intelligent (Mayer et al. 2002; Schutte et al. 2001); and more successful in the work place (Cherniss, 2001).

vi) Flexibility: It involves the ability to adapt and respond to change. A cornerstone of EI at work is the ability to perceive and quickly respond to everyday changes. The more flexible people are, the more they are
likely to modify their approach as changing conditions require, consider a variety of possible actions and develop alternate plans (Caruso, 1999).
vii) Gregariousness, an extroverted, cheerful optimism, also taps in to components of EI. Individuals who possess some degree of Gregariousness will find genuine enjoyment in social interactions both in the professional and personal lives. Individuals higher in EI were more extroverted, or had a stronger preference for social interactions. (Saklofske, Austin, and Minksi, 2003); than those scoring lower in EI. Those scoring high on certain dimensions of EI, such as managing emotions on the MSCEIT, also reported more positive relationships with others, compared to those who score lower in EI (Lopes, Salovey and Straus, 2003).

viii) Self-structure / self-discipline: Individuals possessing a moderate to high degree of self-structure are able to establish and maintain their own agendas at work, and are unlikely to permit distractions, emotional or otherwise, from interfering with completion of tasks and goals.

ix) Skepticism or a pessimistic attitude toward others detracts from one's ability to display EI. Having a doubting attitude or state of mind toward others can block one's ability to effectively perceive and respond to people's feelings. Similarly, optimism increases one's mood or motivation
to persist despite obstacles and setbacks, thus, optimism is considered to be an important component of EI. Optimism has been positively related to career satisfaction of individuals in a variety of occupational groups. (Lounsbury et al; 2003).

x) Sociability measures the ability and desire to be with and work with people. Sociable individuals will be motivated to hone the skills necessary to effectively collaborate with others. Compared to those lower in EI, adults with higher EI possessed stronger social skills and were more likely to report that they had close and affectionate relationships (Schutte et al. 2001).

Mount’s (2000) study demonstrates that emotional intelligence competencies are critical to the successful planning and execution of international business in a capital-intensive, asset-based industry. An analysis of the data found ten competencies and six unique skills / expertise characteristics related to successful international business activities. Three of the competencies were classified as cognitive (I.Q.), seven as emotional (EQ) and six unique characteristics as skill / expertise (S/E) competencies. These competencies identified behaviours that if replicated across the organization, would create an international capability. The study also indicated that flow characteristics were not
limited to superior performers but were likely to be experienced by
typical performers as well. These competencies describe behaviours
that provide the sense of direction, self-confidence, and means to leverage
other capabilities to influence outcomes in a way that is personally
satisfying and organizationally valued. The hidden value of EQ is that it
provides a foundation for performance, which itself evolves from
achievement and socialized power motives.

You, J. et al. (1998) investigated how much burn out individuals
experience at work and which personal variables influence the burnout
experience. Ss were studied as to whether the burnout experience is
mediated by emotional dispositions (mood- awareness, mood regulation,
mood expressiveness) and emotion related motivation (ego-resilience,
self-efficacy, optimistic thinking). Results showed that the burnout
experience had a quadratic relationship with S’s length of time at current
jobs. The results showed that the more flexible Ss and Ss who better
dealt with emotional problems experienced less burnout caused by work.
The results also suggest that middle aged Ss repressing emotional
conflicts coupled with a rigid way of thinking could be most vulnerable
to job-related stress.
Pellitteri, John (1999) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, cognitive reasoning, and defense styles. The first hypothesis was that individuals with high emotional intelligence would utilize adaptive rather than maladaptive defense styles. More specifically, the abilities of emotional perception and regulation were expected to relate to ego defense mechanisms since each type of mental process shares the similar function of managing emotions at different levels of consciousness. The second hypothesis was that since emotional intelligence is a separate intelligence from general I.Q., it would have only moderate correlations with cognitive reasoning. Support for the construct of emotional intelligence as an area of functioning that is separate from I.Q. was provided by a correlation of 0.34 between cognitive reasoning and emotional intelligence. The four defense styles had low correlations with emotional intelligence (from -0.16 to 0.22). Defense styles were not correlated with the emotional intelligence components of perception and regulation as expected. Only the adaptive defense style was related to emotional knowledge after accounting for cognitive reasoning.

Pellitteri, John (2002) examined the relationship between the components of emotional intelligence (perception of emotion, affect
regulation and emotional knowledge) and personality factors associated with adaptation, represented by the hierarchical model of defense mechanisms (M. Bond et al. 1983). 107 adults (aged 18-52 yrs.) served as Ss. Bivariate correlation analyses yielded mixed results: the adaptive defense styles were correlated with overall EI but not with emotional perception and regulation components, as was hypothesized. Emotional knowledge was correlated with both adaptive and non-adaptive defense styles and with general intelligence, as was expected.

Gohm, C. et al. (2005) examined the association between EI (emotion-relevant abilities) and stress (feelings of inability to control life events), considering personality (self-perception of the meta-emotion traits of clarity, intensity and attention) as a moderating variable. Results suggest that EI is potentially helpful in reducing stress for some individuals, but unnecessary or irrelevant for others.

had low correlations with four cognitive ability factors and Big Five personality factors, indicating that it may represent either a new psychological construct or a method factor. Social perceptiveness correlated significantly with cognitive abilities, indicating its place in this domain. The remaining three factors had moderate correlations with various personality dimensions and low correlations with cognitive abilities, indicating that they fall outside the latter domain. On the basis of the present results only maximum performance and not self-report measures of EI can be seen as tapping the cognitive ability domain.

Rippeth, R. (2003) examined the relationship between EI and family environment, alexithymia and ego-development. The total EQ score was the dependent measure. Results from multiple regression analysis indicate that the independent variables as a group significantly contribute to the prediction of EI, accounting for 58% of the variance in EQ scores. Although a causal relationship cannot be shown with multiple regression, significant findings suggest that high levels of ego-development, low levels of alexithymia and certain family environmental characteristics are related to EI.

Jayan, C. (2006) assesses and analyzes the manner in which emotional competencies and performance are related and how emotional
competencies and its clusters distinguish among low, medium and high managerial performances. Participants were male middle-level managers. Results showed that the high managerial performers had significantly more emotional competence and its four clusters than the relatively lower managerial performers.

Sitareinous (2002), assessed EI skills of high, medium and low performance groups. The results show that EI skills are significantly related to job performance.

2.7 Gender differences in EI

The controversy among the two sexes in terms of strength remains as an unfinished agenda. According to Dr. Raote Rani, (2000), a famous psychotherapist, “Though women are said to be more sensitive to feelings, it could be erroneous to point one sex as being more emotionally intelligent than the other”. There are some specific areas like verbal skills, women have proved to be better than men. Some studies show that women are scared of Maths and men are stronger at it. This does not mean men are superior to women.

Jane Block, (2000), a psychiatrist, has made a comparison of theoretical pure types, people high in I.Q. versus people high in emotional aptitudes. The profiles differ slightly for men and women.
i) The High I.Q. Male has a wide range of intellectual interest and abilities. The person is ambitious, productive but tends to be critical and condescending, fastidious and inhibited, uneasy with sexuality and sensual experience, unexpressive, detached and emotionally bland and cold.

ii) The High E.Q. Male is socially poised, outgoing and cheerful. He has a noticeable capacity for commitment to people or causes for taking responsibility and for having an ethical outlook. The person is sympathetic and caring in his relationships and has a rich, appropriate emotional life, is comfortable with himself, others and the social universe he lives in.

iii) The High I.Q. Female is intellectually confident, fluent in expressing her thoughts, values, intellectual matters and has a wide range of intellectual and aesthetic interests. She tends to be introspective, prone to anxiety, rumination and guilt and hesitates to express her anger openly.

iv) The High E.Q. Female is assertive and expresses her feelings directly and feels positive about herself. Life holds meaning for her. She is outgoing, gregarious and expresses her feelings appropriately. She adopts well to stress. Her social poise lets her
easily reach out to new people. She is comfortable enough with herself to be playful, spontaneous and open to experiences.

These portraits, of course, are extremes of I.Q. and E.Q. in varying degrees.

Katyal, S; and Awasthi, E. (2005); studied gender differences in emotional intelligence among adolescents. Girls were found to have higher emotional intelligence than that of boys. However the difference touched only 0.10 level, hence finding are just suggestive of the trend.

Chadha (2001) conducted a research to find out gender differences in emotional intelligence. Results indicated that there was no significant gender difference in emotional intelligence.

The study conducted by Rivera, C. and Beatriz, V. (2004) is founded on the premise that the gender role dynamics affect emotional intelligence behavior differently for men and women and that the degree and features of the difference is affected by cultural factors primarily. The analysis reveals a difference in emotional intelligence behaviour between work and personal context. When the analysis is performed by gender the difference increases. Women show a significant difference in seven and men in six of the 21 competencies of the emotional intelligence competency frame work used in the study. It also shows
that women display a higher level of their competencies at home and men at work behaviour that is in line with the gender role dynamics and the cultural characteristics of the sample. A correlation analysis revealed that the difference in behaviour is related to the masculinity / femininity dimension of culture and human values in the case of women (Hofstede, 1997; Boyatzis et al. 1999). Self-confidence is believed to be at the center of the difference in behavior especially for women, whose differential behaviour is evident at the social competence level. Men show a difference in display at the personal competence level of the model.